

**Fusing organisational change and leadership into a practical roadmap for  
South-African organisations**

by

TONJA BLOM

Submitted in accordance with the requirements  
for the degree of

DBL

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: DR RC VILJOEN

MAY 2015

## DECLARATION

I, T. Blom (Student number: 704 256 55) hereby declare that “Fusing organisational change and leadership into a practical roadmap for South-African organisations” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

---

SIGNATURE

(Mrs T. Blom)

---

DATE

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to express my gratitude to the following people for their invaluable assistance in this research project:

To my husband: Jan Blom. Thank you for your endless patience and support. I would not have been able to do this without you by my side.

To my academic promoter: Dr Rica Viljoen. Thank you for you. With your guidance, wisdom and expertise this was a most enjoyable journey. I do not believe we have reached the end yet. Your energy is contagious!

To the SBL librarians: Ms Lorraine Grobler and Ms Megan Scheepers. Thank you for your commitment, dedication and willingness to assist.

I would like to acknowledge Ms Moya Joubert for assuming the role of editing and proofreading of this document.

To everybody who responded to all my questions. Thank you for the insights gained through our conversations.

I am grateful to everybody who assisted me on this journey. Thank you for your prayers, thoughts, laughter, tears and well-wishes.

## **ABSTRACT**

The intention of this study was theory creation in the field of organisational change, directed towards the creation of a conceptual change framework. A qualitative research approach was followed and a grounded theory methodology adopted.

This study involved a theoretical investigation of organisational change and leadership within South African organisations, although insights gained could be transferred across contexts or settings. The primary aim was to create a practical change framework to ensure sustainable organisational change. Secondly, to determine the impact of leadership on successful organisational change. Thirdly, to establish whether any fundamental elements can be identified as essential for inclusion in such a change framework. Fourthly, to identify non-negotiable success factors that can ensure successful change. Fifthly, to determine the human elements that should be included in order to minimise negative outcomes such as resistance and non-compliance. The final aim was to ascertain what meta-insights can be gained from organisational change and leadership.

The research findings concluded that the first perception when speaking about change is fear, anxiety and increased stress, resulting in impaired functioning. Organisations struggle to handle increased stress levels during periods of change and require improved methods of dealing with stress to ensure optimal individual functioning. Only through reduced stress levels will individuals be able to engage with organisational change initiatives.

Alternative intervention technologies were suggested which could assist the individual change journey through reduced stress and/or increased consciousness. These alternative intervention technologies were suggested because of the paucity of current literature. It practically aids organisations on how to deal with the stress dilemma.

This research introduced the concepts of anti-leader and anti-manager. These concepts depict the negative characteristics of leadership and management which invariably increases individual stress levels. Emotions elicited by the anti-leader and/or anti-manager could potentially split, divide and fragment a workforce.

The ideal organisational approach should be designed by the people, be inclusive of all, involve, empower and allow individuals to make the required decisions. As organisational change can only be effected through individual change, this thesis places the individual in the centre. Without individual change, vicissitude and sustainable organisational change become highly unlikely.

**Key terms:**

Alternative intervention technologies; anti-leadership; anti-management; communication; emotional intelligence; human niches; human reaction to change; leadership; Neuro-leadership; organisational change; organisational change framework; stress; vicissitude.

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

<b>DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS.....</b>	<b>xvi</b>
<b>ABBREVIATIONS.....</b>	<b>xix</b>
<b>PREFACE.....</b>	<b>xx</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1: GENERAL ORIENTATION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND.....	2
1.3 CLARIFICATION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS.....	5
1.3.1 Introduction.....	5
1.3.2 Organisational Change.....	5
1.3.3 Vicissitude.....	6
1.3.4 Perceptions.....	6
1.3.5 Resistance.....	7
1.3.6 Spiral dynamics.....	7
1.4 RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	9
1.4.1 Research aims.....	9
1.4.2 Research questions.....	10
1.5 ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER.....	10
1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY.....	11
1.7 THE USE OF LITERATURE IN THIS STUDY.....	13
1.7.1 Introduction.....	13
1.8 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY.....	14
1.8.1 Ontology.....	14
1.8.2 Epistemology.....	17
1.8.3 Logic.....	18
1.8.4 Ethics.....	19
1.8.5 Methodological assumptions.....	19
1.8.6 Conclusion.....	21
1.9 RESEARCH STRATEGY.....	21
1.9.1 Introduction.....	21
1.9.2 Research design.....	22
1.9.2.1 <i>Population and sampling</i> .....	24
1.9.2.2 <i>Data collection methods</i> .....	25
1.9.3 Data analysis.....	27
1.9.3.1 <i>Open coding</i> .....	28
1.9.3.2 <i>Axial coding</i> .....	29
1.9.3.3 <i>Selective coding</i> .....	29
1.9.4 Conclusion.....	29
1.10 ENSURING QUALITY DATA.....	30
1.11 UNIQUE CONTRIBUTION OF THIS RESEARCH.....	32
1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	35
1.13 DELIMITATIONS.....	35
1.14 CHAPTER LAYOUT.....	36
<b>CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE.....</b>	<b>39</b>
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	39
2.2 ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE THEORY.....	39
2.3 CURRENT CHANGE MODELS.....	42

2.4	CHANGE CATEGORIES.....	55
2.5	CRITICAL FORCES DRIVING CHANGE.....	56
2.6	IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP ON ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE.....	58
2.7	RESISTANCE TO CHANGE.....	59
2.8	BEHAVIOUR RELATING TO ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE.....	62
2.9	COMMUNICATION.....	64
2.10	THE ETHICS OF CHANGE.....	66
2.11	PERCEPTIONS ON CHANGE.....	68
2.12	LEADERSHIP.....	70
2.13	INTEGRATION.....	75
2.14	CONCLUSION.....	75
	<b>CHAPTER 3: HUMAN NICHES .....</b>	<b>77</b>
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	77
3.2	INTRODUCTION TO SPIRAL DYNAMICS .....	78
3.3	SPIRAL DYNAMICS AND HUMAN NICHES.....	81
3.4	MEMES.....	84
3.5	HUMAN NICHES.....	92
3.5.1	Description of the different human niches.....	93
3.5.2	The first-tier human niches .....	94
3.5.2.1	<i>BEIGE: The first-level human niche; “survival”</i> .....	94
3.5.2.2	<i>PURPLE: The second-level human niche; “our people”</i> .....	94
3.5.2.3	<i>RED: The third-level human niche; “visible risk”</i> .....	98
3.5.2.4	<i>BLUE: The fourth-level human niche; “stabiliser”</i> .....	99
3.5.2.5	<i>ORANGE: The fifth-level human niche; “calculated risk”</i> .....	100
3.5.2.6	<i>GREEN: The sixth-level human niche; “inclusive”</i> .....	101
3.5.3	The second-tier human niches .....	102
3.5.3.1	<i>YELLOW: The seventh-level human niche; “systemic/functional”</i> ...	102
3.5.3.2	<i>TURQUOISE: The eighth-level human niche; “integral-holonic”</i> .....	102
3.6	INTEGRATION OF HUMAN NICHES AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE.....	103
3.7	CONCLUSION.....	105
	<b>CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>107</b>
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	107
4.2	RESEARCH STRATEGY.....	107
4.2.1	Qualitative research approach.....	108
4.2.2	Grounded theory.....	109
4.3	SAMPLING DESIGN.....	111
4.3.1	Theoretical sampling.....	111
4.3.2	Sample size.....	113
4.4	PURPOSE OF VARIOUS DATA GATHERING METHODS.....	115
4.4.1	Case study.....	115
4.4.2	In-depth interviews.....	118
4.4.3	Focus group sessions.....	119
4.4.4	Solicited data.....	120
4.4.5	Field notes and observations.....	121
4.5	DATA CODING AND ANALYSIS.....	122
4.5.1	Data coding outline.....	122
4.5.1.1	<i>Open coding</i> .....	123
4.5.1.2	<i>Axial coding</i> .....	123
4.5.1.3	<i>Selective coding</i> .....	124

4.5.1.4	<i>Concepts, categories and theory</i> .....	124
4.5.2	Data analysis outline.....	125
4.5.2.1	<i>Constant comparative method</i> .....	125
4.5.2.2	<i>Memoranda, sorting, outlining and writing</i> .....	125
4.5.2.3	<i>Conceptual ordering</i> .....	126
4.6	ANTICIPATED PROBLEMS DURING DATA COLLECTION.....	127
4.7	CONCLUSION.....	128
<b>CHAPTER 5: THE CASE OF FLEET, TOTAL WORKING TIME AND WORK STYLE INNOVATION.....</b>		<b>129</b>
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	129
5.2	THE FLEET INITIATIVE .....	130
5.2.1	Contextual evolution.....	130
5.2.2	Organisational strategy.....	132
5.2.3	Prevalent culture within Fleet.....	133
5.2.4	Change methodology.....	134
5.2.5	Human reactions to organisational change.....	136
5.2.6	The experience of leadership and/or management.....	139
5.2.7	Problems and steps taken to rectify them.....	139
5.2.8	Organisational change results.....	142
5.2.9	Organisational change challenges.....	143
5.2.10	Beyond results.....	144
5.2.11	Integration.....	145
5.2.12	Conclusion.....	146
5.3	THE TWT INITIATIVE .....	147
5.3.1	Contextual evolution.....	148
5.3.2	Organisational strategy.....	150
5.3.3	Prevalent culture within TWT.....	152
5.3.4	Change methodology.....	153
5.3.5	Human reactions to organisational change.....	154
5.3.6	The experience of leadership and/or management.....	155
5.3.7	Problems and steps taken to rectify them.....	156
5.3.8	Outcomes of the problems experienced.....	158
5.3.9	Organisational change results.....	160
5.3.10	Organisational change challenges.....	161
5.3.11	Beyond results.....	161
5.3.12	Integration.....	162
5.3.13	Conclusion.....	163
5.4	THE WSI INITIATIVE .....	164
5.4.1	Contextual evolution.....	164
5.4.2	Organisational strategy.....	167
5.4.3	Prevalent culture within WSI.....	168
5.4.4	Change methodology.....	170
5.4.5	Human reactions to organisational change.....	171
5.4.6	The experience of leadership and/or management.....	172
5.4.7	Organisational communication method.....	172
5.4.8	Problems and steps taken to rectify them.....	175
5.4.9	Organisational change results.....	176
5.4.10	Organisational change challenges.....	177
5.4.11	Beyond results.....	178
5.4.12	Integration.....	179



5.4.13	Conclusion.....	181
5.5	INTEGRATION.....	182
5.6	CONCLUSION.....	182
	<b>CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH FINDINGS.....</b>	<b>184</b>
6.1	INTRODUCTION.....	184
6.2	RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	184
6.2.1	In-depth interviews.....	184
6.2.1.1	<i>In-depth interview (ex-CEOs)</i> .....	184
6.2.1.2	<i>In-depth interview (senior leaders)</i> .....	189
6.2.1.3	<i>In-depth interview (CEOs)</i> .....	192
6.2.1.4	<i>In-depth interview (divisional head)</i> .....	196
6.2.2	Focus group sessions.....	199
6.2.2.1	<i>Focus group session 1</i> .....	199
6.2.2.2	<i>Focus group session 2</i> .....	202
6.2.2.3	<i>Focus group session 3</i> .....	205
6.2.2.4	<i>Focus group session 4</i> .....	208
6.3	INTEGRATION.....	211
6.4	CONCLUSION.....	212
	<b>CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH ANALYSIS.....</b>	<b>214</b>
7.1	INTRODUCTION.....	214
7.2	DATA CODES.....	214
7.2.1	Case study.....	214
7.2.1.1	<i>Application of human niches to the fleet initiative</i> .....	216
7.2.1.2	<i>Application of human niches to the TWT initiative</i> .....	217
7.2.1.3	<i>Application of human niches to the WSI initiative</i> .....	218
7.2.2	In-depth interviews.....	219
7.2.3	Focus group sessions.....	222
7.2.4	Integration.....	225
7.2.5	Conclusion.....	226
7.3	CATEGORIES.....	228
7.4	INDUSTRY'S ORGANISATIONAL NARRATIVE.....	231
7.4.1	Themes.....	232
7.4.2	Change methodology.....	233
7.4.3	Change strategy.....	235
7.4.4	Change success.....	235
7.4.5	Change failure.....	237
7.4.6	Emotions.....	239
7.4.6.1	<i>Stress</i> .....	241
7.5	LEADERSHIP.....	243
7.5.1	Leadership characteristics.....	245
7.5.2	Leadership tasks.....	245
7.6	MANAGEMENT.....	247
7.6.1	Senior management.....	248
7.7	INTEGRATION.....	250
7.8	CONCLUSION.....	251
	<b>CHAPTER 8: INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS.....</b>	<b>254</b>
8.1	INTRODUCTION.....	254
8.2	DEVELOPMENT OF CODES, CONCEPTS, CATEGORIES AND MEMOS.....	254
8.3	GROUNDING THEORY.....	256

8.4	DATA FINDINGS.....	257
8.4.1	Case study data.....	257
8.4.1.1	<i>Fleet</i> .....	258
8.4.1.2	<i>TWT</i> .....	259
8.4.1.3	<i>WSI</i> .....	260
8.4.1.4	<i>Integration</i> .....	261
8.4.2	In-depth interviews.....	263
8.4.3	Focus group sessions.....	267
8.4.4	Field notes and observations.....	271
8.5	INTEGRATION.....	272
8.6	CONCLUSION.....	275
	<b>CHAPTER 9: STRESS AND THE BRAIN.....</b>	<b>277</b>
9.1	INTRODUCTION.....	277
9.1.1	Human reaction to change.....	278
9.2	IMPACT OF STRESS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT.....	279
9.2.1	Stress and anxiety defined.....	280
9.2.2	Stress and the brain.....	281
9.2.3	Stress and distress.....	284
9.2.4	Anxiety.....	284
9.2.5	Trauma.....	287
9.2.6	Stress and exercise.....	289
9.2.7	Stress and violence and ways to counter them.....	293
9.2.8	Stress and the organisation.....	296
9.2.9	Mindfulness.....	299
9.3	STRESS AND LEADERSHIP.....	300
9.3.1	Neuroscience/neuroleadership.....	305
9.3.2	Polyvagal theory.....	307
9.4	THE STRESS BAROMETER.....	309
9.5	STRESS CONCLUSION.....	314
9.6	THE BRAIN.....	316
9.6.1	The psychological mind.....	317
9.6.2	Working memory.....	319
9.6.3	Rumours.....	321
9.6.4	Bad is stronger than good.....	322
9.6.5	Brain functioning conclusion.....	324
9.7	LEADERSHIP AND THE BRAIN.....	328
9.8	INTEGRATION.....	330
9.8.1	Stress.....	330
9.8.2	Leadership.....	331
9.9	INTEGRATION OF CONCLUSIONS OF DIFFERENT DATA FINDINGS.....	333
9.10	CONCLUSION.....	335
	<b>CHAPTER 10: DISCUSSION OF THE NEED FOR ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES.....</b>	<b>337</b>
10.1	INTRODUCTION.....	337
10.2	STRESS REDUCTION METHODS.....	338
10.3	DESCRIPTION OF CHANGE TECHNIQUES.....	341
10.4	ALTERNATIVE INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES THAT FACILITATE CHANGE.....	344

10.4.1	Why look at spiritual intervention technologies?.....	346
10.4.2	What are spiritual intervention technologies?.....	351
10.5	FURTHER USE OF LITERATURE IN THIS STUDY.....	353
10.6	CONCLUSION.....	354
<b>CHAPTER 11: SPIRITUAL AND OTHER INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES FOR SUCCESSFUL ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE.....</b>		<b>355</b>
11.1	INTRODUCTION.....	355
11.2	SPIRITUAL INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES.....	356
11.2.1	Healing at a distance.....	356
11.2.2	Physiological correlations at a distance.....	360
11.2.3	Consciousness development.....	364
11.2.4	Intuition as an intervention technology.....	372
11.2.5	Precognition and presentiment.....	375
11.2.6	Yin and Yang.....	378
11.3	OTHER INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES.....	380
11.3.1	Music.....	380
11.3.2	Chanting.....	384
11.3.3	Juggling.....	388
11.3.4	Multiple intelligences.....	389
11.4	INTEGRATION.....	396
11.5	CONCLUSION.....	398
<b>CHAPTER 12: PHYSICAL INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES FOR SUCCESSFUL ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE.....</b>		<b>399</b>
12.1	INTRODUCTION.....	399
12.2	PHYSICAL INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES.....	400
12.2.1	Shaking.....	401
12.2.2	Trauma releasing.....	406
12.2.3	Yoga.....	414
12.2.3.1	<i>Various yoga methods</i> .....	416
12.2.3.2	<i>Chakra healing (tantra yoga)</i> .....	420
12.2.3.3	<i>Yoga conclusion</i> .....	423
12.3	OTHER INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES.....	425
12.3.1	Meditation.....	425
12.3.2	Breathing.....	431
12.3.2.1	<i>Pranayama</i> .....	431
12.3.2.2	<i>Holotropic Breathwork</i> .....	432
12.3.2.3	<i>Breathing summary</i> .....	434
12.4	ART AND SYMBOLISM INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES.....	435
12.4.1	Mandalas.....	435
12.4.2	Symbolism and art.....	437
12.5	AWAKENING CONSCIOUSNESS.....	441
12.6	INTEGRATION.....	445
12.7	CONCLUSION.....	450
<b>CHAPTER 13: RESEARCH RESULTS.....</b>		<b>453</b>
13.1	INTRODUCTION.....	453
13.2	RESEARCH RESULTS.....	453
13.3	THE EMERGING FRAMEWORK.....	459
13.3.1	Change framework.....	459
13.3.2	Leadership versus anti-leadership.....	460
13.3.3	Management versus anti-management.....	464

13.3.4	Change.....	465
13.3.5	Communication.....	467
13.3.6	Strategy.....	468
13.3.7	SCARFS and WAIVE.....	469
13.3.8	Change framework.....	474
13.4	RESEARCH QUESTIONS ANSWERED.....	484
13.4.1	How can a conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership be created?.....	484
13.4.2	How does the leadership role impact on successful organisational change? .....	487
3.4.3	Can any fundamental elements be identified as essential for inclusion in such an attempted change framework?.....	489
13.4.4	What success factors are non-negotiable to ensure successful change?.....	492
13.4.4.1	<i>Time</i> .....	493
13.4.4.2	<i>Communication</i> .....	493
13.4.4.3	<i>Ethics</i> .....	494
13.4.4.4	<i>Leadership</i> .....	495
13.4.4.5	<i>Trust</i> .....	495
13.4.5	What human elements related to change?.....	496
13.4.6	How can the understanding of human niche thinking aid the change process?.....	497
13.5	META-INSIGHTS.....	498
13.6	ENSURING QUALITY DATA.....	500
13.7	CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE ...	502
13.8	POTENTIAL FUTURE RESEARCH.....	506
13.9	CONCLUSION.....	507
APPENDIX A	Ethical clearance certificate.....	509
APPENDIX B	Ethical clearance checklist.....	510
APPENDIX C	Consent to act as a research subject.....	511
APPENDIX D	Interview format (in-depth interviews) .....	513
APPENDIX E	Interview format (focus groups) .....	515
APPENDIX F	Permission to conduct research.....	516
APPENDIX G	Main concepts and data categories.....	517
APPENDIX H	Verbatim responses.....	518
APPENDIX I	Category extract.....	528
APPENDIX J	Relational map example (strategy example).....	531
APPENDIX K	Positive, negative and neutral categories.....	532
APPENDIX L	Fractured and reworked data by theme.....	533
APPENDIX M	Reworked data from focus group sessions (strategy example).....	537
APPENDIX N	The BEIGE human niche.....	538
APPENDIX O	Chakra (tantra) healing.....	543
APPENDIX P	Researcher's grounded theory journey.....	549
APPENDIX Q	Spiral dynamics training certificate.....	551
APPENDIX R	Tension and trauma releasing certification.....	552
APPENDIX S	Literature review keyword search.....	554
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....		<b>555</b>

**TABLE OF FIGURES**

FIGURE 1.1	Research design .....	26
FIGURE 2.1	Lewin's (1951) three-step model.....	42
FIGURE 2.2	The U-movement.....	45
FIGURE 2.3	Adapted U-movement integrating human reactions to change...	47
FIGURE 2.4	The five Cs of the individual change process.....	49
FIGURE 2.5	Phases and features of the transition cycle.....	50
FIGURE 2.6	Psychological responses to change.....	51
FIGURE 2.7	PREXU model.....	52
FIGURE 2.8	Inclusivity framework.....	53
FIGURE 2.9	A framework for organisational change.....	57
FIGURE 2.10	Scenarios in how change is perceived.....	70
FIGURE 3.1	A comprehensive view of the interrelatedness of African PURPLE.....	197
FIGURE 5.1	Basic elements of the whole person.....	138
FIGURE 5.2	Adapted U-movement integrating organisational description....	146
FIGURE 5.3	Example of organisational structure impacted by TWT.....	149
FIGURE 5.4	Adapted U-movement integrating organisational description....	162
FIGURE 5.5	WSI people impact roadmap.....	165
FIGURE 5.6	Adapted U-movement integrating organisational description....	180
FIGURE 5.7	Adapted version of Lewin's (1951) three-step model.....	181
FIGURE 7.1	Downshift of the human niche when under stress.....	227
FIGURE 7.2	Further breakdown of data categories (working example).....	230
FIGURE 7.3	Change methodology.....	234
FIGURE 7.4	Success factors.....	236
FIGURE 7.5	Change failure.....	238
FIGURE 7.6	Emotions.....	240
FIGURE 7.7	Stress.....	242
FIGURE 7.8	Leadership tasks.....	246
FIGURE 7.9	Senior management.....	249
FIGURE 7.10	Primary themes related to the individual, the organisation and change.....	250
FIGURE 8.1	Focus Group Summary.....	270
FIGURE 8.2	The individual and organisational change.....	274
FIGURE 9.1	Yerkes Dodson Law.....	283
FIGURE 9.2	Accumulation of stress over time.....	291
FIGURE 9.3	Implementation of relaxation techniques in professional life....	292
FIGURE 9.4	The integrate model.....	304
FIGURE 9.5	Stress barometer.....	313
FIGURE 9.6	Lewin's (1951) 3-Step-model and the adapted version.....	314
FIGURE 9.7	Adapting organisational stress to Yerkes Dodson Law.....	316
FIGURE 9.8	The brain, stress and the individual.....	325
FIGURE 9.9	Individual reactions to change.....	327
FIGURE 9.10	Leadership pillars.....	332
FIGURE 9.11	The organisational change triad.....	333
FIGURE 9.12	Adapted framework for organisational change.....	334
FIGURE 10.1	U-movement adapted to include reality of individual stress.....	343
FIGURE 11.1	Variety of conscious states.....	370
FIGURE 11.2	Human niche multiple intelligences.....	393
FIGURE 11.3	Adapted chart of yin and yang qualities.....	397

FIGURE 12.1	The seven principal chakras.....	421
FIGURE 12.2	Before and after meditation MRI scans.....	427
FIGURE 12.3	Example of diagram by Morrison (2014).....	440
FIGURE 12.4	Whole person map.....	444
FIGURE 12.5	Alternative intervention technologies and vicissitude.....	447
FIGURE 12.6	A spiral.....	448
FIGURE 12.7	Rebuilding Viljoen-Terblanche’s (2008) Inclusivity model.....	451
FIGURE 13.1	Example of the interconnectivity of organisational change.....	456
FIGURE 13.2	Leadership characteristics.....	458
FIGURE 13.3	Anti-leadership.....	461
FIGURE 13.4	Anti-management.....	465
FIGURE 13.5	The individual situation.....	466
FIGURE 13.6	5S principle of strategy formulation.....	468
FIGURE 13.7	Stress barometer.....	471
FIGURE 13.8	Extension of SCARF model to SCARFS.....	471
FIGURE 13.9	WAIVE emotions.....	473
FIGURE 13.10	The leadership, individual, disequilibrium triangle.....	475
FIGURE 13.11	Visualised change elements.....	475
FIGURE 13.12	The individual change process.....	476
FIGURE 13.13	Change framework and Stoic pillars .....	478
FIGURE 13.14	Fusion of f(T x CELT) into positive or negative change.....	481
FIGURE 13.15	Change visualisation.....	483
FIGURE 13.16	Juggling organisational changes.....	488

**TABLE OF TABLES**

TABLE 1.1	Human niches.....	8
TABLE 1.2	Description of research steps and methodology.....	26
TABLE 1.3	Summary of research design.....	30
TABLE 3.1	The living strata in our psycho-cultural archaeology.....	83
TABLE 3.2	The belief/value structures and their respective organising principles.....	90
TABLE 4.1	Criteria for case studies.....	116
TABLE 5.1	Project demographics.....	149
TABLE 7.1	Case study similarities.....	215
TABLE 7.2	Category extract.....	229
TABLE 8.1	Coding.....	254
TABLE 8.2	Summary of concepts.....	255
TABLE 8.3	Categories.....	255
TABLE 8.4	Example of memo writing.....	256
TABLE 9.1	Adapted social readjustment scale.....	310
TABLE 9.2	Summary of the possible outcomes of effective leadership.....	328
TABLE 10.1	Categories of alternative possibilities.....	352
TABLE 11.1	Map of Consciousness.....	366
TABLE 11.2	Multiple intelligences and human niche theory.....	392
TABLE 12.1	Shaking timeline.....	403
TABLE 12.2	Yoga timeline.....	415
TABLE 12.3	Adapted Map of Consciousness.....	442
TABLE 12.4	Alternative workshop suggestion.....	449
TABLE 13.1	Similar manifestations during change.....	454
TABLE 13.2	Leadership versus anti-leadership.....	462
TABLE 13.3	Change elements and components.....	490



## DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

**Anti-leadership** – Anti-leadership is the antithesis of leadership. Unethical behaviour, indecisiveness and being egocentric, untrustworthy, non-accountable and disjointed are all prevalent characteristics of the anti-leader. Selective listening, selective action and communication, greed and corruption further typify the anti-leader. The anti-leader generally has a short-term view, is enticed by instant gratification and disregards the contribution of followers. Ignorance, apathy, ambivalence, arrogance, inefficiency, the inability to address challenges, a lack of integrity and self-knowledge are further characteristics of the anti-leader. The researcher introduces this concept at the end of the research process.

**Anti-management** – Anti-management is the antithesis of management. Crisis management is the daily practice of the anti-manager, coupled with nontransparency and no recognition of other's efforts. The anti-manager spends time on power games and building empires. Organisations are finding it increasingly difficult to sustain anti-managers who hold power by virtue of their position in the organisational structure as opposed to their managerial ability. The researcher introduces this concept at the end of the research process.

**Change management (CM)** – The business environment is constantly changing. CM is an approach to dealing with change from the perspectives of individuals and organisations (Creasy, 2007). Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) argue that change management generally addresses organisational change simplistically, scheduled according to a project plan as a milestone to be implemented and project managed. According to Viljoen-Terblanche (2008), change management should acknowledge human reactions to change, systems thinking and underlying mental models in the organisation.

**Change methodology** – A change methodology represents a collection of problem-solving methods governed by a set of principles and a common philosophy for solving targeted problems (Kettinger, Teng & Guha, 1997).

**Complex adaptive systems** – A system is a purposeful collection of interrelated components that work together to achieve an objective. Complex systems exhibit characteristics of self-organisation, non-linearity, order/chaos dynamics and emergence. Complexity ensues by allowing a system to adapt to its environment. Complex adaptive systems involve a large number of elements which interact locally. Structures go through a process of change not describable by a single rule or reducible to a single level of explanation. Features emerge that cannot be predicted from the current description of the structure (Kaisler and Madey, 2009).

**Emotional intelligence (EQ)** – In this research, the Goleman (1998) model was adopted, which views EQ as a wide range of competencies and skills that drive human



performance, measured by self-report and multi-rated assessment (Boyatzis and Goleman, 2005).

**Human resources (HR)** – HR refers to the people that staff and operate an organisation – as opposed to the financial and material resources of an organisation (Tracey, 2006).

**Innovation** – Innovation refers to a new idea, method or device; the act or process of introducing new methods or ideas (*Merriam-Webster dictionary*, 2013). Within the context of this study, the emergent, conceptualised framework was understood to combine new ideas, methods or devices, given the multi-faceted topic of organisational change and leadership.

**Leadership** – Owing to the fact that change has become the norm, coupled with the extreme pace of change, further research into the field of organisational change and leadership seems imperative to moderate the detrimental effect of unsuccessful change initiatives (Todnem-By, 2005; Smith, 2011; Bareil, Savoie & Meunier, 2007; Fukukawa, *et al.*, 2013). In this context leadership refers to the leadership capability that managers need to effectively manage, guide and lead employees towards successful change. This description of leadership was applied throughout this study.

**Neuro-leadership** – Neuro-leaders are able to apply brain research to create applicable toward responses in followers. Such responses might include a positive outlook, emotional stability, adaptability, people focus, self-regulation, empathy and mindsight (Rock, 2008, 2009; Ringleb and Rock, 2013).

**Neuromanagement** – Neuromanagers are able to apply brain research to create applicable towards responses in subordinates. Such responses might include, but are not limited to, a focus on communicating, motivating, mentoring and innovating. Communications from the neuromanager will be open and honest, building a pathway for mutual trust (Rock, 2008, 2009; Ringleb and Rock, 2013).

**Organisational change** – Organisational change refers to any alteration of a core aspect of an organisation's operations (Helms Mills, Dye & Mills, 2009).

**Organisational capacity for change (OCC)** – OCC refers to “a combination of managerial and organisational capabilities that allows an enterprise to adapt more quickly and effectively than its competition to changing situations” (Judge and Douglas, 2009: 635).

**Portal** - A portal is a means of entrance, a doorway, the point of entrance or approach (*Merriam-Webster dictionary*, 2013). Given the context of organisational change, this research postulated that leaders should be portals.

**Radical change** – Within the context of this research, radical change was understood as change that fundamentally changes the organisation. Through radical change, the organisation endures a metamorphosis (Meyer, Bettenhausen & Tayler, 1993). For radical changes, it is inappropriate to use trusted processes; instead, creative thinking is required in order to realise really new things (Maes and Van Hootegem, 2011).

**Spiral dynamics (SD)** – SD uses the symbol of a spiral to explain development and value systems in people (Beck and Cowan, 1996). SD is the study of the emergence and patterns of deep values due to different thinking systems and coping mechanisms (Beck and Cowan, 1996). This study will attend to these different thinking systems as portrayed through human niches (Laubscher, 2013).

**Stress** – In this research Selye's (1956) term "stress" will be used to describe a set of physical and psychological responses to adverse conditions or influences. Selye (1964) applied the engineering term "stress" to describe the stereotypical response of an organism to a wide range of chemical, biological or physical stimuli and recognised that stress included both a neurological and a physiological reaction. Selye (1987:17) defined stress as "... the non-specific response of the body to any demand placed upon it".

**Trust** - Trust within the context of organisational change, subscribes to the following definition: Trust means having confidence in the honesty, integrity, reliability and justice of another person or thing (*Webster new world dictionary*, 1983). Trust is thus based on the acceptance of interpretations that include awareness that information is imperfect (Möllering, 2001). Trust then suggests a linkage between the way in which employees interpret the change situation and some measure of willingness to become vulnerable and to undertake a mental leap towards trust (Möllering, 2001).

**Vicissitude** – Vicissitude refers to the fact of change or mutation occurring in a particular thing or in a certain sphere. Vicissitude is the uncertain changing or mutability of something; the successive substitution of one thing or condition for another taking place from natural causes (*Oxford universal dictionary illustrated*, 1959).

## ABBREVIATIONS

Acronym/abbreviation	Description
ACTH	Adreno-cortico-tropin
ADH	Anti-diuretic hormone
AK	Applied kinesiology
ANS	Autonomic nervous system
BK	Behavioural kinesiology
CEO	Chief executive officer
CM	Change management
CNS	Central nervous system
CRH	Cortico-tropin releasing hormone
DTI	Diffusion tensor imaging
EEG	Electroencephalogram
EQ	Emotional intelligence
EOS	Employee opinion survey
EPR	Einstein-Podolosky-Rosen
ESP	Extrasensory perception
fMRI	functional magnetic resonance imaging
GL	Group leader
HI	Healing by intention
HOTS	Higher order thinking skills
HPA axis	Hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal axis
HR	Human resources
LOC	Levels of consciousness
LOTS	Lower order thinking skills
MHU	Man hours per unit
OAC	OPEN - ARRESTED - CLOSED
OBE	Out-of-body experiences
OCC	Organisational capacity for change
PK	Psychokinesis
PNS	Parasympathetic nervous system
PTSD	Post-traumatic stress disorder
REG	Random event generator
SA	South Africa
SD	Spiral dynamics
SNS	Sympathetic nervous system
TL	Team leader
TM	Team member
TWT	Total working time
WHO	World health organisation
WSI	Work style innovation

## **PREFACE**

I, the researcher, had been interested in change for a long time, and had worked in strategic IT for many years. During this period, I operated from a project-based perspective, but repeatedly became aware of the difficulty organisations experience when they are required to change. I also realised that organisations handle project-based change relatively easily. However, this kind of change rarely includes the individual, change management or any other “soft” issues.

More recently, I have worked in strategic HR, only to find the same phenomenon. From my experience, even when organisational change was not technologically driven, change rarely included and/or involved the individual.

In this study, I adopted a Straussian approach to grounded theory. I studied traditional and operational literature on organisational change. I then gathered data and discovered codes, concepts and categories as they emerged.

However, subsequent to data gathering, I remained acutely aware that a huge chasm still remained. I felt my study was incomplete because of this obvious gap and I returned to the literature. While this may be perceived as a non-traditional approach, grounded theory does allow the researcher to re-examine the literature.

I therefore decided to write additional chapters, proposing alternative intervention technologies to assist individuals with the change process. Through this research study, I hope to make a contribution to individual change, and ultimately to individual vicissitude.

## CHAPTER 1: GENERAL ORIENTATION

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus in this research will be on fusing the concepts of organisational change and leadership into a conceptual framework while acknowledging the importance of the human element in successful change. The research aims and research questions will be presented and the research design, methodology and approach discussed in this chapter.

Change occurs on multiple concurrent paths for both the individual and the organisation. No or little respite may result in distrust, uncertainty and the reality of organisational change fatigue (Lewis, Romanaggi & Chapple, 2010). Hence, leadership must mitigate change fatigue and resistance through the creation of a trusting environment, a level of certainty, and an understandable translation of strategy while providing the direction, vision and belief in the chosen path.

Most change initiatives have had low success rates (Kotter, 1996, 2008; Stanleigh, 2008; Armenakis and Harris, 2009; Meaney and Pung, 2008; Haines, Aller-Stead & Mckinlay, 2005) despite the investment in time and resources (Oakland and Tanner, 2007). Beer and Nohria (2000a) found that about 70% of all change initiatives fail. Nikolaou, Gouras, Vakola & Bourantis (2007) set the failure rate at 75% while Gilley, Gilley & McMillan (2009a, 2009b) indicated a failure rate of between 30 and 60%. Furthermore, it is estimated that 46% of organisations undergo three or more complex changes at any one time (Bareil, *et al.*, 2007). The impact of this can be devastating for individuals in these systems.

Various research recommendations have emerged from the literature on change. Todnem-By (2005) has expressed the need to conduct exploratory research to increase the current body of knowledge on organisational change management. Maes and Van Hootehem (2011) have called for research to make sense of the current jumble of change models. The work of Kotter (1995) is still regarded as relevant and he argues that current change and leadership literature does not treat these two subjects conjointly, although leadership is deemed to be critical to the change process (Kotter, 1995). Bateh, Castaneda & Farah (2013) echo the above

sentiments, stating that much remains to be established about the role of leadership in the change process. Bell and Bodie (2012) argue that leadership theories need clearer alignment with the study of organisational change.

Todnem-By (2005) acknowledges the need to identify critical success factors/competencies for the management of change. Bateh, *et al.*, (2013) argue that there is little clarity on which factors are the most important for change readiness. According to Smollan, Matheny & Sayers (2010) further research is needed to understand emotional experiences during change. Various authors reiterate the necessity to design a valid framework for change management (Todnem-By, 2005; Burnes, 2004; Hallencreutz and Turner, 2011; Lattuch and Young, 2010).

The aim of this research will therefore be to design such a conceptual framework. The role of leadership in the change process will be explored and an attempt made to align the leadership and organisational change requirements.

This chapter explores the background on organisational change. The terms and concepts used in the study are also clarified and the research problem and role of the researcher discussed. The reasoning and considerations behind the use of literature in this study will be debated. The significance and unique contribution of the study will be explained. The research philosophy and methodology will be presented together with the research design and quality data, ethical considerations and delimitations considered. A focus on the fusion of organisational change concepts and leadership into a conceptual framework with due consideration of the human element in successful change, will underpin these discussions. The chapter concludes with the chapter layout.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND**

The new economy ushered in huge business opportunities and great turmoil arising from the increasingly volatile environment, resulting in the constant state of change in which organisations have to operate. Most organisations have accepted – in theory – that they must change or die. However, change remains difficult to achieve, and few companies manage the process effectively (Todnem-By, 2005; Beer and

Nohria, 2000a; Meaney and Pung, 2008). Globalisation, new technology, customer expectations and increased diversity accelerate change, generally with extreme unpredictability (Guillory, 2007; Burke, 2009) while contributing to the need for organisations to significantly modify the way they do things (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998).

Bridges and Mitchell (2000) rightly conclude that business conditions change and yesterday's practices and assumptions no longer work. The purpose of organisational change is to adapt to the environment, improve performance and change employees' behavioural patterns (Leana and Barry, 2000). Even though change is the new normality (Senior and Swailes, 2009), implementing it remains a risky endeavour (Stebbing and Braganza, 2009) because organisations continue to struggle with effective change implementation (Kotter, 1996, 2008; Armenakis and Harris, 2009; Meaney and Pung, 2008; Haines, *et al.*, 2005).

Laubscher (2013) found that different thinking systems are not understood throughout the organisation and that interventions should yield a multifaceted system approach. This clearly poses a unique leadership challenge in the South African context. Given the unique challenges facing the country in general and the manufacturing industry specifically, the intention of this research was to create a change framework, acknowledging and incorporating the importance of leadership in the change initiative.

Change perceptions, diverse workforces, technological change and increased competition are part of the South African business context (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008). The world arena is not static, but a continually changing environment, making adaptability imperative (Denton and Vloeberghs, 2003). Munro (1997) maintains that business in South Africa has major opportunities, but organisations have to utilise the waves of change, despite the unique leadership challenges within the country (Laubscher, 2013). Roodt (1997) argues that the typical South African corporate environment reflects a "them and us" culture, labour relations with a tendency towards conflict and violence, ethnic and language diversity, a wealth and poverty gap, illiteracy, peer group pressure and fear of job insecurity.

Worldwide challenges relating to globalisation, new technology, increased customer expectations and diversity are equally prevalent in South Africa which is dominated by large conglomerates, plagued by cartels, with active political involvement in corporate control (Vaughn and Ryan, 2006). South Africa's challenges are complex and multi-faceted and their resolution depends on sound, adept and ethical leadership (Naidu-Hoffmeester, 2014). However, the country currently faces different kinds of leadership and is standing on the brink of leadership changes and challenges (Naidu-Hoffmeester, 2014).

In the manufacturing industry and specifically the automotive sector, which is the backdrop of this thesis, in the 1980s, South Africa witnessed a process of disinvestment for both political and economic reasons, but in the late 1990s and early 2000s, saw considerable reinvestment by global automotive companies (Silver, 2003). The country was traditionally a favoured site for industrial expansion during the 1970s and 1980s but lost favour during the 1990s for reasons relating to militant labour movements, restructuring of the global financial order and the expansion of the Chinese and Indian economies (Silver, 2003).

A large South African automotive company frequently administers an employee opinion survey (EOS) to measure staff opinion objectively in an endeavour to improve employee retention, lower absenteeism and improve productivity. During 2013, the participant rate among employees was 23.03%. The lowest scoring dimensions were interpersonal relations with management, interpersonal relations in a team, and pay and benefits. All elements seemingly relate to the fast-changing work environment as the company attempts to adapt and respond to changing economic conditions, customer and client expectations and a shifting workforce. In this research, a case study was used to further explain the background and context relating to organisational change, leadership, individual change experiences and human reactions to change.



## **1.3 CLARIFICATION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS**

### **1.3.1 Introduction**

The term “change” is used loosely in organisations and easily applied to any organisational event. However, organisational change is a complex, multidimensional concept. Research into organisational change frequently fragments the topic, resulting in fragmented theory and ambiguity. Simplifying a term without full understanding of the complexity will invariably lead to oversimplification, incorrect generalisation, disintegration, ambiguity and even clichés. In this section the terms “organisational change”, “vicissitude”, “perceptions”, “resistance” and “spiral dynamics” will be explained and clarified in an attempt to study organisational change holistically. Since these terms and concepts appear throughout the current study, this section will clarify their positioning.

### **1.3.2 Organisational change**

Organisational change refers to any reconfiguration of components in an organisation to increase efficiency and effectiveness (Boohene and Williams, 2012). Organisational capacity for change (OCC) is defined as “a combination of managerial and organisational capabilities that allows an enterprise to adapt more quickly and effectively than its competition to changing situations” (Judge and Douglas, 2009:635). However, the term “change” is loosely attached to anything that becomes different (*Oxford paperback dictionary*, 1994). According to Gilley, Gilley & McMillan (2009b) the term “change” is full of possible meanings and is often described as ambiguous. Marshak (2002) argues that the current terminology and conceptual language of organisational change make it difficult to address the range of changes confronting modern organisations. Such difficulties include ambiguous and imprecise ways of talking about change, changing contexts and implicit assumptions (Marshak, 2002).

Several related concepts apply to organisational change. Organisational flexibility is defined as “the capacity to respond to environmental change” (Palaniswamy and Sushil, 2003:84) or as “a combination of a repertoire of organisational and managerial capabilities that allow organisations to adapt quickly under environmental shifts” (Hatun and Pettigrew, 2004:239). Organisational learning relates to OCC and

is defined as “a consciously managed organisation with learning as a vital component in its values, visions, and goals, as well as in its everyday operations and assessment” (Moilanen, 2005:71). Organisational receptivity to change is defined as “an emerging, but undeveloped, notion which attempts to reveal the factors which contribute to organisations being either low-change, non-receptive contexts, or high-change, receptive contexts” (Butler, 2003:S48).

### **1.3.3 Vicissitude**

The *Oxford universal dictionary* (1959:2355) defines vicissitude as the “fact of change or mutation taking place in a particular thing or within a certain sphere, the uncertain changing or mutability of something”. In contrast to the term “change”, the term “vicissitude” encompasses the fact of change, coupled with the requirement of change. Furthermore, the intention of this study was to provide a comprehensive multidisciplinary treatment of a discipline, namely, organisational change. As such, this study used the term “vicissitude” in relation to organisational change. No studies that the researcher was aware of were able to define a holistic, operational change construct. Consequently, in this study the focus was on systematically developing organisational change theory. This was done using grounded theory methodology.

Closely related to the concept of vicissitude is employee readiness for change. Employee readiness for change is defined as “the extent to which an individual or individuals are cognitively and emotionally inclined to accept, embrace, and adopt a particular plan to purposefully alter the status quo” (Holt, Armenakis, Field & Harris, 2007:239).

### **1.3.4 Perceptions**

The relative success of a change process is not determined by how change is described, explained, or understood by scholars, but by how it is experienced and what it means to those directly affected (Smollan, 2006). Furthermore, the same change may be viewed and appreciated by different organisational actors in fairly diverse ways (Dibella, 2007). Perceptions assume that an individual sees the world through his or her own screen (Charmaz, 2006). This is closely intertwined with Laubscher’s (2013) human niches which describe different thinking systems in

people. According to Jones, Watson, Gardner & Gallois (2004), research fails to take adequate account of the perceptions and responses to organisational change by members of different groups. In the context of organisational change, an individual's perceptions on organisational change can be vastly different from those in his or her immediate working group. In this study, perceptions were investigated from an individual and organisational viewpoint, in an attempt to understand any divergence.

### **1.3.5 Resistance**

Despite the plethora of research associated with resistance, there is substantial variability in how the phenomena associated with resistance are perceived and executed (Erwin and Garman, 2010). Various authors define resistance negatively as a force obstructing the efforts of change leaders (Kotter, 1995; Coch and French, 1948) while other definitions imply that resistance to change is a problem that needs to be overcome or eliminated (Piderit, 2000; Mabin, Forgeson & Green, 2001). Resistance is often seen as any unfavourable reaction, opposition, or force that prevents or inhibits change (Boohene and Williams, 2012). However, it has also been proposed that resistance may be useful and that it can be productively harnessed to help challenge and refine strategic and action plans (Mabin, *et al.*, 2001) while improving the quality of decision making (Lines, 2004). In the context of this study, resistance was not treated as a positive or negative influence, but rather as a force which should be harnessed in the particular organisational circumstances.

### **1.3.6 Spiral dynamics (SD)**

SD is a theory of human development, based on the theory of the bio-psycho-social system of human development by Graves (1978). Beck and Cowan (1996) introduced the term "spiral dynamics", arguing that human nature is not fixed and that, when confronted by changing life conditions, humans can adapt by constructing new value systems that allow them to cope with the new reality. SD is the study of the emergence and patterns of deep values (Beck and Cowan, 1996). The concept of SD is based on a spiral, and as the spiral unfolds, it becomes more complex (Beck, 2004). According to Beck (2004) each spiral turn represents a different world view from which reality can be understood. This is also called a value system. SD assists in the identification and understanding of life conditions (Beck, 2004), while

the value system approach intertwines the condition of existence and the corollary coping modes (Laubscher, 2011).

Laubscher (2013) further built on Graves's (1978) views, developing the term "human niches" to describe the areas in which people excel because of their questions of existence. Laubscher (2011, 2013) integrated and described human niches with the different colours assigned by Beck and Cowan (1996) and found that a person or society needs a crisis to move to a new human niche. A human niche depicts a thinking system in the individual, organisation or society at large.

SD is potentially useful in organisations because of its ability to recognise and work with different (and sometimes competing) levels of values in the organisation (Smith, 2002; Beck and Cowan, 1996). Integrating human niches and SD into the organisational change process and leadership could provide insights which will ensure success for individuals, leaders, organisations and society as a whole.

Laubscher (2013) adapted Beck and Cowan's (1996) approach to explain dynamics in developing and under developed countries. She repositions the different value systems as detailed by Graves (1974) as human niches which is displayed in table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Human niches (Laubscher, 2011:np)

Colour	Question of existence that determines human niches
BEIGE	How do I survive?
PURPLE	How can we sacrifice for the benefit of the community/family/elders?
RED	How can I obtain power?
BLUE	How can we sacrifice to prepare for the future?
ORANGE	How can I conquer the material world and take calculated risks?
GREEN	How can we sacrifice for the benefit of the world and peace?
YELLOW	How can I survive while the world survives?

Owing to the questions of existence that people and groups unconsciously pose, specific human niches or ways of being, crystallise. Because of asking a specific

question of existence, a human niche will excel at a particular existence answer. Table 1.1 indicates the different questions of existence for each colour of the spiral. The relevant question of existence determines human niches.

## **1.4 RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Organisations today are faced with many intricacies. Rapid environmental changes, the need for sustained profitability and general complexities such as globalisation, diversity, technological changes and leadership challenges all necessitate organisations having to rethink old methods and embark upon new ones. This implies change or vicissitude. Organisations seem capable of implementing hard changes such as new information systems or related new technologies relatively easily. However, despite the huge amount of time and resources spent on change, successfully implementing holistic change remains problematic. Few organisations can withstand the high rate of organisational change failure, yet few of them place organisational change high on the management/strategy agenda.

This is pervasive in organisation's structures which do not cater for a change portfolio in the organisational structure. There seems to be little (if any) integration between human elements and the technological elements of change. Current change methodology seemingly does not support individual change and/or individual vicissitude and thus struggles to yield the required results.

### **1.4.1 Research aims**

The primary aim of this research will be to develop a conceptual framework, in the form of a practical map, for organisational change and leadership. This framework could serve as a catalyst towards the successful execution, implementation and completion of organisational change.

The sub-aims of the research are formulated as follows:

- To explore the role and impact of leadership on organisational change.
- To ascertain whether any fundamental elements relating to change should be included in the change framework designed.

- To identify the non-negotiable success elements that will ensure successful change.
- To understand the human elements relating to change.
- To derive meta-insights into organisational change and leadership.
- To understand the significance of human niche thinking in the change process.

#### **1.4.2 Research questions**

The main research question is conceptualised around a change framework to assist organisations with successful and sustainable organisational change.

The sub research questions are formulated as follows:

- How does the leadership role impact on successful organisational change?
- Can any fundamental elements be identified as essential for inclusion in the change framework envisaged?
- What success factors are non-negotiable to ensure successful change?
- What human elements relate to organisational change?
- What meta-insights can be derived regarding organisational change and leadership?
- How can the understanding of human niche thinking aid the change process?

### **1.5 ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER**

In the manufacturing industry, in the setting of a particular automotive organisation, the researcher became aware that organisations are generally involved in three or more complex changes at any one time. Large investment in time and effort accompanies these complex changes. Many of these changes fail to acknowledge the importance of the human element in successful change and fail to deliver the promised results. Also, many changes are subject to rework.

The researcher's role will be that of the student. During this period, which commenced in 2012 and ended in 2014, the researcher will take field notes. Furthermore, the researcher's stance as a participant observer should be acknowledged and accepted throughout the various phases of research.

In the context of the case study presented in chapter five, the researcher's role was one of internal consultant. This role commenced when the business analysis started, and was completed during May 2013. Next, time was spent on analysing business needs, gathering user requirements and drawing up current and new processes. Furthermore, data collection mainly centred on business needs and requirements. Observation was used to determine the human experiences and elements relating to organisational change.

The case study is set in an organisation where the researcher was located. The focus group sessions will be conducted in the same organisation. As such it is possible that the researcher could be faced with situational contaminants, administrative variations and response set bias. In an attempt to moderate these constraints, roles and responsibilities will be clarified and clearly stated at the start of each focus group session. Clear roles will be essential to the success of the research.

The quality, as opposed to the quantity of data, will be of key importance in this research. Hence, a careful process of theoretical sampling, rigorous notes, peer review and triangulation will be used to mitigate these concerns.

## **1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY**

Organisational development initiatives and interventions play a critical role in change management processes and organisational transformation (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008). Various calls have been made for improved organisational change theory development (Maes and Van Hootehem, 2011; Bateh, *et al.*, 2013). The current study attempts to respond to these calls by closing some of the identified gaps in the organisational change literature.

The researcher will conduct exploratory research in an effort to increase the current body of knowledge on organisational change. The researcher hopes to identify critical success factors for the management of change which could assist with the measurement of change initiative success rates. Various authors have deplored the lack of a valid framework on how to implement and manage organisational change

(Todnem-By, 2005; Burnes, 2004; Hallencreutz and Turner, 2011; Lattuch and Young, 2010). The current study attempts to fill this void by designing a practical yet flexible, conceptual framework to guide organisations towards successfully achieving organisational change.

Given the seemingly lack of a valid framework on organisational change management (Todnem-By, 2005; Burnes, 2004; Hallencreutz and Turner, 2011; Lattuch and Young, 2010) following a grounded theory approach deems applicable. Hence the current study will attempt to provide a foundation for the implementation and management of successful organisational change through the emerging process of grounded theory. Many of the negative outcomes of organisational change can be mitigated through successful change. Reducing negative outcomes such as resistance, stress and insecurity will positively impact on the lives of individuals, groups and organisations alike.

The vague role of leadership in the change process has been noted by various authors (Bateh, *et al.*, 2013; Caldwell, Chatman, O'Reilly, Ormiston & Lapiz, 2008; Eisenbach, Watson & Pillai, 1999) together with the requirement of clearer alignment between leadership theories and the study of organisational change (Bell and Bodie, 2012). In the South African context, the paucity of leaders who can manage difficult times and problems has been noted (Ngwenya, 2014). Furthermore, it has been stated that current leadership (Vundla, 2014) and leadership legitimacy (Ngwenya, 2014) in South Africa are questionable and that leaders do not take care of their employees (Ngwenya, 2014). According to Veldsman (2012), the leadership role has changed, and only leaders who are able to find personal meaning in change are able to create authentic, sustainable change for their followers. In the current study, the two disparate perspectives of organisational change and leadership will be fused together into a practical framework. This will also link to the concept of vicissitude, which was introduced earlier, by exploring the impact of leadership on individual vicissitude.



## **1.7 THE USE OF LITERATURE IN THIS STUDY**

### **1.7.1 Introduction**

This research will follow a grounded theory approach, as developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Divergent thoughts led to what is commonly termed the Glaserian and the Straussian approach to grounded theory (Hekkala, 2007) where the role of existing literature in research activities differs in these two approaches (Halaweh, 2012). According to Glaser (1992), literature should not be examined before commencing the study in order to avoid constructing prior assumptions and beliefs which might bias the researcher. In contrast, Strauss and Corbin (1990) acknowledge the need for a survey of the literature before fieldwork commences as this will ensure that the researcher enters the research area with some knowledge of the phenomenon under investigation.

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), literature can be used to derive effective questions and is helpful for theoretical sensitivity. In the context of this research, the researcher adopted a Straussian approach to grounded theory and conducted a literature review. This approach encouraged the generation of some knowledge of the phenomenon of organisational change and leadership before the fieldwork commenced. Such a literature review will serve to theoretically sensitise the researcher, while stimulating the development of research questions. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), a review of literature further provides clarity of thought, raises awareness of how to avoid the methodological, ethical and conceptual pitfalls that occurred in previous studies, and helps the researcher to discover the contours of the existing knowledge base. Chapter two will investigate organisational change in the existing literature to create the landscape in which organisational change would be explored.

Jones, *et al.* (2004) state that research fails to take adequate account of the perceptions of and responses to organisational change by members of different groups. In her work on radical organisational change, Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) highlighted the fact that human niches are not integrated into traditional change theory. The current research will place special emphasis on various perceptions and responses through the integration of human niches into organisational change, which

will be discussed in chapter three. Upon completion of fieldwork, the researcher will revert back to the literature in order to validate, substantiate or refute themes as they emerged from the data. Chapter nine will contain a thorough literature review, focusing on themes that emerged from data.

## **1.8 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY**

Research philosophy reflects how one thinks about the development of knowledge (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2003). Traditionally, philosophy includes four core disciplines: namely ontology, epistemology, logic and ethics. If phenomenology were added the following statements would explain the contribution of each of these core fields (Chalmers, 2002). Guba and Lincoln (1988) define the research paradigm as a representation of the basic belief system or world view that guides the researcher.

This research will be underpinned by the Stoic philosophy. Miles (2000) cautions that any change, regardless of its size, has a cascading effect on an organisation. The researcher felt that it would be apt to follow the philosophy of Stoicism, and couple the above to the fast-changing business environment. When considering the doctrines of the Stoics, it is important to remember that they view philosophy not as an interesting pastime or even a particular body of knowledge, but as a way of life. An examination of Stoic ontology indicates a belief that all things happen through fate, but that this is brought about by fate through me (Russell, 1946).

A social constructivist epistemology will be adopted in this study. The methodological assumptions of the researcher will be grounded in qualitative research which would adopt a grounded theory methodology and inductive reasoning. Each of these research philosophy elements will now be discussed.

### **1.8.1 Ontology**

Ontology is the philosophical study of the nature of being – what is (Crotty, 1998). Ontology is traditionally listed as part of the metaphysics branch of philosophy, dealing with questions concerning what entities exist and how they can be grouped and subdivided according to similarities and differences. As stated earlier, this research will be underpinned by the Stoic philosophy.

Precious little remains of Stoic writings. However, we do know Socrates as the chief saint of the Stoics; - his attitude at the time of his trial, his refusal to escape, his calmness in the face of death and his contention that the perpetrator of injustice injures himself more than his victim, fitted in perfectly with Stoic teachings. The Stoics deemed virtue to be important and built their philosophy on four pillars: namely justice, wisdom, self-control and courage (Russell, 1946).

The Stoic ethical doctrine changed very little, which was what most Stoics regarded as being of chief importance (Russell, 1946). For Plato, change was metaphysically confusing and change also took on an epistemological dimension – everything around us changes (Garvey and Stangroom, 2013). By contrast, Zeno had no time for metaphysical subtleties. Zeno deemed virtue important and only valued physics and metaphysics in so far as they contributed to virtue (Russell, 1946). The Stoics claimed that their philosophical system was like an orchard: logic was the protective wall, physics was the soil and the trees, and ethics was the fruit (Garvey and Stangroom, 2013).

“Men looked to the past for what was best; the future, they felt, would be at best a weariness, and at worst a horror” (Russell, 1946:249). In the same vein as Marcus Aurelius, we see the difference between a tired and hopeful age. In a hopeful age, great present evils can be endured, because they will pass; in a tired age, even real goods lose their savour (Aurelius, s.a.). Everything around us changes (Garvey and Stangroom, 2013). As in the times of Marcus Aurelius, the Stoic ethic suits organisations today, as the philosophy remains one of endurance rather than hope.

Through the lens of the researcher, the Stoics seek truth and spiritualism as opposed to materialism. The researcher does not argue against materialism, but asks for greater integration between the material and spiritual. The covetousness of materialism detracts from the totality of that which the individual can become. Stoics regarded the soul as immaterial, composed of material fire. God is the soul of the world, and each individual contains a part of the Divine Fire, all things are part of one single system. Individuals are little souls, carrying a portion of Divinity within (Sellars, 2006).

The ontology of Stoicism integrates well with the different worldviews that will be discussed in chapter three as human niches (Laubscher, 2013). PURPLE does not ask materialistic questions of existence, - instead rituals, superstitions and spirituality are of importance to people in this human niche. Furthermore, PURPLE looks to the past for truth. To PURPLE the future has a different meaning. The past and knowledge of it are beneficial. The stoics claimed that truths about the past are necessary and that whatever is good must benefit its possessor under all circumstances (Russell, 1946). The PURPLE future view is not one of saving, rather it is one where work will not be finished within this lifetime, and therefore an unhurried approach is applicable.

By contrast, RED seeks instant gratification while BLUE seeks truth. Laubscher (2013) reminds us that each of the human niches excels in a different area because of different thinking systems. Each of the human niches has different truths, ethics and logic. Stoicism believed in the human race as one community, humans exist for the sake of one another (Russell, 1946). Stoicism implores us to frequently consider the connection of all things to the universe (Russell, 1946). This resonates with Ubuntu.

The concept of Ubuntu comes from the saying “Umuntu ngumntu ngabantu” in isiZulu (Coetzee and Roux, 2002:231) which embodies the personal relations between oneness-people. Thus, a person is only a person because of other people.

The Stoic philosophy also seems particularly suited to modern leadership. Stoicism appealed intensely to the rulers of the day, asserting that the Stoic is not virtuous in order to do good, but to do good in order to be virtuous (Russell, 1946). Stoicism provides a heroic doctrine from which leaders can lead with zeal and endurance. Given the endurance that is required from leadership during organisational change, a Stoic philosophy seems apt. In the context of organisational change, the attitude, calmness, content and courage of Socrates, as well as the virtuous pillars of justice, wisdom, self-control and courage, seem applicable symbols to pursue given the difficult task of organisational change and leadership.

Different viewpoints, thoughts and sentiments will inform the ontology and determine the information in this study. The ontological stance of the researcher will be that of the view that there is no single world view but sets of overlapping worldviews (Lessem and Schieffer, 2010). Through understanding different thoughts, individuals may feel better understood. Based on an ontology of being true to the self and true in the representation of the work and true to the participant's thinking system, relevant knowledge may be determined accurately and outcomes will be informed from multiple realities, where each perspective has equal validity (Guba and Lincoln, 1988).

### **1.8.2 Epistemology**

Epistemology is the study of knowledge – how we know (Chalmers, 2002). Epistemology is the branch of philosophy concerned with the nature and scope of knowledge, it questions what knowledge is and how it can be acquired (*Encyclopaedia of philosophy*, 1967), thereby providing a philosophical grounding for establishing kinds of knowledge (Blaikie, 2007). An epistemology is thus a theory concerning to what extent and how we can get to know the world through our own efforts (Morin, 1986).

Social constructivist epistemology can be summarised by means of Korzybski's (1933:38) statement to the effect that "the map is not the territory", but only one of its more or less useful representations. This means that our explanatory scientific models are only representations: sometimes useful representations, sometimes beautiful but useless ones. In the context of the current study, a social constructivist epistemology seemed appropriate, as the researcher feels that there might be seemingly limitless possible maps of the same territory, each showing useful details for different types of journeys in the same territory.

The researcher will thus adopt a social constructivist epistemology which involves a constructivist study on how participants construct meanings and actions in specific situations (Bryant and Charmaz, 2012; Charmaz, 2006). As per Hudson and Ozanne (1988), the goal of constructivist research in this research was to comprehend and interpret human behaviour, thus understanding motives, meanings, reasons and

other subjective experiences, which are time and context bound, and allowing such to become increasingly important. Constructivism assumes emergent, multiple realities, truth as provisional and social life as processual (Charmaz, 2006). This approach again resonates with human niches and Stoicism as explained in section 1.8.1.

Social Constructivist epistemology emphasises the numerous different possible modelisations of what we intend to study; each useful for different operational purposes (Massironi and Guicciardi, 2011). Following a social constructivist epistemology therefore seems appropriate for this study, emphasising the diversity of interpretations that are applicable in the world (Hugly and Sayward, 1987) and which will be encapsulated within grounded theory methodology.

### **1.8.3 Logic**

Logic is the study of valid reasoning – how we reason. Stoic logic encompassed rules governing right inferences and epistemology or theory of knowledge, as well as the philosophy of language. According to Stoic physics, the world is a living, rational, divine creature. The world itself is made up of material bodies, permeated by divine rationality which underlies and directs all change according to a benevolent plan (Garvey and Stangroom, 2013).

Through ever-changing reality (Garvey and Stangroom, 2013), living, rational and divine creatures are subjected to organisational changes which are not always benevolent in their outcome or application. As such, the reasoning followed in this study would be directed towards the individual and organisational change process as well as individual and organisational change requirements. However, individuals fulfil a major role in successful or unsuccessful change. Hence the aim of this study will be to assist the individual to engage successfully in organisational change.

The researcher opts to follow inductive logic in order to enhance her understanding of the meanings humans attach to events, thus promoting a closer understanding of the research content, collection of qualitative data and the realisation that the researcher forms part of the research process (Saunders, *et al.* 2003). Furthermore,

the researcher will follow an inductive approach because it treats human beings as thinking objects whose behaviour is a consequence of their experiences (Saunders, *et al.*, 2003). Following an inductive approach, conclusions would be drawn from facts or pieces of evidence (Cooper and Schindler, 2011).

#### **1.8.4 Ethics**

Ethics is the study of right and wrong – how we should act. Stoic ethics speaks directly to everyday people, arguing that what matters most is virtue, and virtue consists entirely in living in accord with the whole of the divinely ordered universe (Garvey and Stangroom, 2013), built upon the four pillars of justice, courage, self-control and wisdom (Sellars, 2006).

In this study, the researcher will attempt to follow Stoic logic and ethics. Following the principles of justice, courage, self-control and wisdom, the organisational change framework that will be presented, will be scrutinised against these four pillars. The applicability of these four pillars will serve as a foundation upon which benevolence could be returned to the change process.

#### **1.8.5 Methodological assumptions**

Methodology is the study of our experience – how we experience. Methodology is the systematic, theoretical analysis of the methods applied to a field of study which typically encompasses concepts such as paradigm, theoretical model, phases, qualitative or quantitative techniques (Irny and Rose, 2005). Methodology does not set out to provide solutions, but to offer the theoretical underpinning for understanding which method or set of methods can be applied to a specific case. Thus, methodology is the “strategy, plan of action, process or design” behind the choice and use of particular research methods (Crotty, 1998:3).

The current study will follow a constructivist grounded theory approach which places priority on the phenomenon of study. Grounded theory suggests that theory emerges from the data (Chesebro and Borisoff, 2007), which is a powerful tool to build new theories and understand new phenomena (Egan, 2002).

Such a grounded theory research design is consistent with a social constructivist epistemology and ontology by “placing priority on the phenomena of study and seeing both data and analysis as created from shared experiences” (Charmaz, 2006:330) because a more objectivist approach diminishes “the power of a constructivist approach by treating experience as separate, fragmented and atomistic” (Charmaz, 2006:331).

The researcher opts to apply a grounded theory methodology in an attempt to view organisational change and leadership in a new light. This will be achieved by using grounded theory as a methodological approach to generate theory grounded in empirical data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) through a process of constant comparison analysis, through theoretical sampling where data collection is driven by the emerging theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and through theoretical saturation where the collection of data continues until “additional analysis no longer contributes to discovering anything new about a category” (Strauss, 1987:21).

Many different methodologies may have the same underlying theoretical perspective and each methodology may be implemented through different combinations of research methods (Van Niekerk, 2005). Research methods are generally classified as quantitative or qualitative. This research employed a qualitative methodology, assuming an ever-changing, diverse world and multiple realities. Following a methodological assumption of an obdurate, yet ever-changing world but recognising diverse worlds and multiple realities, and addressing how people’s actions affect their local and larger worlds (Charmaz, 2006), knowledge may emerge through a grounded theory methodology.

The researcher opts for a qualitative approach which includes an array of interpretive techniques which seek to decode, describe, translate and come to terms with the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena in the social world (Van Maanen, 1979). Qualitative research aspires to achieve an in-depth understanding of a situation, drawing data from a variety of sources such as individuals, groups, organisations, settings and environments as well as events and happenings (Cooper and Schindler, 2011).



### **1.8.6 Conclusion**

The purpose of the research philosophy employed will be to arrive at results drawn from facts or evidence and constructed into a framework which is cognisant of the reality of various truths. The researcher will therefore adopt a Stoic ontology and follow a social constructivist epistemology. The reasoning followed in this study will be directed towards individual and organisational change and leadership. The researcher will be led by Stoic ethics, built upon justice, courage, wisdom and self-control, and the application of grounded theory would underpin and support the research aim of this thesis, namely to present a change framework. Such a grounded theory methodology will be supported through qualitative research and inductive reasoning.

Encapsulated with the above-mentioned research philosophy, the reality of different human niches, thinking systems, different truths and realities and different views of the world will be supported. As such, the researcher believes that the chosen research philosophy might provide relevant accuracies and realities. The researcher's own truth will be suspended in order to see what would materialise while allowing many truths.

## **1.9 RESEARCH STRATEGY**

### **1.9.1 Introduction**

Grounded theory is a research method for collecting and analysing data without any preconceived ideas or hypothesis (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), suggesting that theory emerges inductively from the data (Chesebro and Borisoff, 2007). Charmaz (2006) views grounded theory as neutral, a container into which any content can be poured. It is a powerful tool to build new theories and understand new phenomena despite weaknesses such as huge volumes of data and the time consuming nature of the method (Egan, 2002). In this study, the researcher attempts to build new theory by adopting a grounded theory research method.

Qualitative research methods that are typically associated with interpretive paradigms include grounded theory, case study, ethnography, and action research (Halaweh, 2012). Although grounded theory can fit all research paradigms (Urquhart,

2007; Urquhart, Lehmann & Myers, 2010), this research followed a qualitative approach in order to study the phenomenon of organisational change in detail, holistically and within context.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) developed grounded theory to generate theory based on three foundations. The first foundation relates to the constant comparison method of analysis, where data collection and analysis occur simultaneously. The second foundation is theoretical sampling, where data collection is driven by the emerging theory. The third foundation rests on theoretical saturation, where the collection of data continues until “additional analysis no longer contributes to discovering anything new about a category” (Strauss, 1987:21). This study will adopt a Straussian approach towards grounded theory.

### **1.9.2 Research design**

Research design is the complete strategy of tackling the central research problem, providing the overall structure of the procedures and the philosophical stance to be adopted in the research (Leedy and Ormrod, 2008). Cooper and Schindler (2011) concur, stating that research design is an activity and time-based plan - a blueprint for achieving the research objectives. Burns and Grove (2003:195) define research design as “a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings”. Parahoo (1997:142) describes a research design as “a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed”. Polit, Beck & Hungler (2001:167) define a research design as “the researcher’s overall for answering the research question or testing the research hypotheses”.

The research design of this study will comprise the following four stages: (1) the uncertainty stage, in which the primary focus emerges; (2) the emergence stage, in which the core categories, which form the foundations of the theory, emerge; (3) the ambiguity resolution stage, in which the grey areas are clarified; and (4), the maturity stage, in which the findings will be discussed against those in the literature.

This study will commence with an awareness of a general problem area. Observations and interviews will initially cover a broad range of concepts which will be narrowed down as themes and concepts emerge. Data analysis will be constant and on-going throughout the research. As initial concepts emerge from the data, new information will be compared with the initial concepts which will generate more theory and explanations on how the information fits together (Glaser, 1978a, 1978b).

The researcher derived at, and visualised the research design in figure 1.1. This figure depicts the flow diagram of the specific research design which will be applied in this study.

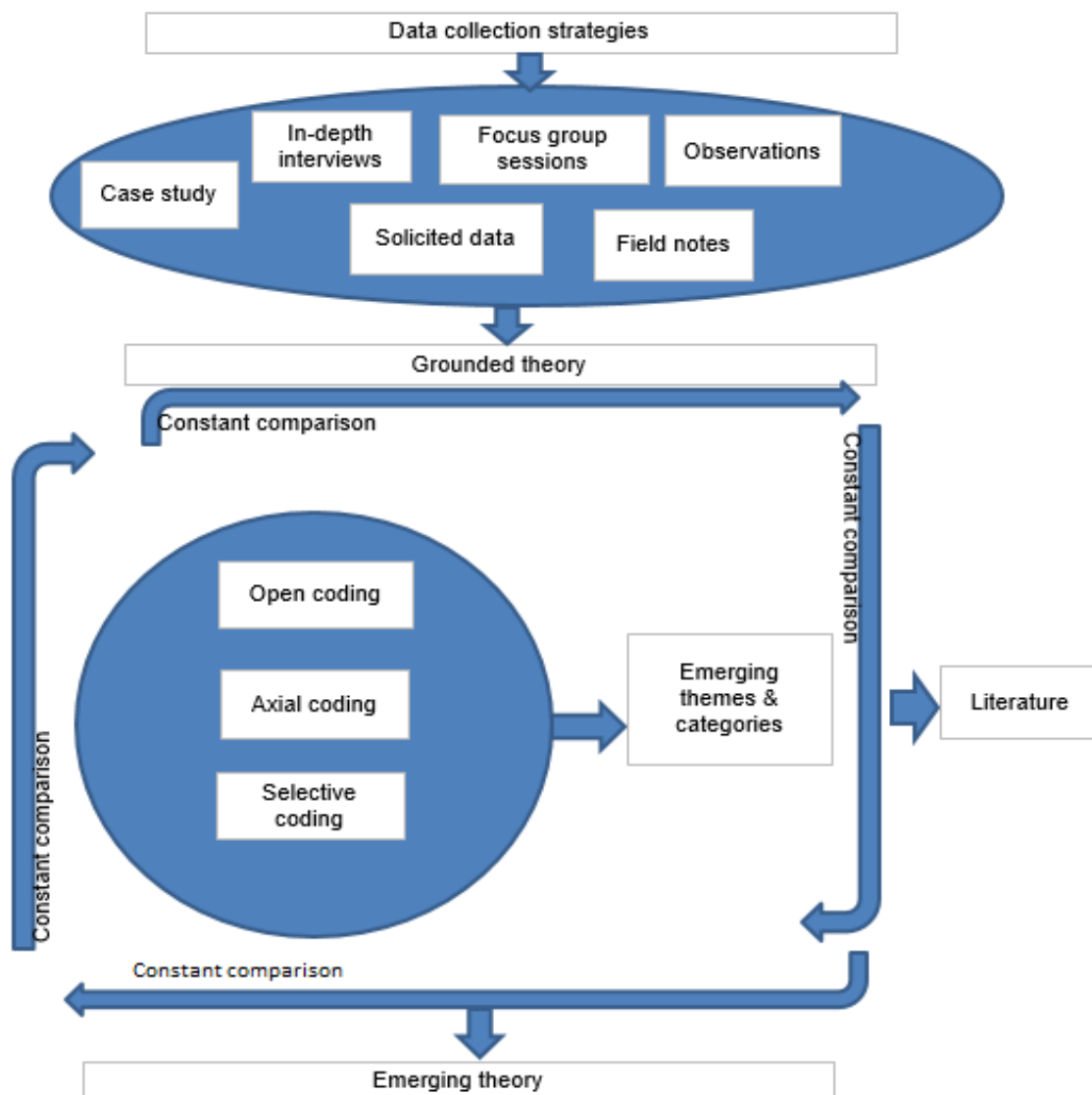


Figure 1.1: Research design

As per figure 1.1 data will be collected by means of a case study, in-depth interviews, focus group sessions, solicited data, field notes and observations. A literature review will be conducted to inform the interview questions. The collected data will then be subjected to a process of grounded theory. The researcher will use open, axial and selective coding combined with constant data comparison. This process will lead to emerging themes and categories.

Figure 1.1 indicates that the purpose of this study will be to create emerging theory through the collected data, themes and constructs, and concepts will be discovered in the collected data. Through the discovered concepts, theory will emerge that will be applied to facilitate the development of a practical organisational change framework. The researcher will apply the four main stages (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) in building a framework for successful organisational change and leadership by comparing incidents applicable to each category, integrating categories and their properties, delimiting the theory and writing the theory.

Population and sampling will be discussed in section 1.9.2.1, and the data collection methods in section 1.9.2.2.

#### *1.9.2.1 Population and sampling*

Theoretical sampling will be used to collect-, code- and analyse the data in order to decide where to sample next in accordance with emerging codes and categories (Glaser, 1978a). At this stage there will be no pre-definition of what the sample should be or how large it should be or what sites should/would be included, because according to Glaser (1992:102), “groups are chosen as they are needed, rather than before the research begins”.

The purpose of theoretical sampling is the saturation of categories (Charmaz, 2006). The notion of saturation is understood to mean that additional information no longer provides new insights into the subject matter. Thus, when new information no longer expands the subject matter, the researcher will conclude that a saturation point has been reached.

Sample participants will be selected for relevance to the breadth of the issue and not how well they represent the target population. Thus sample size will be dependent on the breadth and depth of knowledge of the issue under study. While the breadth and depth of knowledge expands, sampling will continue and will only stop once the body of knowledge no longer expands (Cooper and Schindler, 2011).

In this research, ten interviews will comprise the sample size for the in-depth interviews. Senior managers will be selected for the depth of their knowledge and involvement in organisational change. Four focus group sessions will comprise a further sample. Each focus group session will include eight individuals who had recently been subjected to organisational change. Employees in Finance, HR and Information Technology will be selected because of the recent changes that had taken place in these departments. This vague and flexible sample will comprise relevant parties within the manufacturing industry in South Africa.

#### *1.9.2.2 Data collection methods*

The researcher will employ the following methods to collect data: a case study, in-depth interviews, focus group sessions, solicited data, field notes and observations. The research steps and methodology employed in this study are summarised in table 1.2. Table 1.2 also outlines the different data collection phases, the different sample groups and the objective of each step of the process, indicates the data analysis methodology and explains the methods employed to ensure quality data.

As indicated in table 1.2, solicited data will contextualise the impact of organisational change. The data analysis method will be content analysis. In addition, in-depth interviews will be concluded with ten senior leaders in order to understand the role of leadership and the concept of organisational change as viewed by senior managers involved in the strategic change implementation.

Table 1.2: Description of research steps and methodology

Research step	Purpose of research step	Data collection method	Data analysis	How to ensure quality data
Solicited data	Provides research context	Case study	Content analysis	Integrity, relevance, credibility
Six senior (regional) leaders	To understand the role of leadership and the concept of organisational change as viewed by senior management who were involved in the strategic change initiatives	Eight in-depth interviews	Content analysis, descriptive statistics, coding of themes (grounded theory)	Fit, relevance, modifiability and workability
Two ex-CEOs' (important shareholders)	To understand the role of leadership and the concept of organisational change from a strategy perspective	Two in-depth interviews	Content analysis, descriptive statistics, coding of themes (grounded theory)	Fit, relevance, modifiability and workability
Two divisional heads in related industries	To understand the role of leadership and the concept of organisational change from a strategy perspective	Two in-depth interviews	Content analysis, descriptive statistics, coding of themes (grounded theory)	Fit, relevance, modifiability and workability
±Twenty senior managers	To understand the impact of organisational change initiatives on individuals and leaders	Two focus groups	Content analysis, descriptive statistics, coding of themes (grounded theory)	Fit, relevance, modifiability and workability

Research step	Purpose of research step	Data collection method	Data analysis	How to ensure quality data
±Twenty middle managers	To explore the impact of organisational change on middle management and understand their role in implementation	Two focus groups	Content analysis, descriptive statistics, coding of themes (grounded theory)	Fit, relevance, modifiability and workability
Minutes, project work	To contextualise the impact of organisational change	Solicited data	Content analysis	Integrity, relevance, credibility
Personal notes	To contextualise the impact of organisational change	Field notes	Content analysis	Integrity, relevance, credibility
Behavioural and non-behavioural observations	To understand individual engagement in and reactions to organisational change	Observations	Content analysis	Integrity, relevance, credibility

As per table 1.2, focus group sessions will be concluded with 20 senior and 20 middle managers to understand the impact of organisational change initiatives on individuals and individual leadership. The various research steps will comprise a case study, in-depth interviews, focus group sessions, solicited data, field notes and observations and will be discussed in detail in chapter four.

### 1.9.3 Data analysis

In this research, data will be collected and analysed by means of grounded theory analysis. Data analysis in grounded theory involves searching for concepts behind the actualities through codes, concepts and finally categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Egan, 2002). Coding will be used for the conceptual abstraction of data and its reintegration with the theory (Holton, 2012).

Data analysis will be conducted through theoretical coding, theoretical memoranda and theoretical sorting. Coded information increases the desire for more data, defined as theoretical sampling (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This process will continue until no new codes are generated, indicating data saturation. In this study, interview questions will be refined throughout the process to ensure that data analysis starts to build a tentative theory. Theoretical coding will conceptualise the underlying pattern of a set of empirical indicators in the data (Glaser, 1978a). The key ideas will become a guide for further collection and data analysis.

Theoretical memoranda describe ideas about codes and their relationship with the evolving theory. According to Glaser (1978b), these memoranda can ultimately lead to broader concepts or ideas about the coherence of the data. The general elements in terms of data analysis are as follows: (1) question formulation, (2) theoretical sampling, (3) interview transcribing, (4) data chunking and naming, coupled with coding, (5) developing conceptual categories, (6) constant comparison, (7) analytical memo writing and (8) growing theories (Ke and Wenglensky, 2010). At this stage, concepts will be sorted. The ultimate goal will be to use all data to develop an integrated theory.

Coding is the process of defining what the data is about. Coding is a form of content analysis to find and conceptualise the underlying issues amid the “noise” in the data. During the analysis of an interview, the researcher will become aware that the interviewee is using words and phrases that highlight an issue of importance or interest to the research. These are noted and briefly described. The issue may be mentioned again in the same or similar words and is again noted. This process is called coding and the short descriptor phrase is a code (Allan, 2003). As described in figure 1.1, the researcher in this study will use open, axial and selective coding, which will now be briefly discussed.

#### *1.9.3.1 Open coding*

The researcher will form initial categories of information about the phenomenon under investigation from the gathered data. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990:61), this is “the process of breaking down, examining, comparing,



conceptualising, and categorising data”. Open coding fractures the data, allowing the researcher to identify some categories, their properties and dimensional locations (Lessem and Schieffer, 2010). During open coding, the data is broken into discrete parts, compared for similarities and dissimilarities. Through this process of naming and categorising phenomena the researcher’s own assumptions about phenomena are questioned and explored (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

#### *1.9.3.2 Axial coding*

Axial coding involves assembling the data in new ways after open coding. A coding paradigm (logic diagram) is then developed which (1) identifies a central phenomenon, (2) explores causal conditions, (3) identifies the context and intervening conditions, (4) specifies strategies, and (5) delineates the consequences. Axial coding assembles the data in new ways by making connections between a category and its subcategories. Axial coding focuses on specifying a category in terms of the conditions that give rise to it, the context in which it is embedded, the action/interactional strategies used to handle, manage, carry out and finally, the consequences of these strategies (Lessem and Schieffer, 2010).

#### *1.9.3.3 Selective coding*

The researcher will employ selective coding, where categories and their interrelationships are combined to form interlinked connections relating to organisational change and leadership. Through selective coding, data will be integrated through the reduction of raw data into different concepts (Huang, 2007). Different concepts will then be linked through relational statements to explain the phenomena of organisational change and leadership.

### **1.9.4 Conclusion**

Table 1.3 provides a summary of the research design, indicating constructivist ontology, stoic epistemology and a qualitative approach with grounded theory as the chosen research methodology. The research strategy includes data triangulation, where data will be collected from multiple sources, combined and compared to establish differences and similarities (Golafshani, 2003).

Table 1.3: Summary of research design

Philosophy	Paradigm	Qualitative
	Ontology	Constructivism
	Epistemology	Stoicism
	Research methodology	Grounded theory
Strategy	Time	Specific time period (2012 – 2014) Contextual analysis (solicited data) Cross-sectional (interviews, focus groups)
	Data collection methods (multiple sources)	Case study, in-depth interviews, focus group sessions, solicited data, field notes, observations
	Researcher's stance	Participant observer
	Sampling	Theoretical and purposeful sampling

As indicated in table 1.3, data were collected by means of a case study, in-depth interviews, focus groups sessions, solicited data, field notes and observations. The researcher's stance will be one of participant observer. Sampling comprises theoretical and purposeful sampling. Data collection will be done through cross-sectional studies which will be carried out once, representing a snapshot of one point in time.

### 1.10 ENSURING QUALITY DATA

Quality data refers to the validity and reliability of results and findings and what the researcher does to ensure quality data. The researcher attempts not to simplify what he or she has observed. In this study, special efforts will be made to recognise the multifaceted dimensions relating to the topic of organisational change and leadership. Controlling definitions were introduced in section 1.3. Glaser and Strauss (1967) discuss the level of accuracy of data needed to generate theory and suggest that the criteria for judging should be based on the actual strategies of data collection, coding and analysis.

Validity in its traditional sense is not an issue in grounded theory. Given a grounded theory context, validity should rather be judged by fit, relevance, workability, and

modifiability (Glaser 1978a; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Thus the evaluation criteria for this study will involve fit, credibility, workability, relevance and modifiability (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978a). Each of these criteria will be discussed below.

Fit has to do with how closely concepts fit with the incidents they are representing, which relates to how thoroughly the constant comparison of incidents to concepts was done (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The categories of the theory must fit the data. Data should not be forced or selected to fit pre-conceived categories. Two vital properties of fit are refit and emergent fit, and categories should constantly be refitted to the data, while developing an emergent fit between the data and a pre-existent category (Glaser, 1978a). In the current study, the researcher will attempt to derive theory that is representative and fits organisational change and leadership.

A modifiable theory can be altered when new relevant data is compared to existing data. The generation of theory is an ever-modifiable process and nothing is sacred if the analyst is dedicated to giving priority attention to the data (Glaser, 1978a, 1978b). The researcher in this study will attempt to create modifiable theory relating to the topic of organisational change and leadership. This will help her to establish how open the resultant framework will be to refinement or the degree to which the developed theory can be generalised to other contexts. The researcher will try to ensure that actions, interaction and processes described for the resultant framework will not be prescriptive, but rather flexible and adaptive to fit in with the environmental conditions of any industry or organisation on the brink of some form of change initiative.

According to Vale (2010), integrity minimises errors through the process of collecting, recording and analysing data, while relevance ensures that data is important to users and their needs. Credibility is ensured through prolonged engagement, persistent observation, peer debriefing and progressive subjectivity (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). The researcher will always endeavour to ensure integrity and credibility.

Many qualitative researchers argue that there is not necessarily a single, ultimate truth to be discovered (Creswell, 2009; Guba and Lincoln, 1988). Instead, there may be multiple perspectives held by different individuals, with each of these perspectives having equal validity or truth. Relevance thus deals with the real concerns of the participants (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978a, 1978b). In the current study, the researcher will attempt to derive relevant theory which still acknowledged different truths.

The theory is workable when it explains how the problem is being solved with much variation. This is achieved when the theory is able to explain what happened, predict what will happen and interpret what is happening in an area of substantive inquiry (Glaser, 1978a). In this study, the researcher endeavours to create a workable theory.

Transferability refers to the degree to which qualitative research results can be generalised or transferred to other contexts or settings (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). This is achieved when the theory is applicable across various sectors, industries and economies. In this study, the researcher attempts to create transferable theory which can be applied to both public and private sectors, to emerging economies, to Africa and even globally.

Furthermore, the researcher will utilise triangulation, where the data collected from multiple sources will be combined and constantly compared in order to establish differences and similarities (Golafshani, 2003). Data triangulation (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991) will thus be used as a strategy to improve the reliability of the research findings as the applied methods and techniques converge to ensure fit and relevance throughout the emergence of the conceptual framework on organisational change and leadership.

### **1.11 UNIQUE CONTRIBUTION OF THIS RESEARCH**

Change is prevalent in organisations, communities and societies alike. Organisations thus have to increasingly plan for, live with and anticipate change. Change is required not only to survive, but also to remain competitive. Various authors have

called for research to design a valid framework for change management (Todnem-By, 2005; Burnes, 2004; Hallencreutz and Turner, 2011; Lattuch and Young, 2010). Given the title of this thesis, - “Fusing organisational change and leadership into a practical roadmap for South-African organisations”, the primary objective of this research will be the development of a conceptual organisational change and leadership framework for use in South African organisations. Such a framework will encompass the multi-dimensional, multi-faceted phenomenon of organisational change and leadership in South African organisations.

Through a grounded theory methodology, theory may be discovered from data in order to generate a theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and develop a theoretical framework that specifies the interrelationship between core concepts (Parker and Roffey, 1997). In the current study, the conceptual change framework that will emerge from data and emergent theory will be presented as the unique output of this research in an attempt to assist organisations to capitalise on change.

The *Oxford universal dictionary* (1959:746) defines a framework as “a structure composed of parts framed together”. The *Merriam-Webster dictionary* (2013) defines a roadmap as a plan for achieving a goal, - a detailed plan to guide progress towards a goal. There is a clear need to design a conceptual organisational change and leadership framework (Todnem-By, 2005; Burnes, 2004; Hallencreutz and Turner, 2011) in order to achieve successful organisational change. Given the theoretical underpinning of this research, further research will be required to test such a framework in South African organisations. Subsequent to the empirical testing of this framework, the term roadmap could be applied.

Given the chaos and unpredictability that is inherent in modern society, this research attempts to find a workable solution to enable organisations to implement change successfully through the application of the presented framework. If organisations can harness the chaos and unpredictability, change initiatives could be more successful and resistance and stress might be mitigated at individual, group, organisational and societal levels.

Through the holistic exploration of the interconnectedness of organisational change and leadership, the aim of the researcher will be cognisant of the interplay between various elements as change unfolds. Hence, change will be explored from an individual, organisational and leadership perspective, with due consideration of the human elements involved in the change process. Through the emergence of a conceptual change and leadership framework, the researcher endeavours to provide a flexible guide which would limit uncertainty, while maximising the chances of successful change. At an organisational level, a change framework would benefit organisations undergoing change initiatives, guiding organisations through a myriad of pitfalls. Highlighting change holistically could reduce uncertainty for individuals and organisations undergoing change.

According to the Chinese, change can pose risks and provide opportunities (Tzu, 2005). The current study thus includes fundamentals that were highlighted as being necessary for success. Fundamentals that are detrimental to organisational change success is also explained. Providing a comprehensive account of organisational change, coupled with the role of leadership in the change effort, should help organisations to minimise the risk relating to organisational change.

An investigation of the human elements relating to organisational change could prove useful as employees are crucial to organisational success. Depending on individuals' perceptions during change, they can communicate positive or negative messages to other important members and/or coalitions both inside and outside the organisation. Once the company has lost the faith and goodwill of its employees, it might be an uphill struggle to correct errors and rebuild credibility. This research could therefore, simultaneously ensure that organisations focus on the correct aspects of change, balancing human needs with those of the organisation.

Individuals may become organisations' competitive edge. Integrating leadership, spiral dynamics and human niches could aid organisations to fully harness human potential to the good of the individual, the organisation and society at large. However, in this study, the researcher perceived a lack of research knowledge

and/or poorly explored academic work pertaining to this combination of leadership, spiral dynamics and human niches, in the context of organisational change.

### **1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

To ensure that the research is conducted ethically, the researcher will ensure that all participants give their informed consent to participate in the study and that they understand the nature of the study. The researcher will inform the participants that they will not be harmed by participating in the research, and confidentiality and anonymity will be ensured. No names will be used or referred to in any of the recordings.

Permission will be obtained to conduct the research and the participants will be informed that they can withdraw from the process at any time. Prior to the focus group sessions, the names of participants will be shared. It will be repeatedly stated that participation is voluntary and if any participant feels uncomfortable, he or she can either withdraw from participation in the study or change to another session.

This research will be underpinned by the University of South Africa's ethical policy and guidelines. The research ethics review system seeks to protect while contributing to the highest attainable quality of scientific and ethical research. The researcher will obtain permission to conduct the research within the ethical boundaries as indicated in appendices A and B. Permission to conduct the research is indicated in appendix F.

### **1.13 DELIMITATIONS**

Wolcott (2002) introduced the term "delimitations" to describe all the things a study is not going to deal with. Delimitations assist the researcher by putting forward a broad disclaimer (Wolcott, 2002). This approach will be adopted in this study as the delimitations helped the research to focus on the study area given the complexity and number of variables at play in the context of organisational change and leadership.

This research is:

- about both synthesis and analysis, and not either-/-or;
- about qualitative as opposed to quantitative research;
- not about human resource processes, but organisational and individual change processes;
- not about strategic planning methods per se, but rather about the interplay between organisational change and leadership;
- not about a mechanistic approach to change, but about an integrated systemic and humanistic approach to achieve individual vicissitude;
- not about innovation, but rather about the conceptualisation of organisational change and leadership variables as emerged through the data, and what can subsequently be deduced.

#### **1.14 CHAPTER LAYOUT**

Chapter two will present a literature review on organisational change. The literature review focuses on current change models, the critical forces driving change, success/competency factors and resistance to change. This chapter will also examine stress, communication, the ethics of change, change perceptions, change types and leadership.

The researcher adopts a social constructivist epistemology, emphasising the diversity of interpretations that are applicable both in the organisation and the world. In the context of organisational change, human niche theory seems highly relevant. Hence, chapter three will explore spiral dynamics and human niches, seeking a clearer understanding of human behaviours during change. Given the fact that different worldviews, diversity and different thinking systems/methods are not understood in organisations, in chapter three, human niches will be explored in an attempt to create higher levels of shared understanding.

Chapter four will discuss the research methodology applied in this research. The research strategy, methodological assumptions of qualitative research specifically, and the methods of grounded theory, in particular, will be explained. The researcher



will also present the proposed sampling design, data collection, data analysis and coding considerations. Anticipated problems during data collection will be addressed.

Chapter five will deal with three organisational change initiatives, set into a case study pertinent to organisational change. This chapter will explain the complexities at play in the various situations, with the advantage of hindsight, while being relevant to the present and showing the influence of personalities on the topic of organisational change. In the context of this research, the installation of a new fleet system, the attempted installation of a total working time (TWT) system and the implementation of a work style innovation (WSI) project will place the organisational change process under a magnifying glass.

Chapter six will deal with the research findings. The data collected from in-depth interviews and focus group sessions will be presented in this chapter and form the foundation of the research findings.

The research analysis will be explained in chapter seven and data codes and categories will be discussed. Prominent themes that emerged in the research will be dissected in a South African organisational context.

The research findings will be integrated in chapter eight. This chapter will again touch on the methodology of grounded theory and the coding process. Thereafter data collection and the data findings will be discussed.

The reality of stress and fear in relation to organisational change featured prominently in this research. Hence, chapter nine will explore stress and the brain in depth. Stress, anxiety, stress and leadership and mindfulness will be discussed. Brain functioning pertaining to stress as well as leadership and the brain will be explored.

Chapters five and six indicated that organisational change results in insecurities, stress, fear and even trauma, at individual level. Furthermore, the data revealed the lack of organisational capability and/or effective methods to deal with such increased

stress. The emergence of stress uncovered the requirement of a deeper understanding of current methods according to which organisations handle and address stress, emotions and the general wellbeing of individuals undergoing organisational change. Chapter ten will thus focus on the argument relating to the requirement of alternative and/or spiritual intervention technologies to alleviate individual stress levels.

Chapters eleven and twelve will discuss alternative intervention technologies. Chapter eleven will focus on spiritual intervention technologies while chapter twelve will discuss physical or body-based intervention technologies. The objective of these chapters will be to explore possible interventions which could help individuals to achieve vicissitude given the reality of stress and turmoil in an organisational context.

The research results will follow in chapter thirteen. This chapter will cover the data discussion on the basis of the case study, in-depth interviews and focus group data. The data will be extrapolated and integrated in an attempt to reframe the dilemma of organisational change and leadership. In this chapter, the research questions will be answered. A change framework will be constructed and meta-insights into the phenomenon of organisational change and leadership will be discussed. Research recommendations and potential future research will be highlighted. The contributions to the field of organisational change and leadership, as they emerged through the process of grounded theory, will be discussed. Chapter thirteen will bring the research to a logical conclusion.

## **CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Effective change remains a challenge (Smith, 2011; Fukukawa, *et al.*, 2013) even though the literature offers various frameworks and models. Various authors conclude that the lack of empirical research in change management and of a valid framework for organisational change management in organisations is evident in the poor success rates of change initiatives (Burnes, 2004; Todnem-By, 2005; Stanleigh, 2008).

An awareness of the need for change directs the whole change process (Armstrong, 2006), but it is difficult to move forward without knowledge of what to expect (Burke, 2004). Armenakis and Harris (2009) argue that for organisations to prosper, they must be knowledgeable about appropriate organisational change implementations to ensure that employees embrace such changes.

The literature review in this chapter discusses organisational change theory, the current change models and the critical forces driving change. Leadership and its impact on organisational change will be examined. Resistance to change, stress, communication, the ethics of change, change perceptions and change types will form part of this literature review.

### **2.2 ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE THEORY**

Change is generally implemented for positive reasons, but the low success rate of change programmes is often attributed to employee resistance (Di Virgilio and Ludema, 2009; Ford, Ford & D'Amelio, 2008; Martin, Jones & Callan, 2006). Rosenberg and Mosca (2011) attribute resistance to the poor execution of change strategies, poor communication and a lack of employee involvement schemes. According to Werkman (2009), large, bureaucratic organisations with mechanistic structures can hinder change through too much managerial power and too many procedures and rules. Since communication in large, bureaucratic organisations is less personal and more formal, management's ability to effectively communicate organisational change is essential to mitigate the personal reasons for resistance to

change, such as fear of the unknown, lack of understanding, disruption of routine or perceived loss of security (Werkman, 2009).

According to Eby, Adams, Russell & Gaby (2000) building positive employee beliefs, perceptions and attitudes is critical for successful change. Hence employees' subjective experiences of change must be addressed to understand what resistance to change actually entails (Oreg, 2006). Research by Jones, *et al.*, (2008) identified three broad categories relating to subjective issues, namely emotional and attitudinal, change process and outcome issues.

Organisational change represents a specific context in which cynicism may arise (Smollan, *et al.*, 2010). Perceptions of injustice, incompetence, laziness or lack of integrity on the part of from others (Wanous, Reichers & Austin, 2000) can lead to cynicism, which influences a person to view events negatively (Smollan, *et al.*, 2010). Given workforces with a greater degree of demographic diversity, technological change and increased international competition (House, 1995), coupled with the breath-taking changes foreseen in the business environment (Eisenbach, *et al.*, 1999), leadership models are likely to become increasingly significant. Kotter (1995) underscores the importance of leadership to the change process, because by definition, change requires the creation of a new system and then institutionalisation of the new approach.

There has been little integration between change management and leadership in the literature (Eisenbach, *et al.*, 1999) and much remains to be established about the role of leadership in the change process (Bateh, *et al.*, 2013). Burnes (2004) sees the ability to manage change as a core competence of successful organisations. According to Kotter (1996: 26), "successful transformation is 70 to 90 per cent leadership and only 10 to 30 per cent management". The role that leaders play in the change process has been noted, but without conclusive research that focuses on the relationship between leadership and change (Almaraz, 1994; Bateh, *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, the literature has not clearly demonstrated the impact of leadership on organisational change (Burke, 2002). A prime task of leaders is to effect change, and change in turn requires strong leadership (Kakabadse and Korac-Kakabadse, 1999;

Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 2009). However, traditionally these two functions have been treated as separate matters (Strategic Direction, 2004; Kotter, 1995).

Change has become all pervasive, permeating every aspect of modern life (Bateh, *et al.*, 2013; Eisenbach, *et al.*, 1999). Modernism is characterised by change, and the future has become unstable, unpredictable and non-recurring, which can cause a sense of loss and/or anxiety for individuals, organisations and society. Taleb (2012:13) speaks of membership in the extended disorder family: uncertainty, variability, imperfect and incomplete knowledge, change, chaos, volatility, disorder, entropy, time, the unknown, randomness, turmoil, stressor, error, dispersion of outcomes and un-knowledge. In this modern day and age, such extended disorder has become the norm for society, organisations and individuals.

Taleb (2010:196) further explains the following experiment which can easily be related to organisational change:

“Operation 1 (the melting ice cube)”: Imagine an ice cube and think how it may melt over the next couple of hours while you do something else. Try to envision the shape of the puddle.

“Operation 2 (where did the water come from?)”: Consider a water puddle on the floor. Try to reconstruct in your mind’s eye the shape of the ice cube it once was. Note that the puddle could have resulted from something other than an ice cube.

The second option is more difficult. If you have the right models, you can predict with great precision how the ice cube will melt. However, from the pool of water, you could build infinite possible ice cubes; if there was an ice cube. The first direction is called the forward process. The second direction is called the backward process and is much more complicated. The forward process is used in physics and engineering; the backward process in non-repeatable, non-experimental historical approaches (Taleb, 2010). The above concept relates closely to inductive and deductive reasoning (Trochim, 2006) and is reminiscent of first and second order change as initially described by Graves (1974), which Beck and Cowan (1996) built on.

Current change models do not seem to do particularly well either way, resulting in costly (Taleb, 2010; Oakland and Tanner, 2007) but unsuccessful change initiatives (Armenakis and Harris, 2009; Gilley, Gilley & McMillan, 2009a; Gilley, *et al.*, 2009b; Meaney and Pung, 2008; Isern and Pung, 2007; Haines, *et al.*, 2005). Individuals react differently to changes in the status quo as well as their ability to deal with organisational change (Rosenberg and Mosca, 2011).

### 2.3 CURRENT CHANGE MODELS

French and Delahaye (1996) argue that an organisation's ability to adapt to change is critical for effectiveness. The change management literature abounds with models and ideas, but change remains largely unsuccessful (Todnem-By, 2005; Beer and Nohria, 2000a; Meaney and Pung, 2008).

Lewin (1951) developed the three-step model which breaks change down into the following three steps: unfreezing (altering the present stable equilibrium which supports existing behaviours and attitudes); changing (developing new responses based on new information); and refreezing (stabilising the change by introducing the new responses into the personalities of those concerned). According to Lewin (1951) change towards a higher level of group performance is often short-lived. After a shot in the arm, group life soon returns to normal. This model is depicted in figure 2.1.

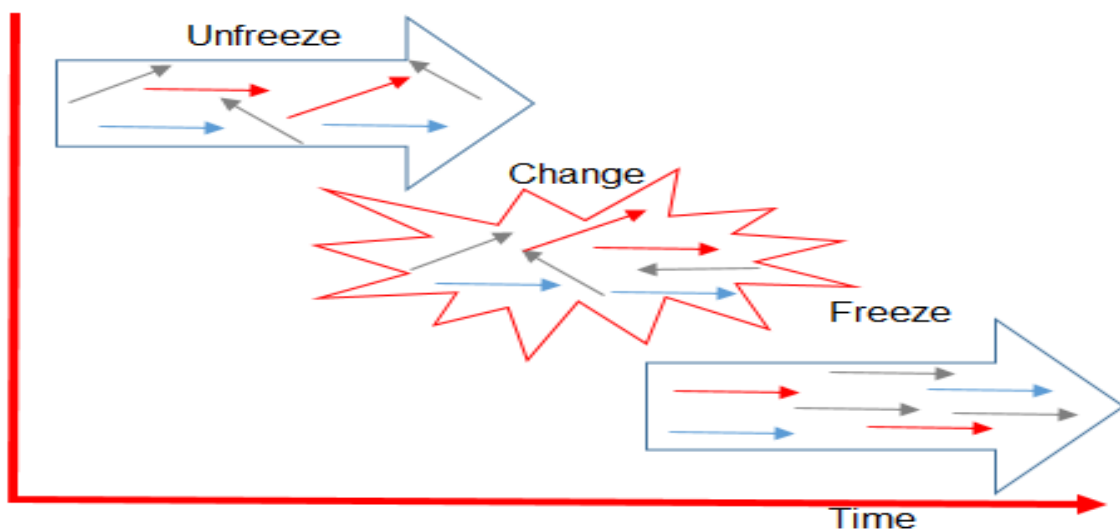


Figure 2.1: Lewin's (1951) three-step model (Source: Adapted from Lewin, 1951; Sarayreh, Khudair & Barakat, 2013:627)

Figure 2.1 indicates that it is not enough to define the planned change objective in group performance as reaching a different level. The permanency of the new level should be included in the objective. According to figure 2.1, the present state must be altered through unfreezing. Thereafter, the change must be developed. Finally, the change must be stabilised through refreezing.

Burnes (2004) describes Lewin as one of the early pioneers of group dynamics, indicating that individuals usually go along with the group norm, regardless of whether it is positive or negative. Lewin further suggests a methodology for analysing change, namely force field analysis (Armstrong, 2006).

Thurley (1979) developed a change model with five main strategies for managing change. These strategies are: directive, bargained, hearts and minds, analytical and action-based (Armstrong, 2006).

According to Thurley (1979) these strategies entail the following:

- (1) Directive. This strategy implies the imposition of change in crisis situations or when other methods have failed. The directive strategy normally occurs through the exercise of managerial power without consultation (Armstrong, 2006) and does not take the views or feelings of those involved in the change into consideration (Lockitt, 2004);
- (2) Bargained. Here power is shared between employer and the employed. Change requires negotiation, compromise and agreement (Armstrong, 2006), which obviously adds additional time to effect the change (Lockitt, 2004);
- (3) Hearts and minds. This approach embraces the attitudes, values and beliefs of the whole workforce to create a shared vision. However, this strategy does not necessarily include participation (Armstrong, 2006);
- (4) Analytical. This approach sets objectives, designs the change process and evaluates the results (Armstrong, 2006); and
- (5) Action-based. In this strategy the full involvement of everyone is emphasised, which is likely to result in wider support for the change efforts (Armstrong, 2006). Again, the relevance of group norm as explained by Burnes (2004) applies.

Tushman and Romanelli (1985) developed the punctuated equilibrium model as the theoretical framework for explaining fundamental changes in patterns of organisational activity. Punctuated equilibrium theory depicts organisations as evolving through relatively long periods of stability (equilibrium periods) in their basic patterns of activity that are punctuated by relatively short bursts of fundamental change (revolutionary periods). Revolutionary periods substantively disrupt established activity patterns and lay down the basis for new equilibrium periods. Knoche (2006) argues that punctuated equilibrium models focus on organisations as dynamic entities exhibiting various degrees of discontinuous change which happens in times of divergence. Change is seen as an alternation between long stable periods and brief periods of revolutionary upheaval (Gersick, 1991). Furthermore, it accepts that conflicting theories of adaptation and rigidity might be applicable to the same system, at different times (Gallagher and Vandenbosch, 2000).

Kotter (1996) responded with his eight-step model of change, arguing that change is a linear process. Following these eight steps in order will thus transform the organisation: (1) establish a sense of urgency; (2) create a guiding coalition; (3) develop a vision and strategy; (4) communicate the change vision; (5) empower broad-based action; (6) generate short-term wins; (7) consolidate gains and produce more change; and (8) anchor new approaches in the corporate culture. Burnes (1996) argues that a wide variety of change approaches are available and that choice lies at the heart of all major organisational decisions. Forcing a prescriptive approach could explain why so many change initiatives fail (Burnes, 1996).

Later, Sirkin, Keenan & Jackson (2005) argued that organisations must pay as much attention to the hard side of organisational change as they do to the soft aspects. According to them, the following four factors determine the outcome of any change initiative: duration, integrity, commitment and effort (DICE).

Scharmer (2007) developed the U-process which leads people through three core movements that allow them to connect to an emerging future. "Prototyping in the U-process builds on the two movements that allow one to break through habitual



patterns of the past: sensing the emerging whole and establishing a connection to the source or authentic self” (Scharmer and Kaeufer, 2010:27).

Theory-U informs us that there are three inner voices of resistance that keep us from hearing the emerging future. The voice of judgement is resistance to an open mind which stifles creativity; the voice of cynicism is resistance to an open heart because we are entertaining the companions of arrogance and callousness; the voice of fear is resistance to an open will. Managing all three voices appropriately, can take us from fearful to fearless. These inner voices are obstacles to change. Once these are conquered, a space can be born where a high energy, generative system can move through to collectively connect and generate a new emerging vision with new rules. “To lead profound change is to shift the inner place from which a system operates” (Scharmer, 2007:377). The U-model shares the movement principle of spiral dynamics, which will be discussed in chapter three. Theory-U is displayed in figure 2.2 below.

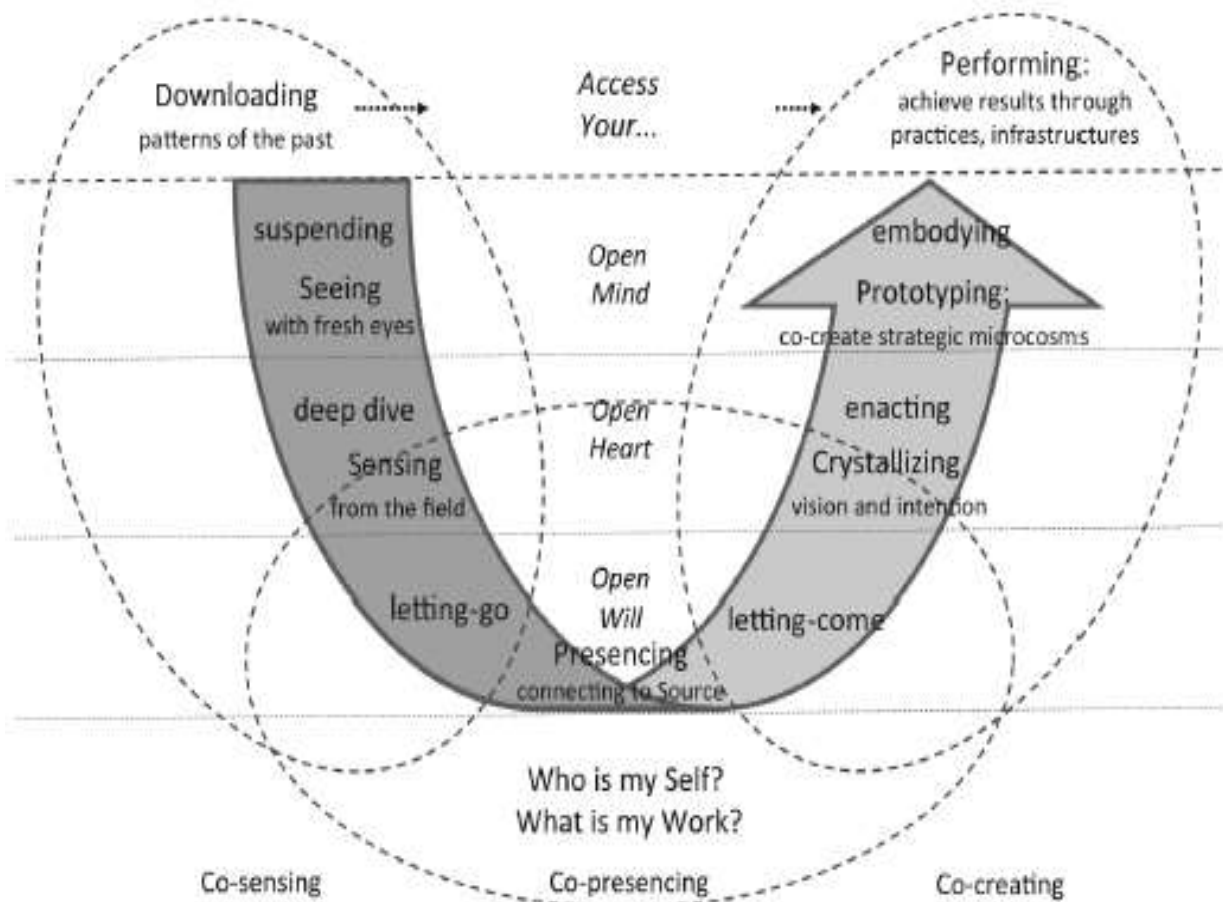


Figure 2.2: The U-movement (Scharmer and Kaeufer, 2010:25)

Scharmer's (2007) theory-U process, as displayed in figure 2.2 leads stakeholders and leaders to set aside their preconceptions in order to reach a new understanding of the challenges they share, to understand the experience of the various actors in the system and finally, to promote the emergence of insights into the best course of action.

Figure 2.2 illustrates the theory-U concept as a process or journey. Individuals move down one side of the U (connecting one to the world that is outside one's institutional bubble) to the bottom of the U (connecting one to the world that emerges within) and up the other side of the U (connecting one to the new world). The core elements in moving through the U-process are co-initiating common intent, co-sensing the field of change, presencing inspiration and common will, co-creating strategic microcosms and co-evolving through innovations (Scharmer, 2007).

Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) developed an integrated model which describes the human reactions to change through an adaptation of the work of Hopson and Adams (1966), Kübler-Ross (1963) and Senge, Scharmer, Jaworski & Flowers (2004). This model is depicted in figure 2.3.

Specific emotions are experienced during the different phases. The letting go phase includes emotions such as denial and resistance, which are accompanied by feelings such as shock, disbelief, anger, insecurity, blame, anxiety, happiness, fear, threat, guilt and depression, while the letting come phase consists of acceptance, the making sense of, the understanding of, and ultimately, the integration of the change.

This phase is accompanied by the relevant emotions of commitment, optimism and engagement. Figure 2.3 indicates the various emotions, ranging from denial, to resistance, to exploration and eventual commitment.

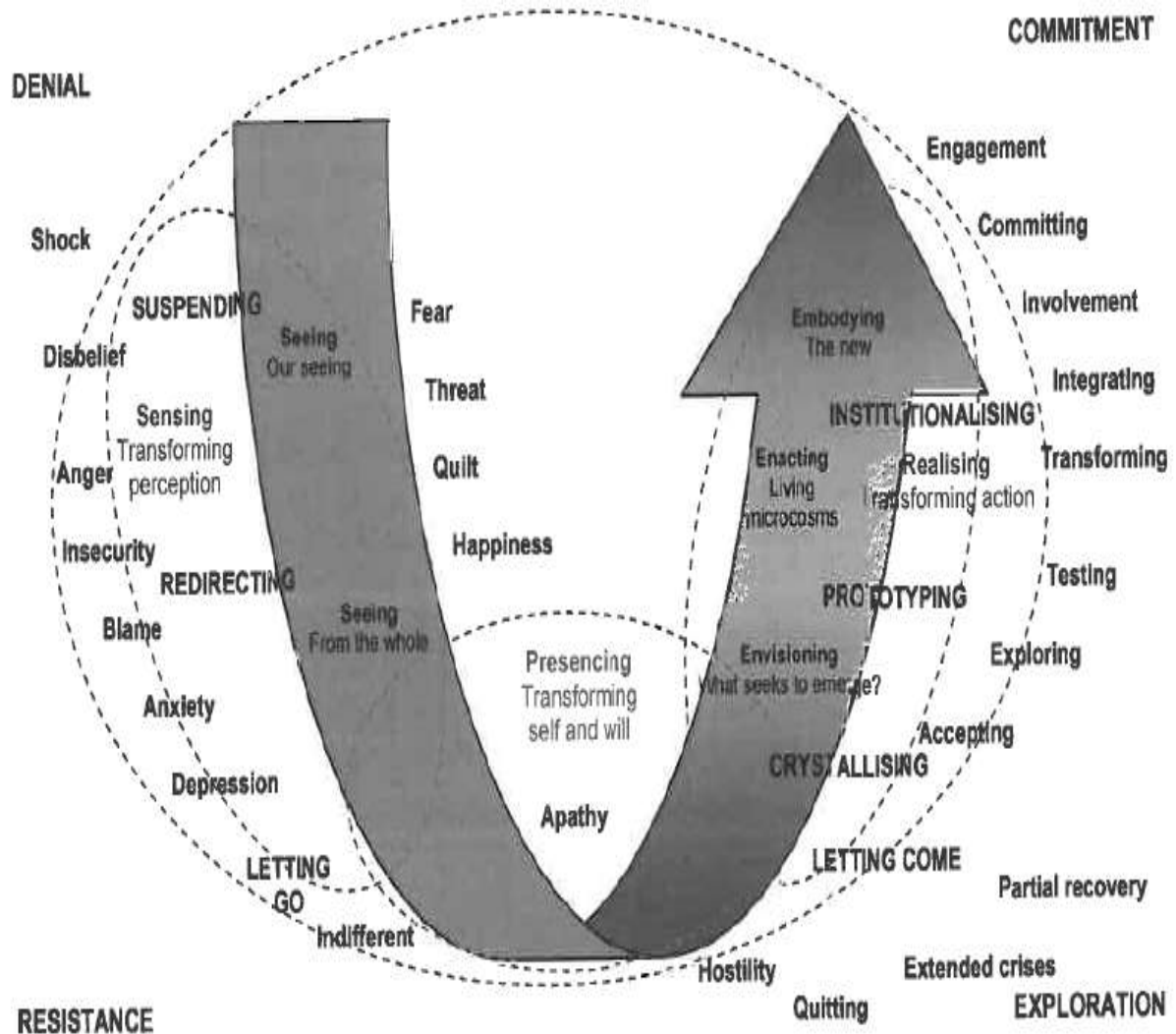


Figure 2.3: Adapted U-movement integrating human reactions to change (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008:82).

According to Viljoen-Terblanche (2008), these emotions do not follow a linear pattern. Certain emotions, as displayed in figure 2.3, may be experienced in some cases, but others not. Individuals move forwards and backwards during the letting go phase until the self and the will are transformed and the letting come phase starts (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008).

A main aspect of human nature is that people have an inherent need for predictability and order. Major organisational changes may be experienced in ways that contradict this basic need and likewise deplete employees' adaptive resources (Hogan, 2007). Corbitt (2005) found that the overwhelming effect of stress on

employees can be devastating to them, and the cost to the organisation enormous. According to Dahl (2009), employees are significantly more likely to resort to stress-related medication in organisations that have experienced broad changes.

This highlights the importance of acknowledging the often unexpected negative outcomes of fundamental organisational change, which are not often considered in conventional theories of organisations (Dahl, 2009). Unfortunately, few studies have explored the impact of multiple organisational change on the well-being and withdrawal of employees (Bernerth, Walker & Harris, 2011).

Struckman and Yammarino (2003) proposed a new categorisation scheme for organisational change, classifying the field into four main areas of research, namely type, readiness, process and inertia. These researchers also elevated time to the forefront. They conceptualised the organisational change response model as follows:

$$\text{Organisational change} = \frac{f(\text{Type} + \text{Readiness} + \text{Process} + \text{Resistance})}{\text{Time}}$$

This model includes readiness factors while describing the scope of organisational change more thoroughly (Struckman and Yammarino, 2003). However, unfortunately organisations continue to struggle to implement change successfully (Todnem-By, 2005; Beer and Nohria, 2000a; Meaney and Pung, 2008).

Kets de Vries (2001a, 2001b) designed the model of organisational mourning. The stages of this model are described as shock, disbelief, discarding and realisation. Kets de Vries and Engellau (2011) refer to each individual's mental life triangle – a tightly interlocked frame of cognition, affect and behaviour. The first triangle identifies the need to take both cognitive and emotional processes into consideration if one wishes to create changes in behaviour. The second triangle describes how psychic conflict arises from unacceptable feelings or thoughts that prompt anxiety and defensive reactions. The third relationship triangle explains how an individual's childhood experiences create patterns of response that are repeated throughout life.

Part and parcel of the human condition is the triangle of conflict, the three sides of which are hidden feelings, defensive behaviours and conflict.

Kets de Vries (2001a, 2001b) described his individual change model according to the five Cs. According to this model, individuals move from concern to confrontation to crystallisation to internalised change. In order to adapt to change, Kets de Vries (2001a, 2001b) identified three internal forces which work with and against each other, namely defence restructuring, and affect restructuring and self-other restructuring. This model is illustrated in figure 2.4.

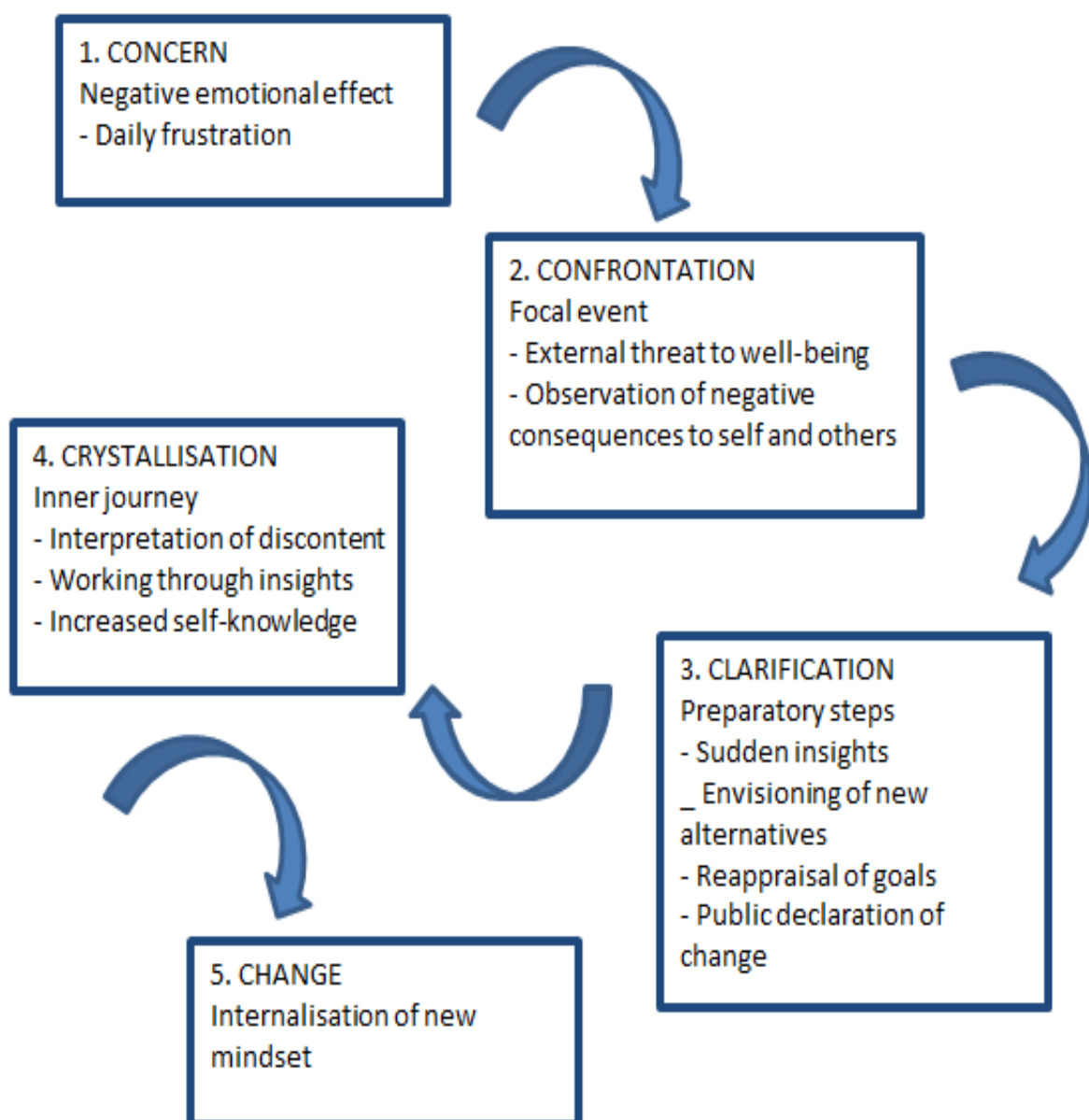


Figure 2.4: The five Cs of the individual change process (Kets de Vries, 2001a:48)

Figure 2.4 illustrates the five Cs of the individual change process. The individual change process starts with concern, followed by confrontation, clarification and crystallisation, to eventual change.

Fischer (2006) developed the transition curve which provides an analysis of the way in which individuals deal with personal change. This model explains that individual anxiety will arise when confronted with change. This will be followed by happiness, which, in turn, will lead to either denial or fear. Fear will lead to threat and then to guilt. Guilt may turn into hostility or into a gradual acceptance of the change. It is only when the change is accepted that an individual will be able to move forward.

Collins (2001) maintains that perceptions on transitions are sometimes formed from the way the transition appears from the outside. However, it is often experienced in a completely different way from the inside – similar to an organic development process. Transition psychology looks at the deeper psycho-social factors that may impede the natural transition processes and the ways in which individuals will respond to change (Williams, 1999). Hopson and Adams (1966) mapped the phases and features of the transition cycle which is represented in figure 2.5.

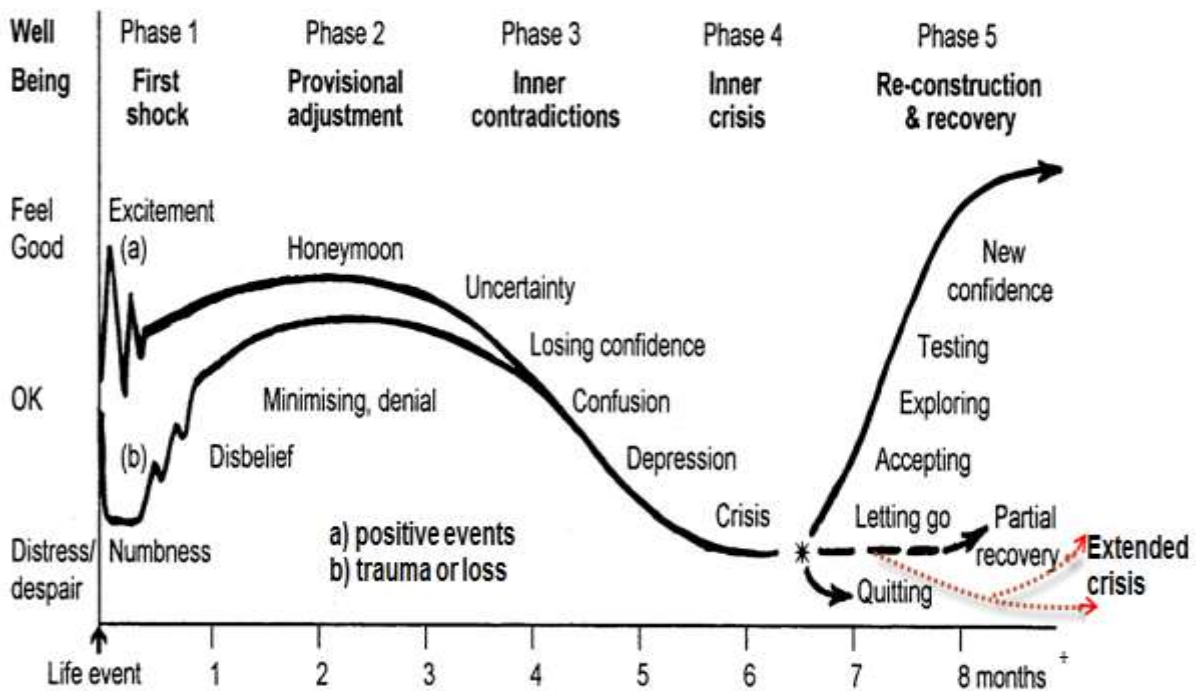


Figure 2.5: Phases and features of the transition cycle (Hopson and Adams, 1966, adapted by Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008:80)



Figure 2.5 indicates a time lapse of approximately eight months from the onset of the life-changing event to reconstruction and recovery. Individuals will experience a range of emotions such as disbelief, numbness, uncertainty, crisis, testing, exploring and quitting during this eight-month period.

Kübler-Ross (1963) contributed to the understanding of emotional experiences when she defined human reactions to change during the process of loss. This model is still applicable in organisations today because the model normalises the emotions relating to change while describing the normal behavioural patterns of both individuals and organisations. Figure 2.6 illustrates the psychological responses to change.

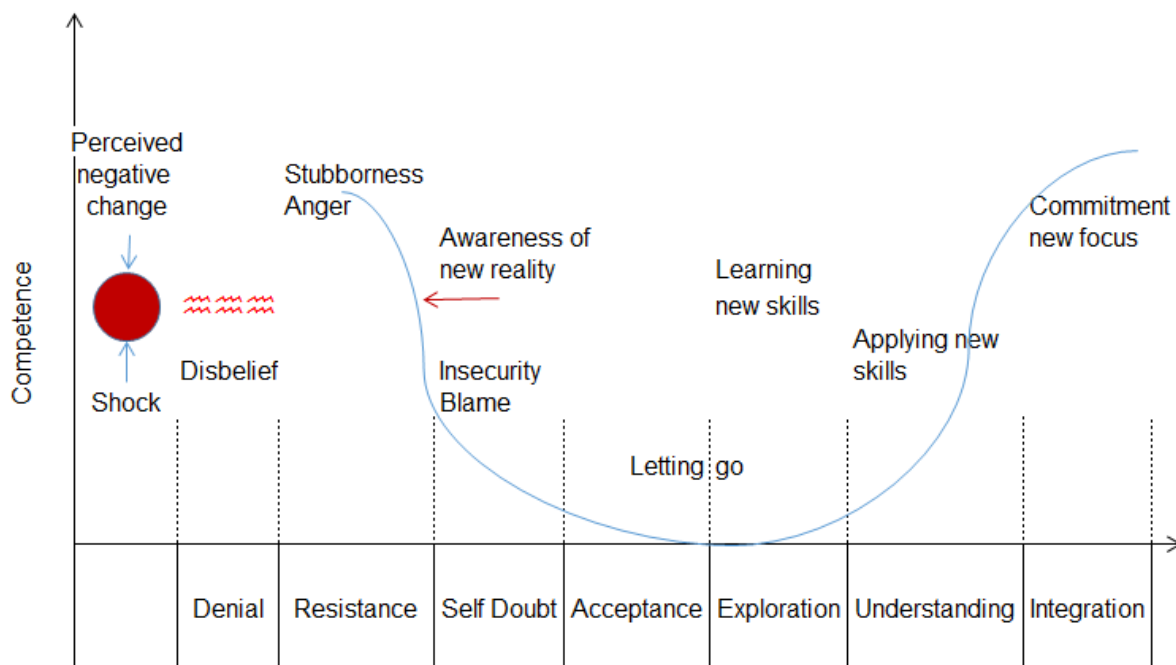


Figure 2.6: Psychological responses to change (Kübler-Ross, 1963, adapted by Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008:81)

Figure 2.6 indicates that individuals undergoing change are likely to experience various emotions as they struggle to come to terms with the loss of the known. These emotions include shock, disbelief, anger, blame, letting go, learning and adapting and eventual commitment.

The ChangeAbility group of South Africa developed the project management process groups and change management methodology (PREXSU) (Overton, 2013). This model acknowledges that change management is required on projects and that overt human behaviour is only the tip of the iceberg; the other 90%, covert behaviour, emotion and cognition is hidden below the waterline (Overton, 2013). In order to change behaviour in a predictable and sustainable way, the Group’s approach focuses on awareness and understanding, sustainability, adaptability and alignment.

According to this model, change management “refers to the approaches, processes, tools and techniques utilised in a pro-active and systematic way to manage people and organisational aspects of change with the particular focus of ensuring behavioural outcomes that will support organisational objectives associated with change” (Overton, 2013:31). Figure 2.7 shows how the PREXSU model developed from the work of Kotter (1995) and the ADKAR model.

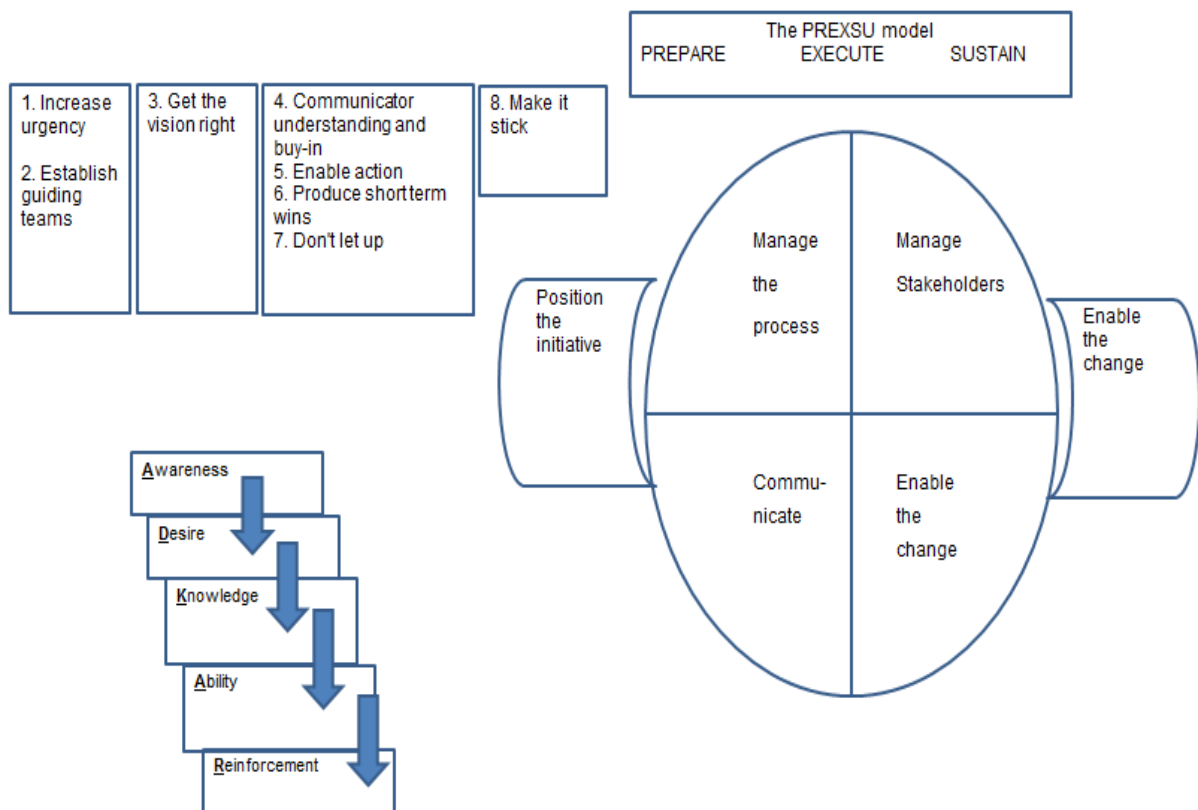


Figure 2.7: PREXU model (Overton, 2013:34)



Kotter's (1995) eight steps, coupled with awareness, desire, knowledge, ability and reinforcement, resulted in the PREXSU model as displayed in figure 2.7. Prepare, execute and sustain are the main themes through management of the process and stakeholders, communication and change enablement (Overton, 2013). The advantage of the PREXSU model is that it is project based and acknowledges the importance of communication.

The inclusivity model (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008) is depicted in figure 2.8 below. The bottom part of the model describes the waves of change in the global external world which no organisation can escape.

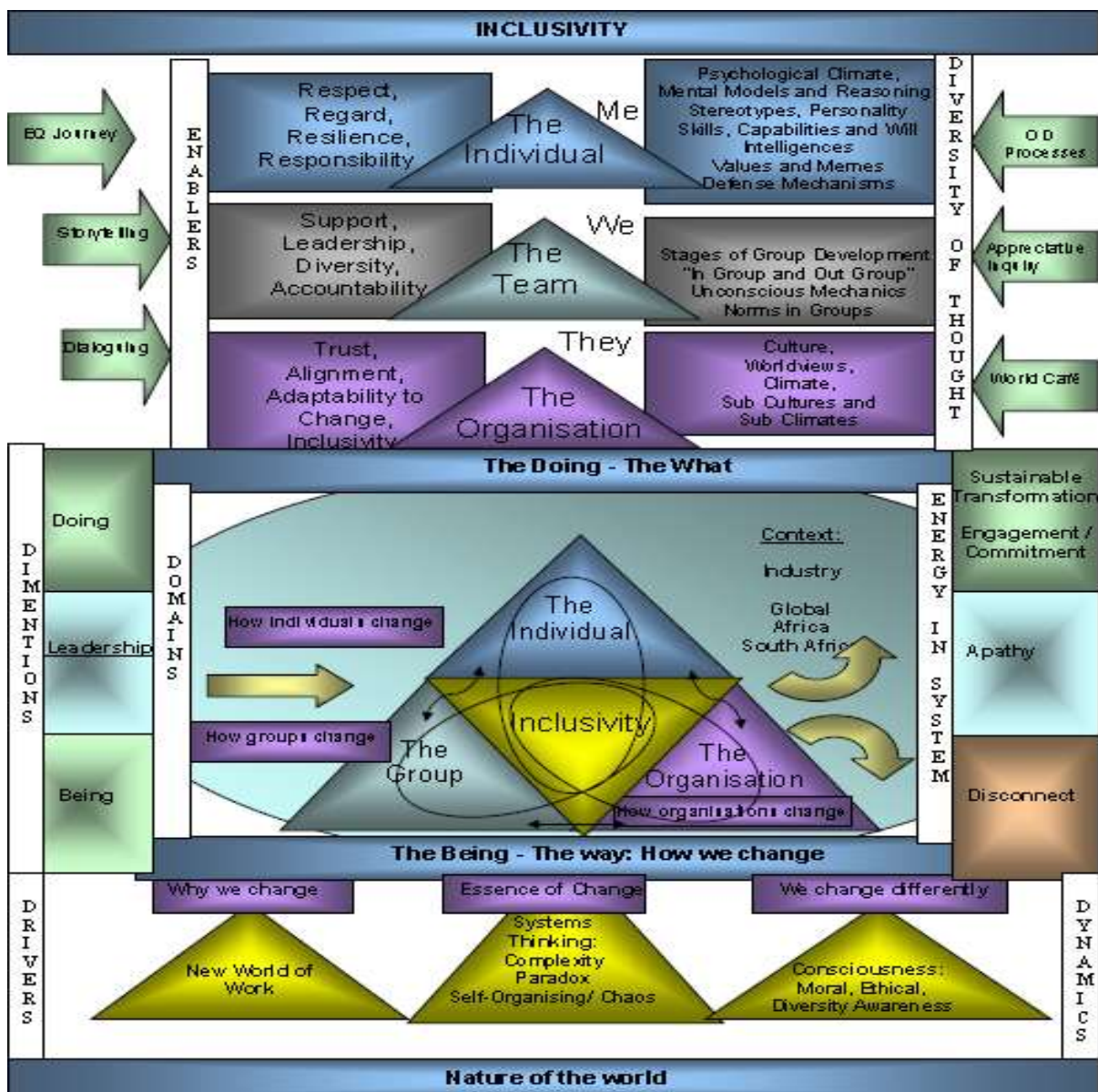


Figure 2.8: Inclusivity framework (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008:347).

Owing to the forces of the new world of work, leadership must adapt because strategies and styles that previously worked effectively, are no longer recent or applicable. As per figure 2.8, different outcomes cannot be expected with old behaviours. The way in which leadership manage ever-changing organisations must change. The first yellow triangle in the framework indicates this reality. The second yellow triangle in the framework refers to the principles of systems thinking. The essence of change is determined by these principles – change is paradoxical and complex and causes self-organising in systems (systems will always move to equilibrium and therefore resist change).

The radical organisational methodology of inclusivity is visually described in this framework (figure 2.8) as the optimisation of the interplay of the diversity dynamics in the individual, group, organisational and contextual domains. This interplay manifests itself as energy in a system to perform. It is the task of leadership to align “the doing” and “the being”, enabling the system to conductibly engage in strategic conversation. The energy in the system can be described as virtuous (engaged), neutral (apathetic) or vicious (disconnected).

Inclusivity, as defined by Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) and displayed in figure 2.8, leads to a process of self-analysis, which, if allowed, leads to self-awareness. Self-awareness, in turn, leads to enhanced levels of consciousness. This argument applies to the individual, the group and the organisational domains. Through inclusivity it is possible to enhance the levels of consciousness in terms of both the self and others. The inclusivity framework uniquely positions this phenomenon as a radical transformational process. This qualitative research process strongly suggests that by aligning the workforce around “the doing” and “the being”, sustainable organisational transformation can be achieved (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008).

Although this research was largely informed by Lewin (1951), Scharmer (2007) and Viljoen-Terblanche (2008), all of the above models are relevant to some extent. It seems as though each model contains a portion of the answer. However, equally, that no one model is really able to provide a holistic answer.

## 2.4 CHANGE CATEGORIES

Change is a dominant aspect of organisational life (Marshak, 2002). Clarifying the nature or magnitude of change has concerned academics and consultants for many years. However, the use of different words referring to the same change dynamic continues to impede communication on the subject (Marshak, 2002). According to Ford and Ford (2009), the logic of the observer defines the change experience. It is therefore no surprise that the majority of literature on change originated from criticising models and taking opposite views (Maes and van Hootehem, 2011). Thus incremental change is opposed to transformational change (Dunphy and Stace, 1988); episodic change to continuous change (Weick and Quinn, 1999); planned change to logic instrumentalism (Quinn, 1980); evolutionary change to revolutionary change (Pettigrew, 1985); first-order change to second-order change (Moch and Bartunek, 1990) and convergent change to radical change (Greenwood and Hinings, 1988).

These change categories were refined to demarcate further distinctions, representing finer and finer levels of detail. Flamholtz and Randle (1998) distinguished between the following three types of transformational change: type 1 represents the transition from an entrepreneurial to a formal organisation structure; type 2 is the revitalisation of an existing business; and type 3 is the fundamental re-thinking of what industry or business the organisation is in. Reger, Mullane, Gustafson & DeMarie (1994) use the label “mid-range” to represent a change that is larger than incremental but not as substantive as transformational. These change categories all pertain to the essence of the change itself and how it can be typed, in effect, by scale or scope (Dibella, 2007).

Change has also been categorised in terms of the cause of change. Here, change stems primarily from the impetus of internal or external factors (Dibella, 2007). Nadler and Tushman (1995) label the former anticipatory and the latter reactive. These categories differentiate between types of change that stem from internal, developmental pressures and those that are pursued due to the need for organisations to adapt to or respond to changes in their external environments.

Again, a parallel can be drawn to first and second order change, as initially described by Graves (1974) and further built upon by Beck and Cowan (1996).

Maes and van Hootegem (2011) identified four attributes relating to organisational change, namely the time required to complete a change (Mosakowski and Earley, 2000; Sirkin, *et al.*, 2005), the pace with which change is executed (Amis, Slack & Hinings, 2004), the functionality of the change effort (Kotter, 1996) and leadership style of the major change players. The following eight dimensions of change also emerged consistently in the literature: (1) control: from emergent to planned; (2) scope: from adaptation to transformation; (3) frequency: from inertia to discontinuous to continuous; (4) stride: from incremental to revolutionary; (5) time: from short to long; (6) tempo/speed: from slow to quick; (7) goal: from specific to open; and (8) style: from participative to coercive (Maes and van Hootegem, 2011).

## **2.5 CRITICAL FORCES DRIVING CHANGE**

Unintended social, environmental and economic consequences of rapid population growth, resource consumption, economic growth and commercial activity alongside global trends in an increasingly interconnected and interdependent world drives organisational change (Millar, Hind & Magala, 2012). Managing change is difficult and amplified by the fact that there is little agreement on which factors most influence change initiatives (Sirkin, *et al.*, 2005). Soft issues are important, but managing these aspects alone, will not ensure success. Hard, measurable factors such as time to complete, number of people required executing the change and the intended financial return also have a role to play (Sirkin, *et al.*, 2005).

McGuire and Hutchings (2006) developed a framework of organisational change. The drivers and factors of organisational change which will enable or inhibit the change process are displayed in figure 2.9. Organisational change is driven by technology, economic-, socio-political- and legal forces as well as Human Resource issues and process considerations.

As per figure 2.9 leadership, reward and discipline foster change, while power, role clarity, norms and values and uncertainty are change inhibitors. Furthermore, the

success of organisational change interventions is premised on the state of equilibrium between opposing forces of change in the organisation. This framework emphasises the relationships that exist between employees and management.

McGuire and Hutchings (2006) argue that an organisational change intervention is dependent on organisational change enablers such as the leader and team's power status, acceptance or rejection of the organisational change, organisational change inhibitors such as role clarity and entrenched norms and values. This is depicted in figure 2.9.

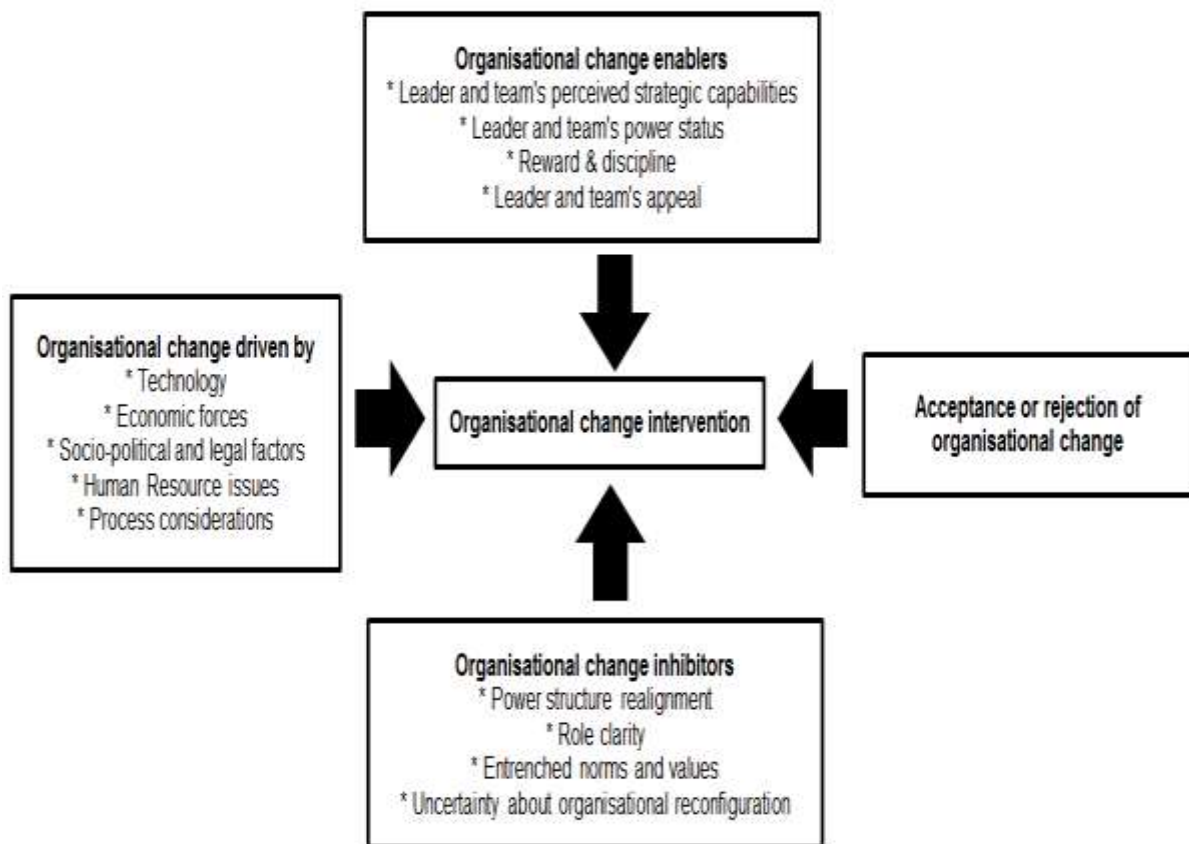


Figure 2.9: A framework for organisational change (McGuire and Hutchings, 2006:195).

Figure 2.9 also indicates change inhibitors. Change inhibitors are identified as the realignment of power structures, a lack of role clarity, entrenched norms and values and uncertainty regarding an organisational reconfiguration.



As further depicted in figure 2.9, organisational change intervention, lastly, depends on the drivers of organisational change. A combination of these factors will ultimately result in acceptance or rejection of the organisational change.

Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) suggests diversity as a driving force for change. Organisations may be impacted by a combination of individual, group, organisational, South African and/or global diversity. Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) extends the concept of diversity to “diversity of thought” – a much broader concept which includes aspects such as personality type, diverse intelligences, complexity handling and world views (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008:18).

The above discourse provided a glimpse into the extensive array of forces which could drive organisational change. Although a holistic picture of change can only emerge through the inclusion of the critical forces driving change, it seems as if organisational change remains inevitable, regardless of the critical forces which drive change.

## **2.6 IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP ON ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE**

Valid points of inquiry into change management include discerning the ingredients that distinguish successful and unsuccessful change efforts (Marshak, 2002). Prahalad and Hamel (1990) introduced organisational core competence, identifying specialised or valuable skills which constitute collective learning. Leadership, planning, communication, decision making (Crawford and Nahmais, 2010; Todnem-By and Dale, 2008), adaptability and flexibility, commitment and support, motivation and reward (Todnem-By and Dale, 2008; Oakland and Tanner, 2007) have been identified as influencing factors.

However, according to Nastase, Giuclea & Bold (2012), the success or failure factors depend on the type of change and the actual organisation. Oakland and Tanner (2007) found the use of a change champion and consultants, coupled with a project approach, indispensable to success. Conversely, various authors (Lewin, 1952; Judson, 1991; Kinnear and Roodt, 1998) stated that the ability of the organisation to reduce resistance is a key element of successful change.

The behaviours of organisational leaders directly influence actions within the work environment that promote change (Gilley, 2005; Vundla, 2014; Ngwenya, 2014). Kanter, Stein & Jick (1992) posit that leaders are responsible for change strategy, implementation and monitoring – hence the fact that they function as change agents. The challenge of managing change is thus the most fundamental and enduring role of leaders in the organisation (Ahn, Adamson & Dornbusch, 2004).

Gilley, *et al.*, (2009b) found that leadership is perceived as a considerable obstacle to change. Their study highlighted the fact that leaders possess insufficient change skills and they underscored the importance of specific leader behaviours, suggesting that a considerable percentage of variance in effectively leading change may be predicted by the leader's ability to motivate others, communicate effectively and build teams (Gilley, *et al.*, 2009b). Todnem-By and Dale (2008) confirmed the importance of adaptability, flexibility, commitment and support as critical success factors. According to Vakola and Nikolaou (2005), a well-structured work environment and a well-balanced work schedule are effective in reducing stress and uncertainty which, in turn, improves attitudes to change. Improved collaboration, encompassing individual employee empowerment, inter-organisational networking and teamwork, was found to be desirable and feasible in a change management context (Windsor, 2003).

Within the South African context, arbitrary leadership could result in favouritism and factionalism. Uncontextualised leadership, may, through partiality and instigated factionalism, even contribute towards xenophobia (No Name, 2015: Colloquium). This, in turn, could result in a fragmented and divided workforce.

## **2.7 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE**

Lewin (1952) first used the term “resistance to change” in the context of individual resistance to change. However, use of the term evolved to refer to the resistance of an organisation to make transitions and its inability to quickly and effectively react to change (Kinneer and Roodt, 1998). In the change literature, resistance to change is a recurring theme (Cummings and Worley, 2005; Senior and Swailes, 2010),

although the definition depends on the chosen theoretical perspective (Van Tonder, 2004) of which the following seem to be the most prominent:

The conventional change management literature (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999; Beer and Nohria, 2000a; Pettigrew, Woodman & Cameron, 2001) argues that resistance has different appearances, varying from foot-dragging, withdrawal, material sabotage to whistleblowing (Carr and Brower, 2000) to strikes, working to rule and symbolic sabotage (Fleming and Spicer, 2003). Organisational change is desirable and inevitable and people resisting change are framed as irrational (Atkinson, 2005).

In the critical perspectives on change management framework, power and discourse dominate. Power is circumvented by using euphemistic concepts such as leadership, governance and empowerment (Kärreman and Alvesson, 2009). Hardy and Thomas (2014) explored discourses associated with strategy and indicated how the power effects of discourses are intensified through discursive and material practices, leading to the production of objects and subjects that are clearly aligned with the strategy. Ahonen, Tienari, Meriläinen & Pullen (2014) emphasised the absolute requirement of finding ways to develop theorisations and practices that turns the modality of power against itself.

The conventional perspective shares assumptions that change is good, stability is bad and change should be managed and controlled (Weick and Quinn, 1999). These models and approaches to change are framed in the interest of management (Sturdy and Grey, 2003). Critical change management literature questions whether change and stability are mutually exclusive and depends on the interpretation of the person defining it. Change is not idealised as not all employees are likely to be enthusiastic about the *n*th change project (Brown and Humphreys, 2003).

Oreg (2006) reported an association between communication and attitudes towards change, while Wanberg and Banas (2000) found a positive correlation between employees who reported they received information about change and their openness to change. Similarly, according to Lewis (2006), the higher the perceived quality of



implementation information received about a change initiative, the less the perceived resistance to change.

Because organisational change requires employees to adapt to new conditions, environments, contexts and positions, a certain level of change readiness (Weiner, 2009) and resilience (Strümpfer, 2006) is required. This highlights the role of individual competency, the potential individual contribution to make positive change, individual learning (Avey, Wernsing & Luthans, 2008; Bercovitz and Feldman, 2008; Luscher and Lewis, 2008) and individual adaptation in order to participate and not resist organisational change (Bateh, *et al.*, 2013). During organisational change, fear and uncertainty about the future could “lead some employees to leave and others to have mental problems” (Dahl, 2009:4).

Strümpfer (2006) argues that there has been relatively little theorising about and research into positive mental health. Antonovsky (1979) introduced a continuum of health ease/disease while formulating the construct of *salutogenesis* (Latin *salus* = health + Greek *genesis*, from *gen* = be produced). Strümpfer (1995) expanded this construct to *fortigenesis* (Latin *fortis* = strong), referring to a process of producing strengths at more endpoints than health only.

Recently, research on employee well-being and employee wellness relates to the sustained quality of employees’ experiences and functioning within work context. Such functioning relates to the physical, emotional, psychological and social levels (Rothmann, 2014). South African based research revealed a notable increase in well-being studies after 2000 (Moyo, 2012; Schreuder and Coetzee, 2010). However, Moyo (2012) also indicates employee wellness as an important current research issue for organisations.

Keyes (2002) hypothesised complete mental health as a bipolar continuum, from flourishing to languishing. In the process of moving upwards along the languishing-flourishing continuum, fortigenic processes could wax owing to positive, eustress experiences, such as continuing education, self-directed work experiences, participation in socially valued decision making or psychotherapy. In the downwards

move along this continuum, fortigenic processes could wane owing to distressing experiences such as serious illness or injury, bereavement, untoward work experiences without escape, retrenchment and unemployment, social isolation, persecution, imprisonment or political upheaval (Keyes, 2002). In all such instances, there is interaction between the external circumstances and the personality make-up of the individual (Strümpfer, 2006:14).

Ryff and Singer (2000) emphasised the importance of interpersonal flourishing; having quality ties with others. Strümpfer (2003) argues these insights to be crucial to the current work context; workers are perceived to be individuals: to be recruited, hired, trained, rewarded and retrenched. Ignorance of interrelatedness and ignoring relationships, are sources of alienation, but also of burnout at all organisational levels. Strümpfer (2003) found significant interconnections between the burnout experiences of individuals and relationships among members of organisations.

## **2.8 BEHAVIOUR RELATING TO ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE**

Organisational change is a primary cause of stress for individuals (Tiong, 2005) due to feelings of uncertainty, insecurity and threat (Jimmieson, Terry & Callan, 2004). When organisational change occurs, individuals are often stressed by role overload, role ambiguity and role boundary which can affect human resource potential (Tiong, 2005).

Change compels employees to adapt to new circumstances, but retaining some stability enables employees to maintain a sense of identity and understanding (Huy, 1999). Because one of the main aspects of human nature is people's inherent need for predictability and order (Hogan, 2007), one should bear in mind that major organisational change may be experienced in ways that contradict this basic need and deplete employees' adaptive resources (Bernerth, *et al.*, 2011). Although scant attention has been paid to investigating such possibilities, research has shown that an overemphasis on organisational change may come at the expense of other important organisational factors such as commitment or satisfaction (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006). Other studies have indicated that the potential for negative outcomes

is particularly heightened when the rate of change is perceived as being too frequent (Huy, 2001).

When change is perceived as a discrete event with a beginning and an end, employees are better able to predict and adjust their behaviour accordingly (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006). Alternatively, when an organisation is in a state of continuous flux, employees are unable to align their thoughts and actions with the expectations of organisational leaders. Marks (2003) proposed a saturation effect such that employees can handle only so much disruption. Berneth, *et al.*, (2011) implicitly suggest there may be a moment where change becomes too much; exhaustion is the central mechanism through which change fatigue drives employees' affective reactions (such as less commitment) and behavioural intentions (such as turnover intention).

Conceptually, exhaustion emerged from Maslach and Jackson's (1981) early work on employee burnout. Originally deemed to be only one of the three components of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and diminished personal accomplishment), exhaustion has more recently emerged as the central variable in understanding the burnout process (Cropanzano, Rupp & Byrne, 2003; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Exhaustion is a feeling of being depleted or overextended beyond one's capacity to handle workplace demands. The energy to perform basic job tasks disappears and employees are left feeling drained (Halbesleben and Buckley, 2004). Burnout is a serious, multi-factorial syndrome which may be caused by organisational factors (as opposed to employee-related factors) such as the presence of severe, improper, unsupported working conditions and improper leadership style practices (Loh, Than & Quek, 2011).

Dahl's (2009) research examined the effect of organisational change on the likelihood that individual employees leave the organisation or receive stress-related medication. Dahl (2009) found that employees of organisations with large degrees of change have a significantly higher risk of experiencing stress (receiving prescriptions for stress-related conditions) and/or leaving the organisation. Dahl (2009) further argues that organisational change can lead to employee frustration and uncertainty

because organisational change threatens the identity and implicit contract of the organisation with its employees. Furthermore, increased frustration, uncertainty, fear and the instability induced by organisational change will increase the stress on employees while increasing the risk of employees leaving the organisation (Dahl, 2009).

Research by Loh, *et al.*, (2011) found the relationship with one's superior as a key source of pressure. Distinguishing acceptable stress from excessive stress has a significant impact on the success of organisational change (Chen, 2011). The overwhelming effect of stress on employees can be devastating and the cost to the organisation enormous (Corbitt, 2005) with further detrimental consequences such as higher absenteeism, lower productivity, lower job satisfaction and low morale (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik & Welbourne, 1999).

## **2.9 COMMUNICATION**

In organisational change, communication seems imperative. Various scholars assert that communication and change are important, interlinked subject fields (Jones, *et al.*, 2004; Taylor, Flanagin, Cheney & Seibold, 2001; Lewis, 1999), and many scholars indicate that change is not often questioned (Sturdy and Grey, 2003; Zorn, Page & Cheney, 2000), even though it often leads to turmoil (Newell, Robertson & Swan, 2001). The significant effect of communication on change has been reiterated by calls to study communication during organisational change in detail (Lewis and Seibold, 1998; Jones, *et al.*, 2004).

There have been on-going discussions of different research perspectives in terms of organisational communication (Krone, Jablin & Putnam, 1987; Putnam, Phillips & Chapman, 1996). Probably the most widespread and well-known classification consists of the functional, interpretive and critical perspectives (Putnam, 1983), which although dated, still inform the viewpoint of the day. Each of these perspectives will be briefly discussed below.

In the functional perspective, communication is viewed as a tangible substance that flows upwards, downwards, and laterally within the organisation (Doolin, 2003). The

content and meaning of messages play a secondary role; meaning is assumed to reside in the message. Axley (1984) criticised this view for simplifying communication into the transmission of messages.

In the interpretive perspective, a meaning-centred view of organisational communication is adopted. Social reality is constituted through symbols, words and actions that members invoke. Stories, myths, rituals and language use are not simply reflections of organisational meanings, but are the on-going processes that constitute organisational life (Putnam, 1983). This perspective seeks to generate insights and understanding.

The critical perspective conceives of organisations as dynamic sites of control and resistance (Mumby, 2012). Common in the critical perspective is the notion that co-constitutive processes are not spontaneous, but they occur instead in the context of complex relations of power (Mumby, 2012). This perspective seeks social change to free individuals from sources of domination and repression (Johansson and Heide, 2008).

Research indicates that many change initiatives fail because of shortcomings in internal communication (Barrett, 2002; Elving, 2005; Lewis, 2000). Various authors have emphasised the importance of communication in change processes (Elving, 2005; Ford and Ford, 1995; Daly, Teague & Kitchen, 2003). Saruhan (2014) found that communication has a positive impact on employee resistance to change. However, Christensen (2014) reported that communication is part of an organisation's everyday life, but is difficult to uphold as management easily forgets the importance of communication during a change situation.

Elving (2005) emphasise the importance of distinguishing between information and communication in change communication. Large organisation's communication departments put in a lot of effort to exchange information about change in newsletters, on web sites and in bulk e-mails. However, communication strives for the creation of mutual understanding and trusting relationships (Elving, 2005). From this perspective, change efforts are often too narrowly focused on information. The

benefits of participation are one of many ways that stresses the importance of communication (Nutt, 1999).

Several studies (Hales, 2005; Huy, 2002; Balogun and Johnson, 2004) underline the crucial role of middle managers during organisational change. Lower-level managers and direct supervisors are perceived as the primary sources of information for employees (Bosley, Arnold & Cohen, 2007; Van Vuuren, De Jong & Seydel, 2007). Distorted information and ineffective communication are fatal at this level. This is where strategies have to be turned into actions (Van Vuuren and Elving, 2008).

## **2.10 THE ETHICS OF CHANGE**

Ethics is a reflection on what constitutes right or wrong behaviour, and operates in the realm of the code right/wrong, while reflecting on values or the correctness of specific moral approaches (Luhmann, 1992). Misconducts in organisations such as corruption, discrimination, cheating and dishonesty, harm individuals, the organisation and societies. Various organisational difficulties, such as the Enron collapse, have been attributed to a lack of attention to ethics (Sims and Brinkmann, 2009).

Rapidly changing technology, globalisation, uncertainty, unpredictability, volatility, surprise, turbulence and discontinuity are some of the major new environmental forces for change facing organisations (Brodbeck, 2002; Wang and Ahmed, 2003). In response, organisations commonly adopt practices such as downsizing, re-engineering, merging and restructuring. Card (2005) showed that individuals may abdicate their moral obligations when acting on behalf of an organisation. Price and Van der Walt (2013) showed a clear trend towards compliance-based ethics in South Africa, which according to them, stems from the proliferation of business legislation and regulation.

According to Doppelt (2003), for organisations to make the kind of transformation to become truly sustainable, power and authority must be skillfully distributed among employees and stakeholders through effective information sharing, decision making and resource allocation mechanisms. However, such behaviour remains problematic

for the leaders of organisations (Millar, *et al.*, 2012). Hind, Wilson & Lenssen (2009) argue that sustainable businesses need leaders who are pro-actively aware of their social, environmental and financial duties in the face of invisible ethics and the value basis of practices in a changing organisational environment (Shivastava, 2010).

Organisations recognise that ethics plays a critical role in performance (Crane and Matten, 2007). Given the extended disorder of our modern age (Taleb, 2010), organisations encounter challenges with conflicting values and interests which require guiding principles and norms to meet these situations successfully (Crane and Matten, 2007). Such ethical behaviour remains a great challenge in South Africa (Ngwenya, 2014).

Jones and O'Doherty (2005) make a case for rejecting rule-bound approaches, asserting that ethical practice is about searching self-reflection instead of the mindless following of rules. Biermann (2009) vividly exposed the conflicting interests and ambiguities, conflicts and shifting relationships which are affected and emerge between ethics and jobs, ethics and business and ethics and mobility. Page and Gaggiotti (2012) indicated a different understanding of ethical dilemmas, ethical business practice and ethical leadership. Besio and Pronzini (2014) underscore the necessity of a theoretical framework on ethics that permits a more integrated view of the different perspectives concerning the role of morality. This is closely related to different thinking systems or human niches, which are discussed in chapter three.

Organisations have had to adapt to new environmental criteria. However, too much emphasis has been placed upon making changes that influence external organisational dimensions, whereas little emphasis has been placed upon making essential changes that influence the internal dimensions of the organisation (Hultman and Gellermann, 2002; Wallace, 2003). Despite research (Collins and Porras, 1998) showing that highly successful companies were generally more ideologically driven and less purely profit driven than other less successful companies, there is little to show that organisations are widely committed to examining and changing their internal cultural dimensions that form their ideology. Although people want to work for a cause, not just for a living (Pollard, 1996), the



importance of integrity in ensuring fair and consistent application of moral and ethical procedures during organisational change cannot be overemphasised (Bews and Uys, 2002).

The significance of ethical sense-making (De Jaegher and Di Paolo, 2007) and ethical sense-giving or conveying the change understanding to others (Fiss and Zajac, 2006; Maitlis and Lawrence, 2007) has been emphasised. Individuals create organisations and organisations are a collection of individual people. This implies that changing the people should be the first step in any process that seeks to change organisations. If there is a need to change organisations, the first consideration should be to effect an appropriate change in each person in the organisation before turning attention to changing the nonhuman parts of the organisation such as the structures, processes, and preferred practices (Branson, 2007).

Ethics as opposed to misconducts such as corruption, discrimination, cheating and dishonesty are distinctly Western concepts. Different thinking systems or human niches have different views on what constitutes ethical behaviour and subsequent right and/or wrong behaviour (Laubscher, 2014). In an African context, as well as in an organisational change and leadership context, this poses a dilemma which organisations are seemingly struggling to address meaningfully.

Unfortunately, much of the literature associated with organisational change tends not to focus on the internal understandings of the people as they face the inherent demands in the proposed changes. Successful organisational change in this era of uncertainty and unpredictability (Taleb, 2012; Brodbeck, 2002; Wang and Ahmed, 2003) begins with and depends on changing the individual consciousness of those who are employees of the organisation (Branson, 2007).

## **2.11 PERCEPTIONS ON CHANGE**

Employee's perceptions impact on change. It is therefore necessary to understand which change features impact on employees' perceptions, and their effects (Cartwright and Schoenberg, 2006; Pettigrew, *et al.*, 2001). In practice, employees often respond negatively to change because of increased work pressure and stress



(Self and Schraeder, 2009; Pech and Oakley, 2005; Jones, *et al.*, 2008). Understanding what change features impact on perceptions of the change process and employee behaviour leads to improved manageability (Lattuch and Young, 2010). According to Rafferty and Griffin (2006), employees' perceptions of change are influenced by the frequency of change, the degree of planning and the magnitude of the change. These perceptions impact on uncertainty which has been reported as a major consequence of change affecting employees' well-being and performance (Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish & DiFonzo, 2004).

Employees' perceptions of the organisation's readiness for change have been identified as an important factor in understanding sources of change resistance (Eby, *et al.*, 2000). Change readiness has been defined as the "cognitive precursor to the behaviours of either resistance to, or support for, a change effort" (Armenakis, Harris & Mossholder, 1993:681). These perceptions can facilitate or undermine the effectiveness of a change initiative (Armenakis, *et al.*, 1993), emphasising the need to understand change from the perspective of those engaged in its implementation (Smollan, 2006; Weber and Manning, 2001).

The same change may be viewed and appreciated by different organisational actors in diverse ways. When participants' views change, this is filtered through their preferences and appreciated and accepted, or resisted accordingly (Dibella, 2007). This concept again is closely linked to human niche theory (Laubscher, 2014), a topic that will be touched on in chapter three. The key perception or cognition is whether some planned or intentional change is considered desirable or undesirable (Shin, Taylor & Seo, 2012). This distinction is a key factor for organisational members to decide whether to engage productively in a change initiative. This perception provides a foundation upon which resistance or participation rests. Anyone who views change as undesirable is unlikely to help bring about such change, or worse, may sabotage the efforts of those trying to do so (Dibella, 2007; Shin, *et al.*, 2012).

Figure 2.10 displays likelihood on one axis and appeal on another. In scenario one (high appeal, high likelihood), as indicated in figure 2.10, the intended change should

be expedited. Participants view the change as desirable and consider it inevitable. To the extent this view is shared, minimal, if any, resistance will be encountered. The focus should be on the development and execution of an implementation plan that lays out critical tasks and timeframes (Dibella, 2007).

		Likelihood	
		High	Low
Appeal	Inevitable		
	Impossible		
High Desirable	1. Expedite	2. Encourage and empower	
Low Undesirable	3. Reframe	4. Revitalise or retrench	

Figure 2.10: Scenarios in how change is perceived (Dibella, 2007:234)

Figure 2.10 indicates that in scenario two (high appeal, low likelihood), participants should be encouraged and empowered. Scenario three (low appeal, high likelihood), requires reframing and is best suited to meeting the stereotypical conditions where resistance to change is expected. A typical reaction among participants in this scenario is to reduce their engagement, thus lowering the likelihood of the change. In scenario four (low appeal, low likelihood), revitalisation or retrenchment is the only alternative and thus presents the greatest challenge. Change is viewed as undesirable and impossible. Under these conditions there is no clear incentive for participants to engage in the change. Participants are apt to be defiant, if not outright belligerent, to change advocates whose credibility will be tested and questioned (Dibella, 2007).

## 2.12 LEADERSHIP

Stogdill (1950:3) defined leadership as “the process of influencing the activities of an organised group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement”. Fifty-five years later, Storey (2005:5) referred to leadership as “a catch-all and a panacea”. According to Barker (2001), leadership is a process - a function of individual wills and needs and the result of the dynamics of collective will organised to meet those

needs, a process of adaptation and evolution and a process of energy, not structure. “There are now increasing signs of disenchantment with the concept of the assertive, no-nonsense leader, whether of the charismatic or transformative variety” (Storey, 2005:31).

In the 1980s much emphasis was placed on transformational processes (Bass, 1985; Bennis and Nanus, 1985) and charisma (Conger, 1989). Later, leaders and leadership scholars placed more emphasis on the necessities of authenticity (George, 2003), consciousness (Chatterjee, 1998), ethics (Kanungo and Mendonca, 1996), humanism (Seligman, 2000), integral development (Wilber, 2000), morality (Coles, 2000) and spiritual maturity (Vaill, 1998; Bolman and Deal, 2001; Sanders, Hopkins & Geroy, 2003).

Transformational leadership can be defined in terms of the impact it has on followers and garners trust, respect and admiration from followers (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership has been identified as the most effective leadership style (Lam and O’Higgins, 2011) because of the special attention such leadership provides for the needs of subordinates (Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000). However, it has been acknowledged that different types of organisational circumstances, situational factors and employees might need different types of leadership styles (Lam and O’Higgins, 2011). Transformational leadership rejects the command-and-control leadership view. Instead, leaders are viewed as individuals who motivate their staff by establishing an emotional link through the power of their personality and not by using the power of their position in the organisation (Nahavandi, 2000; Hughes, *et al.*, 2009).

Leadership continues to be an area of importance in organisational theory (Lee, 2011). This is especially true for developing economies, where issues such as skills shortages and historical divides between societal groups lend particular weight to effective leadership (April and April, 2007; Vundla, 2014; Ngwenya, 2014). The potential remains for leadership in South Africa to improve in leadership complexity, in order to promote targeted HR and organisational development action with the potential for significant advances in organisational success (Lee, 2011).

In this era of uncertainty (Taleb, 2010) and crisis, leaders have crucial roles to play (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008) in promoting organisational adaptation (Heifetz, Grashow & Linsky, 2009). Leaders have to help their collaborators make sense of new challenges, develop and articulate correct practices to suit the complexity of their changing environment with those collaborators and tap into the collective intelligence of their staff (Baron and Cayer, 2010). Leadership thus has a key role to play in setting direction, inspiring change and ensuring successful change implementation (Kotter, 1995; Oakland and Tanner, 2007; Beer and Nohria, 2000a, 2000b). Leaders must also identify, define and support the required change (Armenakis and Harris, 2009) while dealing with employee emotions and expectations (Ulrich and Brockbank, 2005).

Organisations have become increasingly aware that the world has changed, necessitating a fundamental reassessment of objectives, operations and leadership orientation (Jamali, Khoury & Sahyoun, 2006). In this context, previous leadership perspectives are being challenged and long-held criteria for evaluating organisational effectiveness are being reassessed. Whereas in the past, those who worked in the organisation were chiefly considered as factors of production and profit, a different perspective is now required. Nowadays, the onus is on leaders to carefully nurture and skilfully manage the human resources in the organisation by focusing on such things as psychological commitment, communication, empowerment, teamwork, trust, participation and flexibility (Branson, 2007).

Leadership and change go hand in hand (Burnes and Todnem-By, 2012) - the prime task of leaders is to bring about change in order to maintain and enhance organisational success (Yukl, 2010; Hughes, *et al.*, 2009). If leadership and change were easy, they would not attract so much attention or be regarded as so crucial (Burnes, 2009). However, given the large number of change initiatives that fail (Smith, 2002), if the main task of leaders is to effect change, this implies that only a minority of leaders are successful in their job, which is what research has shown (Hughes, *et al.*, 2009).

Through the biology of empathy, leaders can improve group performance (Rock, 2008). Furthermore, certain things leaders do affect both their own brain chemistry and that of their followers (Goleman and Boyatzis, 2008; Lieberman and Eisenberger, 2013). Hence, leading effectively is less about mastering situations than about developing a genuine interest in and talent for fostering positive feelings in the people whose cooperation and support one needs (Ringleb and Rock, 2008; 2009).

Given the large amount of change, ethical leadership becomes imperative. Arguments for ethical leadership are not new (Barnard, 1938; Marrow, 1969). However, the financial scandals of the past two decades seem to indicate that unethical and criminal behaviour have mushroomed out of control in many organisations (Porter, 2008; Partnoy, 2003; Clark, 2008). As a result, recent leadership emphasis has been placed on ethical values and behaviour (Burnes, 2009; Storey, 2005). Sosik, Jung & Dinger (2009) assert that the importance of ethical values is that they influence behaviour, especially in terms of whether organisational goals are judged as right and appropriate, and the degree of effort to exert in pursuing the goals.

Bar-On (2004) identified the ability to manage emotions, to be aware of and accept oneself, to be aware of the feelings, concerns and needs of others, to be realistic and to put things in the correct perspective, and the ability to have a positive disposition, as the most powerful contributors to organisational performance (Bar-On, 2004). According to the Bar-On model, emotional intelligence is an array of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills, and behaviours that determine how effectively individuals understand and express themselves; understand others and relate with them; and cope with daily demands, problems and pressure (Bar-On, 1988, 1997a, 1997b, 2000, 2004, 2006). According to Viljoen-Terblanche (2008), Bar-On's (2004) model is a description of leadership qualities.

Building on the above, neuroleadership argues that neuroscience can assist both leadership scholars and practitioners to better assist people in managing themselves and in improving performance and well-being (Ringleb and Rock, 2008, 2009).

Neuroleadership is a subfield within the leadership field of study. The leadership study field involves the undertaking of scientific research related to the relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes (Rost, 1993). Neuroleadership can then be defined as “the study of the biological microfoundations of that relationship” (Ringleb and Rock, 2008:33). As a new field of study, neuroleadership is based on four domains: decision making and problem solving, regulating emotions, collaboration, and facilitating change (Ringleb and Rock, 2008).

Two themes have emerged from social neuroscience: (1) much of our motivation driving social behaviour is governed by an overarching organisational principle of minimising threat and maximising reward; and (2) several domains of social experience draw upon the same brain networks to maximise reward and minimise threat as the brain networks used for primary survival needs (Lieberman and Eisenberger, 2013).

Rock (2008) developed the SCARF model which summarises these two themes in a framework that captures common factors that activate a reward or threat response in social situations. The SCARF model involves five domains of human social experience, namely **s**tatus, **c**ertainty, **a**utonomy, **r**elatedness and **f**airness. These five domains of SCARF reflect the core brain networks of greatest significance when it comes to collaborating with and influencing others. Understanding these drivers can help individuals and organisations to function more effectively, while reducing conflicts that occur so easily among people (Rock, 2008, 2009; Lieberman and Eisenberger, 2013; Ringleb and Rock, 2013).

In terms of the above, the components of transformational leadership and leadership efficiency seem important in an organisational change context. Although a new field of study, neuroleadership could become a valuable source towards leadership and change. The need for ethical leadership has been argued. Despite the significant role of leadership in an organisational change context, perusal of the literature on organisational change and leadership indicates that these two subjects are predominantly treated as separate entities.

### **2.13 INTEGRATION**

The discussion on organisational change models indicates a divide between organisational changes, on the one hand, and individual and/or team change, on the other. In addition, the organisational change models discussed above rarely incorporate and/or acknowledge individuals and their related emotional experiences during change. Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) equated the importance of the individual, the team and the organisational during radical change. However, the above discussion on organisational change models largely indicates disconnect between individual and organisational change models.

Furthermore, the impact of leadership on organisational change does not seem to be reflected in organisational change models. In addition, when discussing perceptions, communications, ethics and leadership during the change process, the reality of multiple individual situations, perceptions, thinking systems, communication needs, ethics and leadership expectations is not acknowledged. This gap between the organisational perspective during change and the individual perspective during change seems to contribute towards the difficulty of implementing organisational change successfully.

### **2.14 CONCLUSION**

The purpose of this chapter was to present a literature review relating to organisational change and leadership. There is no doubt that organisational change and leadership are viewed differently by different individuals. Furthermore, different individuals tend to react differently to organisational change and even to leadership. Different individuals view different leaders as ethical or unethical and perceive leaders differently. Different leaders lead differently. Individuals tend to resist in different ways and understand communication differently.

Congruence between the thinking systems of individuals in an organisation and the thinking system of the organisation itself appears to be imperative. It also seems clear that the value and/or contribution and/or experience of the individual are not readily incorporated into traditional organisational change literature. However, it

seems clear that a one-answer-fits-all solution to organisational change and leadership is unlikely to achieve success.

In the current study, the researcher adopted a social constructivist epistemology, which acknowledges seemingly limitless possible records of the same situation, each showing useful details for different types of views in the same situation. Given the emphasis that social constructivist epistemology places on numerous different possible views, coupled with the fact that Viljoen-Terblanche (2008), – in her work on radical organisational change, - emphasised that human niches are not integrated in traditional change theory, specific emphasis was placed on integrating human niches into the topic of organisational change and leadership. To this end, the next chapter focuses on different thinking systems, as portrayed through human niches.



## CHAPTER 3: HUMAN NICHES

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Research has failed to take adequate account of the perceptions and responses to organisational change by members of different groups (Jones, *et al.*, 2004). Individuals react differently to changes in the status quo as well as their ability to deal with organisational change (Rosenberg and Mosca, 2011). Furthermore, individuals have a different understanding of ethical dilemmas, ethical business practice and ethical leadership (Page and Gaggiotti, 2012). According to Ford and Ford (2009), the logic of the observer defines the change experience, while Dibella (2007) argues that when participants' views change, this is filtered through their preferences and appreciated and accepted, or resisted accordingly.

The existence of different thinking systems appears evident. It also seems clear that different thinking systems do not understand each other. These differences largely contribute to gaps in understanding, posing a dilemma for both organisational change and leadership. Hence the intent of this chapter is to explore the literature in greater depth by focusing on the topic of human niches (Laubscher, 2013) in an attempt to create higher levels of shared understanding in the context of organisational change and leadership.

In response to heightened pressures and challenges, organisations are invariably engaging in change efforts (Hansson, Vingard, Arnetz & Anderzen, 2008; Noblet, Rodwell & McWilliams, 2006; Van Knippenberg, Martin & Tyler, 2006) as they attempt to convert from an existing to a future state in order to increase efficiency and effectiveness (Yu, 2009). Organisational change impacts upon employees because it involves changes to role structures and work patterns, increases workloads and creates a sense of job insecurity (Armstrong-Stassen, 2005; Sutherland and Cooper, 2000). The stress and uncertainty arising from organisational change has a negative impact on levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, psychological well-being and intentions to remain with the organisation (Paulsen, *et al.*, 2005). If there is a need to change organisations, the first consideration should be to effect an appropriate change in each person in the organisation before turning the attention to changing the nonhuman parts of the

organisation such as the structures, processes and preferred practices (Branson, 2007).

Taleb (2010) reminds us that linear relationships are truly the exception. The never-ending spiral of spiral dynamics mitigates this exception. Spiral dynamics uses the symbol of a spiral in order to explain development (Beck and Cowan, 1996). Illuminating organisational change through a spiral dynamics lens (Beck and Cowan, 1996), enhanced by human niches (Laubscher, 2013) offers deeper understanding of differences in human behaviour. If employees are operating in different positions on the spiral, change is not necessarily addressing this fact effectively. Organisational leaders and employees are being challenged to be more attuned to the changing external and internal contexts as they orient themselves to remaining relevant in the new world of work.

Terminology such as world-views, change states, thinking systems and levels of consciousness all address the same concept. Laubscher (2013) coined the term “human niches” as she shared her profound understanding of BEIGE, PURPLE and RED. The concepts of human niches and spiral dynamics will be used interchangeably to inform and attune organisational leaders and employees. The current study anchored its approach to the applied version, human niches (Laubscher, 2013), to gain an understanding of these different contexts (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014), in terms of the topic of organisational change and leadership. This approach will be followed as human niches best describe the essence of the different thinking systems (Viljoen, 2015).

### **3.2 INTRODUCTION TO SPIRAL DYNAMICS**

The approach known as spiral dynamics represents the culmination of research conducted by Graves (1978) who contextualised the emergent cyclic levels of existence theory in an attempt to describe the emergence of bio-psychosocial systems in humans in response to external challenges. Graves (1978) proposed that all forces shaping society should be looked at from an integral perspective, which includes biology (brain capacity, neurology and chemical energy of life and the organismic part of the human), psychology (thinking systems, variables of

personality and life experiences) and sociology (where people live, collective energy in group dynamics and culture) and examined in the context of a dynamic culture. The term, “bio-psychosocial”, reflects Graves’s (1978) insistence on the importance of a multidisciplinary, multidimensional approach to understanding human nature.

Graves (1978) created a double helix system, emphasising questions of existence and coping mechanisms. This double helix is conceptualised in such a way that the coils of conditions and coping expand as complexity increases. Helix I represents internal and external conditions of existence. Internally, they include genetic make-up, inherited characteristics, tendencies and native intelligences. Externally, they comprise the social and physical factors impinging on the individual or group that define the context in which choices are made. Helix II represents coping methods - the ways in which people operate in response to conditions they perceive in their realities. These are reflected through attitudes and behaviours. These actions are observable and revealed in personality, values and cultural traits and norms. Coping methods are essentially what people do in response to the “why” questions generated by their conditions of existence (Graves, 1978).

Each coping system is a function of nurture and nature. The impacts of cultural and social stimuli of growing up constitute the nurture component. Inherited instincts, tendencies, genetic make-up and biochemical agents comprise the nature component (Graves, 1978). These systems consist of world-views, goals, manifestations as well as the individual’s and group’s range of functioning. Coping systems contain feelings, motivation, ethics, perceptions, learning and belief systems, biochemistry and neurological activation, conceptions of mental health and normality as well as views on economics and political theory (Laubscher, 2014).

Using the letters of the alphabet, Graves (1978) labelled the questions of existence from A and the corresponding coping mechanisms from N onwards. Helix I (letters from A to M) and Helix II (letters from N to Z) letter-pair to become value systems. Thus the first system is AN, the second BO, and so forth.

The above categories were viewed as highly abstract. During work in South Africa, Beck and Cowan (1996) colour coded the system to indicate different questions of existence in an attempt to move past skin colour to value systems. This method of indicating the different Gravesian value systems became widely used, and today we refer to PURPLE, RED or BLUE value systems representing people or groups. Describing people or groups of people in this way, also archetypally assigns a rich description of being that accompanies the specific system (Viljoen, 2014; Laubscher, 2013). Spiral dynamics (Beck and Cowan, 1996) provides a framework for how people think, with no direct link to intelligence, gender, age, ethnicity or other demographics. People value different things because they think in different ways (Viljoen, 2014; Laubscher, 2013). In the South African context and its diverse workforce, these are important elements in the pertinent topic of organisational change and leadership.

Beck and Cowan (1996) insisted that changing life conditions lead to adaptation. When a person or a culture is confronted with changing life conditions, the individual or culture is forced to respond with coping mechanisms in order to adapt to new realities. They (1996) introduced the term 'MEMEs to describe the different value systems, referring to a set of values or an organising principle, as per Dawkins (1989) who states that a meme is a habit, a technique, a twist of feeling, a sense of things, which easily flips from brain to brain. Memes can carry messages via the swift intangibles of scent, sight and sound. Furthermore, learning creates an environment in which memes thrive (Dawkins, 1989).

Graves (1978) found that people vary in terms of their change potentials along an OPEN - ARRESTED - CLOSED (OAC) continuum. If you can discern a person's OAC status on a topic, one knows the possibilities for 'MEME change, the appropriate techniques, the amount of energy it will require, and the resultant stress. In the open system, moreover, it is possible in a broader sense to entertain thinking from new 'MEMEs on the rise and access previous systems when appropriate (Lessem, s.a.).

Jung (Storr, 1983) postulated that it may easily happen that an attitude is no longer able to satisfy the demands of adaptation because changes occurred in the environmental conditions which require a different attitude. A person or a culture will only evolve to a different value system or 'MEME if a crisis occurs – the current value systems in the brain cannot make sense of the changing life conditions and the need for a new system is born (Beck and Cowan, 1996).

Beck (2013) describes the spiral as a master code, comprising eight stages or codes which can be viewed as the basic structures of human psychology and sociology. The codes do not necessarily represent types of people, but value systems in people. Systems are not good or bad, but a set of values that can adapt to be congruent with changing life conditions. Beck (2013) refers to unhealthy and healthy versions of these value systems. Values evolve as one's life conditions change (Yeats, 2012). Each of the stages or levels identified by spiral dynamics is aligned with a primary set of values that shape how we think, how we see others, how we problem solve, what our motives are and other aspects of our process at each level. Each level is more of a description of how we function rather than a description of what type we might be (Yeats, 2012).

Related to spiral dynamics assumptions, Beck and Cowan (1996) issue three warnings. The first warning is against assuming that higher is better, implying that one must progress on the spiral as an evolutionary scale. The second warning is to assume that spiral dynamics is simplistic. The last warning is not to attempt to change people into something they are not.

### **3.3 SPIRAL DYNAMICS AND HUMAN NICHES**

Organisational cultures are formed by the emergence of value systems in response to life conditions. Such value or thinking systems form the glue that bind a group together, define who they are and reflect the place they inhabit (Beck, 2008). However, there is no correlation between intelligence and thinking systems as described by spiral dynamics (Beck, 2008; Laubscher, 2014). The detectable social stages in cultures are not rigid with permanent traits. Instead, they are "core adaptive intelligences that ebb and flow, progress and regress, with the capacity to add on

new levels of complexity as required” (Beck, 2008:s.a.). SD is a model of growth in subjective personal and cultural worldviews rather than a comprehensive model of human development (Cacioppe and Edwards, 2004). It assists with first identifying and understanding the life conditions, that is, the problems of existence that people are encountering, and then the mimetic code, which is the way to deal with those life conditions (Beck 2004; Beck and Linscott, 1991).

As humans, we tend to see things in the way we are expected to see them. However, we also have opportunities to create new models that are complex enough to make older systems or stages obsolete. The underlying concept of SD is based on the symbol of a spiral. As the spiral unfolds, each spiral turn unfolds increased complexity of worldviews (Beck, 2004). Beck (2004) believes each turn of the spiral represents a different worldview, a way of understanding reality or a so-called “value system”. SD is a powerful model because it allows one to diagnose a particular situation and see the kinds of interventions necessary while helping to shift the focus and efforts in such a way that it impacts on the emergence of people (Beck 2004).

Each emerging stage contains a more expansive horizon, more complex mindsets, priorities and specific bottom-lines. Previously acquired worldviews remain in the composite value system to determine the unique texture of a given culture, country or society (Beck, 2008). Once a new social stage appears in a culture, it will spread its instructional codes and life priority messages throughout religion, economic and political life, human nature views, future destiny and globalisation; we all live in flow states (Beck, 2008; Beck and Linscott, 1991). Table 3.1 depicts each stage with its colour code and thinking framework. Viljoen (2014) argues the importance of congruence between levels of the spiral and that of the organisation.

Table 3.1: The living strata in our psycho-cultural archaeology (Adapted from Beck, 2008; Viljoen, 2015).

<b>THE LIVING STRATA IN OUR PSYCHO-CULTURAL ARCHAEOLOGY</b>			
Colour code	Popular name	Thinking	Cultural manifestations and personal displays
Beige	Survival Sense	Instinctive	food; water; procreation; warmth; protection; stay alive
Purple	Kin Spirits	Animistic	rites; rituals; taboos; superstitions; tribes; folk ways and lore
Red	Power Gods	Egocentric	gratification; glitz; conquest; action; impulsive; live for now
Blue	Truth Force	Authority	meaning; discipline; traditions; morality; rules; live for later
Orange	Strive Drive	Strategic	materialistic; consumerism; success; image; status; growth
Green	Human Bond	Consensus	egalitarian; feelings; authentic; sharing; caring; community
Yellow	Flex Flow	Ecological	natural systems; self-principle; multiple realities; knowledge
Turquoise	Whole view	Holistic	collective individualism; cosmic spirituality; earth changes

According to table 3.1, BEIGE is the survival level, PURPLE is tribal, RED is egocentric, BLUE is authoritarian, ORANGE is entrepreneurial, GREEN is humanistic, YELLOW is systemic and integrative and TURQUOISE is the Holarctic level.

Laubscher (2013) adapted the approach by Beck and Cowan (1996) to explain dynamics in developing and under developed countries. She repositions the different value systems as detailed by Graves (1974) as Human Niches. The questions of existence that determine human niches differ as displayed in chapter one, table 1.1.

Due to the questions of existence that people and groups unconsciously ask, specific human niches or ways of being crystallise. Due to asking a specific question of existence, a human niche will excel at a particular existence answer. The relevant question of existence determines Human Niches.

### **3.4 ʘMEMES**

ʘMEME do not represent a hierarchy of better. Each ʘMEME can be expressed both positively and negatively; the spiral is an assortment of meme codes. RED is not better than PURPLE. It is different. If life conditions require one to be strong and self-assertive or to fight one's way out of a bad situation, then RED is the way to be. RED is not an aberration, but a normal part of the human meme repertoire (Beck and Cowan, 1996).

The BEIGE ʘMEME is structured in loose bands and underpinned by survival processes. BEIGE is highly instinctive and totally in touch with what it takes to survive, else they will not survive (Crofts, 2008; Beck and Cowan, 1996). BEIGE is the human animal stage and we are born into BEIGE (Crofts, 2008). The value systems are extremely close to what one would have if one were any other mammal (Freeman, 2010). Yeats (2012) postulates that this level comprises 0.1% of the world population. Laubscher (2013) disagrees, believing this figure to be higher. According to Crofts (2008), we all have the potential to go to BEIGE under conditions of extreme stress.

The PURPLE ʘMEME is structured in tribe-like or clan-like groups and is underpinned by circular processes. PURPLE links mystical beliefs with significant events and sees the beginnings of spirituality by attributing spirits to all things, including ancestors (Crofts, 2008; Beck and Cowan, 1996). Freeman (2010) describes the value system of PURPLE as traditionalistic, tribalistic and animistic. PURPLE is nurtured through observing rituals, finding reassurance and by expressing a sense of enchantment in life's mystery (Laubscher, 2013; Crofts, 2008). According to Crofts (2008), 10% of the global adult population is PURPLE. Viljoen and Laubscher (2014) suggest that the international representation of PURPLE is closer to 60%, and in Africa 65%.



The RED 'MEME is structured in empires and underpinned by exploitative, powerseeking processes (Laubscher, 2013). RED emerged in response to the order and security that was created by PURPLE; it was the first showing of the individual ego, distinct from the collective, tribal identity (Crofts, 2008). These individuals stood out both positively and negatively, being heroic and rebellious, impulsive and risk-taking, explorative and hedonistic. RED maximises immediate pleasure with little thought of the personal or wider consequences (Laubscher, 2014; Crofts, 2008). Binge drinkers and ruthless hierarchies, such as those in Maoist China or Gangsterism, are RED (Beck and Cowan, 1996). A BLUE government or organisation is well placed to crack down on an outburst of RED. However, an ORANGE or GREEN government or organisation might find it difficult to contain RED (Laubscher, 2013; Crofts, 2008).

RED primarily believes in the law of the jungle - it is dangerous out there and we need the strong RED individuals to protect us. RED knows no sense of guilt (Laubscher, 2013; Crofts, 2008; Beck and Cowan, 1996). However, RED can be shamed and can feel ashamed (Viljoen, 2014; Laubscher, 2014). The RED thinking system is egocentric and exploitive (Freeman, 2010). However, RED is not an aberration, but a normal part of the human repertoire (Crofts, 2008). RED is excited by preserving stories of company heroes, and by celebrating feats of conquest as well as by evidence of respect (Lessem, s.a.).

The BLUE 'MEME is structured in authoritarian form, and underpinned by purposeful, controlling or even authoritarian processes. BLUE evolved as a way of containing and dealing with RED, essentially by appealing to a higher order (Laubscher, 2013; Beck and Cowan, 1996). The administrative elite, in particular, struggled with and suffered from the random and brutal nature of RED. The relatively straightforward evolution was to invent or adopt a mythical deity to take on the power of the RED leader, and for the administrative elite to shift to intermediating between the new god and the people rather than between the RED leader and the people (Crofts, 2008). BLUE therefore invokes an ultimate authoritarian figure that controls his or her creation as ruthlessly as RED does (Crofts, 2008; Beck and Cowan, 1996).

BLUE is reinforced through appeals to traditions, fair treatment of all and by honouring length of service and loyalty (Laubscher, 2014).

All the great world religions were created in BLUE as a response to RED. Absolute ideas of right and wrong enforced by God and carried out by his vicarious representatives on earth represent BLUE ways of thinking. BLUE is highly obedient, moralistic (with morals imposed from outside), and is the first level to use guilt as a method of control. In the rigid BLUE social hierarchies, conformity is always preferred (Crofts, 2008; Laubscher, 2013, 2014). BLUE sees foreigners, animals and plants as being lower down the hierarchy than they and therefore existing largely to serve BLUE. BLUE is excellent for building empires and not so well adapted to the challenges of sustainability (Beck and Cowan, 1996). Order and meaning motivates the absolutistic thinking of BLUE (Freeman, 2010). In organisations we often see ORANGE management slipping into BLUE in times of stress and taking control (Crofts, 2008).

Organisational managers and leaders have no choice but to invest in leadership development and management training to ensure that BLUE structures are developed in our people (Laubscher, 2013). By doing that, maybe we can escape the crisis promised by a transition from PURPLE to RED and to BLUE (Viljoen, 2009).

The ORANGE 'MEME' is structured through delegative forms, underpinned by achievement-oriented strategic and competitive processes (Crofts, 2008; Laubscher, 2013). ORANGE evolved out of BLUE when the oppressive and restrictive nature of BLUE grew too extreme, resulting in the Enlightenment with its related self-determination, ambition and individuality. ORANGE thinking enable technological discovery, the development of rational thinking and a move away from the stringent controls of BLUE. ORANGE is highly competitive and sees individuals as being responsible for their own welfare and security. ORANGE is highly rational and can lump religion, spirituality, superstition and mysticism together as irrational and out dated. ORANGE is brilliant at the go-getting, build-it-up, greed-is-good mentality (Crofts, 2008; Laubscher, 2013). Most of the affluent post-war world visible in the

West was built by ORANGE (Dawlabani, 2014). ORANGE wants to win at all costs and is highly competitive, making it less capable for either compassion or considering the wider implications of its success (Crofts, 2008; Laubscher, 2013).

ORANGE is comfortable in corporate culture, materialism, humanism and liberal economic thinking (Beck and Cowan, 1996). Materialism, scientism and achievement drive ORANGE (Freeman, 2010). Today, Western society is dominated by ORANGE corporations, science and politics (Crofts, 2008). ORANGE is exercised through displaying success symbols, individual recognition of achievements and challenges for improvement (Laubscher, 2014).

The GREEN 'MEME is structured in an egalitarian fashion, underpinned by processes that are both experiential and consensual, and driven by a communitarian ethic. After a while the material success of ORANGE success lacks meaning and fails to feed the human spirit (Beck and Cowan, 1996). GREEN is our response to this realisation. GREEN is fiercely anti-hierarchical with a live-and-let-live attitude (Crofts, 2008). GREEN wants to bring the peoples of the world together placing equal value on all from PURPLE to ORANGE and for everyone to work out a way to peacefully coexist. When GREEN realises the difficulty for everyone to peacefully coexist, it can become frustrated and extreme in trying to justify the means. GREEN sees the consequences of ORANGE and BLUE's abuse of the earth, and wants to find a way to sustainability (Laubscher, 2014). GREEN can get lost in the search for egalitarian consensus (Crofts, 2008) and find it impossible to be decisive or action oriented (Beck and Cowan, 1996).

GREEN is sociocentric and relativistic, always living within the human element (Freeman, 2010). GREEN is enhanced by stressing the importance of human beings, responsiveness to feelings and within a caring socially responsible community (Beck and Cowan, 1996). GREEN is the first level to see spirituality in non-sectarian, non-religious terms - the first level to understand that spirituality is about the sense of personal meaning that we can all derive something from every aspect of life and nature (Laubscher, 2013). GREEN is worthy and caring, but is ultimately a fear-driven response; it tends to focus on a mixture of negativity and an

unattainable level of idealism. Whilst GREEN plays a critical role in awakening ORANGE and BLUE to the crisis, it seldom offers acceptable solutions (Beck and Cowan, 1996).

BEIGE, PURPLE, RED, BLUE, ORANGE and GREEN are first-tier 'MEMES, largely fear driven with limited views. RED is limited to the individual, while BLUE appeals to the group (Laubscher, 2013). ORANGE is characterised by individual, calculated risk taking (Laubscher, 2013), while GREEN relates to a component of the environment and to some extent to the future (Laubscher, 2014). The 'MEMES' different approaches to war illustrates their character: RED sees war as an exciting end in itself, almost like a sport to be relished; BLUE sees war as a necessary route to controlling and possibly converting the unbelievers; and ORANGE sees war as a strictly commercial enterprise to be commenced on the basis of a cost/benefit analysis. To GREEN, war is anathema (Beck and Cowan, 1996).

After GREEN, second-tier consciousness evolves, causing key shifts in consciousness. Fear is replaced by love as the key motivator. Individual perspective is massively wider and deeper; we are able to see everything in perspective in an interdependent web of space, time and spirituality (Beck and Cowan, 1996). The two 'MEMES that constitute the beginnings of a new paradigm are YELLOW and TURQUOISE. YELLOW is flexible and integrative, both as a structure and in its systemic processes, while TURQUOISE is holistic and global in structure, flowing in its process (Crofts, 2008; Beck and Cowan, 1996). These, in turn, will be followed by a CORAL 'MEME, which would probably emphasize a new kind of unification with an individualised intelligence. Other 'MEMES will follow as long as human nature and the complexities of existence evolve (Beck and Cowan, 1996).

The belief/value structures of BEIGE, PURPLE, RED, BLUE, ORANGE, GREEN, YELLOW and TURQUOISE and their respective organising principles are depicted in table 3.2 below. Table 3.2 indicates that BEIGE is instinct driven, PURPLE is safety driven, RED is power driven, BLUE is order driven, ORANGE is success driven, GREEN is people driven, YELLOW is process driven and TURQUOISE has a synthesis orientation. The different principles underlying each colour are also




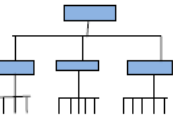
described. Table 3.2 indicates the survival principles of BEIGE, the tribal principles of PURPLE, the power-oriented principles driving RED and the authoritarian structure and rank principles of BLUE. This table also displays the strategic enterprise of ORANGE, the social and consensus-driven principles which drive GREEN and the systemic flow and changeability of YELLOW.

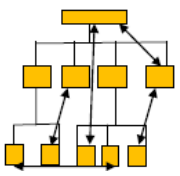
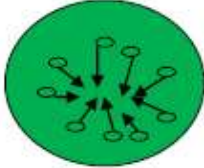
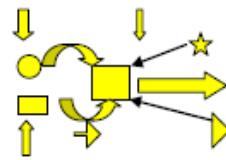

Table 3.2 indicates each value system with its organisational pattern and principles. Critical to understanding value systems is the fact that each value system is a result of the interaction between two forces; life conditions and the human coping mechanisms developed in response (Laubscher 2013). YELLOW is the first level of second-tier consciousness, partly in reaction to frustration at GREEN's unwillingness to come up with solutions (Crofts, 2008; Laubscher, 2013; Beck and Cowan, 1996). YELLOW sees all of the challenges that GREEN sees, but views them from a grand multi-dimensional time-space-spiritual perspective. And then, instead of protesting about them, simply sets about creating and implementing solutions. YELLOW is pragmatic and flexible enough to embrace solutions and engage with conversations at every level of the spiral. YELLOW does not wait to be asked or wait for permission (Crofts, 2008; Laubscher, 2014).

Further to table 3.2, YELLOW is not bound by first-tier fear - it is driven by purpose and guided by strong humanistic and inclusive values. In YELLOW we understand our spiritual role both in the development of our own consciousness and in supporting the growth of consciousness around us (Beck and Cowan, 1996). Freeman (2010) describes YELLOW as accepting, systemic and integrative with the ability to restore viability to a disordered world. YELLOW sees that there are two ways towards sustainability, namely catastrophic downsizing and starting again or balancing all of the levels of the spiral in consensual global governance (Crofts, 2008).

As indicated in table 3.2, YELLOW is not interested in recognition unless it might facilitate its task (Crofts, 2008). YELLOW is not concerned with status or comparisons, does not get involved in criticism or controlling behaviour, but sees every experience as an opportunity to learn.

Table 3.2: The belief/value structures and their respective organising principles (adapted from Beck and Linscott, 1991).

Organising structure	Colour code	Description	Organisational principle	Principles
	BEIGE	Band	Instinct driven	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Survival driven and herd like</li> <li>-Strong protect weaker members</li> <li>-Group band together for mating and food gathering</li> </ul>
	PURPLE	Tribe	Safety driven	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Circular tribal structure</li> <li>-Led by elders</li> <li>-Roles determined by kingship, sex, age, ancestry</li> <li>-Rigid preservations of culture</li> <li>-Custom demands obedience to elders/leader</li> </ul>
	RED	Empire	Power driven	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Power oriented, strongest survives</li> <li>-Most powerful person makes decisions</li> <li>-Big boss directs work bosses who drive the masses</li> <li>-Downward communication</li> </ul>
	BLUE	Authority structure	Order driven	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Rigid structure/rank rules</li> <li>-Person with appropriate position and power makes decisions</li> <li>-Divine authority speaks through secular authority</li> <li>-Communication down and horizontally across classes</li> </ul>

Organising structure	Colour code	Description	Organisational principle	Principles
	ORANGE	Strategic enterprise	Success driven	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Bureaucratic and status oriented</li> <li>-Person with delegated authority makes decisions</li> <li>-Distribution of specific amount of responsibilities</li> <li>-Communication down, up and across</li> </ul>
	GREEN	Social network	People driven	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Organisation of equals for mutual benefit</li> <li>-Little concern with status or privilege</li> <li>-The people make decisions as a group</li> <li>-Frequent communication in all directions</li> <li>-Emphasis on consensus, sensitivity to feelings and human needs</li> </ul>
	YELLOW	Systemic flow	Process oriented	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Project centred with changing functional leadership</li> <li>-Competent person makes decisions</li> <li>-Communication only as needed</li> <li>-May adapt from Tribe to Social network if appropriate to situation</li> </ul>
	TURQUOISE	Holistic organism	Synthesis oriented	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Synergy of all life forms/forces</li> <li>-Planetary concern above group interest</li> <li>-Reordered world for new meanings</li> <li>-Global order and renewal</li> </ul>



YELLOW is also concerned to further the central task of expanding human consciousness. YELLOW is the first tier to have the cognitive capacity to comprehend the complexity of the issues that we face in creating a sustainable society (Crofts, 2008). YELLOW understands the need for sustainability and realises that this is a people-centred challenge (Beck and Cowan, 1996). YELLOW is energised by conveying a sense of freedom, respect for discovery and fun in the context of completing important jobs (Lessem, s.a.; Crofts, 2008).

Also indicated in table 3.2, TURQUOISE complements and emerges alongside of YELLOW (Crofts, 2008). Where YELLOW leads on practicality while understanding creativity, TURQUOISE leads on creativity and understands the practical issues. YELLOW could be seen as the left brain with feelings, while TURQUOISE is the right brain with data. TURQUOISE sees every experience as a personal message to learn from and feels a deep sense of empathy and connection with all life. This connection gives TURQUOISE a powerful sense of intuition (Yeats, 2012). Freeman (2010) describes TURQUOISE as holistic, experimental and accepting of existential dichotomies, concerned with optimising positive energies and passions both within itself and within others. TURQUOISE often prefers to think, plan and communicate visually or musically rather than verbally, which might be the preference of YELLOW (Beck and Cowan, 1996). TURQUOISE realises the importance of sustainability and the fact that sustainability is first and foremost a spiritual challenge (Crofts, 2008).

### **3.5 HUMAN NICHES**

Laubscher (2013) developed human niche theory as a natural expansion of Graves' work (1974), and spiral dynamics as postulated by Beck and Cowan (1996). Laubscher's (2013) contribution through human niche theory relates to how leaders in different settings can optimise their diverse workforce, how political systems can breed entrepreneurship and how productivity at the bottom of the pyramid can be stimulated. Viljoen (2014) refers to the human niches as archetypes or fractals - every niche has unique properties, making it uniquely different from other niches. Laubscher (2013) speaks of low and high human niche manifestations.



Ultimately, the roots of all these interpretations and manifestations of human niches, can be found in the statement view of Graves (1974), namely that the systems refer to bio-psycho-social-spiritual systems in individuals and cultures as they develop, as well as in the view of Beck and Cowan (1996), who describe the spiral as the invisible scaffolding in our unconsciousness. In this study, organisational culture and individual culture is positioned within human niche theory.

### **3.5.1 Description of the different human niches**

Colinvaux (1980) defined a niche as a specific set of capabilities for extracting resources, for surviving hazards, and competing, coupled with a corresponding set of needs. However, this definition does not take the thinking pattern of the individual into account. Colinvaux (1980) explains that our niches are what have changed since ancient times. We are no longer hunters or gatherers, but have become farmers and industrialists. Social unrest is a necessary consequence of changing a niche (Colinvaux, 1980).

According to Laubscher (2013) our thinking patterns have changed over time and new thinking patterns have led to new and different realities, extending the concept of human niches. Laubscher (2013) argues that people value different things because of different thinking systems, and these thinking patterns in the brain result in human niches. Viljoen (2014) contends that the way in which identity is defined should be explored in order to understand the human niche. The term “human niche” describes the areas in which people excel because of their questions of existence. Different human niches are a critical component of diversity (Viljoen, 2014b).

Human niches affect individuals, societies and organisations (Laubscher, 2013). As individuals or cultures moves up to a higher-order system, they transcend and include all lower-level value systems. Individuals, societies and organisations cannot skip a developmental stage (Dawlabani, 2013). For Viljoen and Laubscher (2014) the different human niches are less hierarchical in nature than they are for Graves (1978) and Beck and Cowan (1996). Viljoen and Laubscher (2014) see the different cultural human niches as cyclical and interactive, as well as linear and cumulative. Human niches are emerging waves, not rigid categories (Laubscher, 2013).

### 3.5.2 The first-tier human niches

#### 3.5.2.1 *BEIGE: The first-level human niche; “survival”*

In the BEIGE level of thinking systems all energy is directed towards survival through innate sensory abilities and instinctual relations. At this level, humans form loosely organised herd like structures that often change format (Laubscher, 2013). BEIGE is still active in all countries, but is especially visible in East Asia, Haiti, Egypt, the Middle East, Portugal and Brazil, in Indian slums and in squatter camps in South Africa (Laubscher, 2013). Laubscher (2013) explains that breeding patterns in society can be studied to understand how BEIGE develops. High population growth leads to an exponential increase in PURPLE. Limited economic resources systemically put pressure on changing living conditions. PURPLE therefore slips back to BEIGE. Viljoen and Laubscher (2014) emphasise that BEIGE is still alive and not extinct.

The impact of drugs should also be considered. Drug addicts often find themselves homeless and in BEIGE. Laubscher (2013) reminds us that the spiral describes a living system and changing life conditions will lead to adaptation. BEIGE is an individualistic system where the motto is self-expression to survive. When the person or culture solves the question of existence or survival, BEIGE gives way to the second-level system (Laubscher, 2013).

#### 3.5.2.2 *PURPLE: The second-level human niche; “our people”*

”To get lost, is to learn the way” (African proverb). Traditionally, it was believed that the emphasis in PURPLE is on survival, but unlike the BEIGE system, survival is achieved through banding together as a tribe. The PURPLE thinking system differs substantially from BEIGE. In PURPLE, people have the capacity to connect and form groups. Such community building does not only happen to hunt together in tribes as originally documented (Laubscher, 2013). Thus, the way in which identity is defined should be explored in order to understand the human niche (Viljoen, 2014).

In PURPLE, identity is defined in the interrelatedness with each other and with nature. Self is not identified as a separate entity, but in relation to the collective, resulting in a very real experience of nature and community. This connectedness

results in a deep realisation that everyone is part of a bigger system and that elements like the earth, plants, stars, moon and sun also have spirit. The seasons of the earth are celebrated through rituals as the rhythms of nature which directly impact the living experience in PURPLE. A very sacred or magical existence is the result of this thinking system. Ritual is at the order of the day (Laubscher, 2013).

PURPLE is a collective system, where individuals sacrifice the self for the family, the clan, the leader, the union or the group. The group is typically organised in a circular form with males and females serving the needs of a typical male elder, leader or father of the household. Ancestors play a vital role here as the future is directly impacted by the blessings of those who have passed. The group preserves sacred objects, places, events and memories and observes the traditional rites of passage, the seasonal cycles and tribal customs (Laubscher, 2013).

Laubscher (2013) relates the story of Boshier, who spent 20 years in the African bush. Boshier knew that in certain parts of Africa the same word was used for both “yesterday” and “tomorrow”. The present moment was the centre of time. “The distance from the present is more important than the direction” (Watson, 1982:118). Past and present are not seen as opposites, but merely as more remote forms of the present. This makes the ancestors very real.

Teams in professional sports, the following of heavy metal bands and corporate tribes are manifestations of PURPLE. Wealth is divided communally, land and territory has a sacred meaning, and barter and subsistence are the order of the day. PURPLE does not ask economic or materialistic questions. Members of PURPLE simply want to have a better life for their children, good shoes and a dignified burial. Only when changing life conditions ask of PURPLE to adapt or die, will this thinking system shift. The boundaries of this system begin to open up as members start to trust the outside world and their children start to interact with the complexity around them. Individuals break free in an attempt to identify self and find them in the next, individualistic system which is RED (Laubscher, 2013).

The future view of PURPLE is very short. Therefore, from an organisational perspective, measurements should be weekly. PURPLE will sacrifice self now for the wishes of the chiefs/spirits/person in charge. Sport is not natural to PURPLE. PURPLE prefers argument and/or debate where everybody has their say and where the chief/boss makes the ultimate decision (Laubscher, 2014).

According to Laubscher (2013:147), the beauty in PURPLE's and RED's constructive energy is not acknowledged. PURPLE asks: "How can I sacrifice for my tribe, my community or my family?" This question of existence becomes the driving force behind behaviour. PURPLE excels at family-oriented events, community relations and tribal rituals; such individuals are profound storytellers and use metaphor with great skill. PURPLE individuals read human niches more accurately than any other first-tier niche – they do this co-consciously; they react to it (Laubscher, 2013). Laubscher (2013) reiterates that tribe is not equal to black and can be organised according to matrilineal, patrilineal, cognatic (non-unilineal) or even a mixed organisation.

Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) summarised the worldview of societies. Historically, the human niches for Africa are PURPLE and RED cores trapped in BLUE boundaries imposed by colonial Europeans. According to Laubscher (2013), Africa consists of a PURPLE dominant core, ruled by a RED despot. High BLUE is rejected as colonial, while low BLUE has difficulties with high RED (Laubscher, 2013).

Viljoen and Laubscher (2014) emphasise the wisdom of the tribal institution. Great things can be learnt about authority, community and leadership from tribal structures. Western managers and leaders can study the self-organising nature of tribal ways and apply this learning to other social systems. Leaders must learn when to speak in digital format – numbers and bullets – and when to speak in stories (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014). PURPLE tells stories and functions in an analogous manner (Viljoen, 2014a). When dealing with PURPLE leaders should listen with their eyes closed and speak in colours (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014). Relationships must be built first - thereafter people can work together (Viljoen, 2014b).

In figure 3.1 below Laubscher (2013) describes PURPLE interrelatedness in the human-, physical-, and sacred/spiritual domain. In working with PURPLE people we are beholden to employ symbolism, metaphor and parables rather than describe the unutterable (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014). The sub-components of the human domain rotate around people relations, family relations, rules of behaviour and ceremonial or ritual behaviour (Viljoen, 2014b). The physical plane of African PURPLE revolves around a sense of connection or groundedness with the earth, animals, sky and land. The third domain – sacred or spiritual – relates to the ability to connect with magic, ancestors, stories and time orientation (Laubscher, 2013).

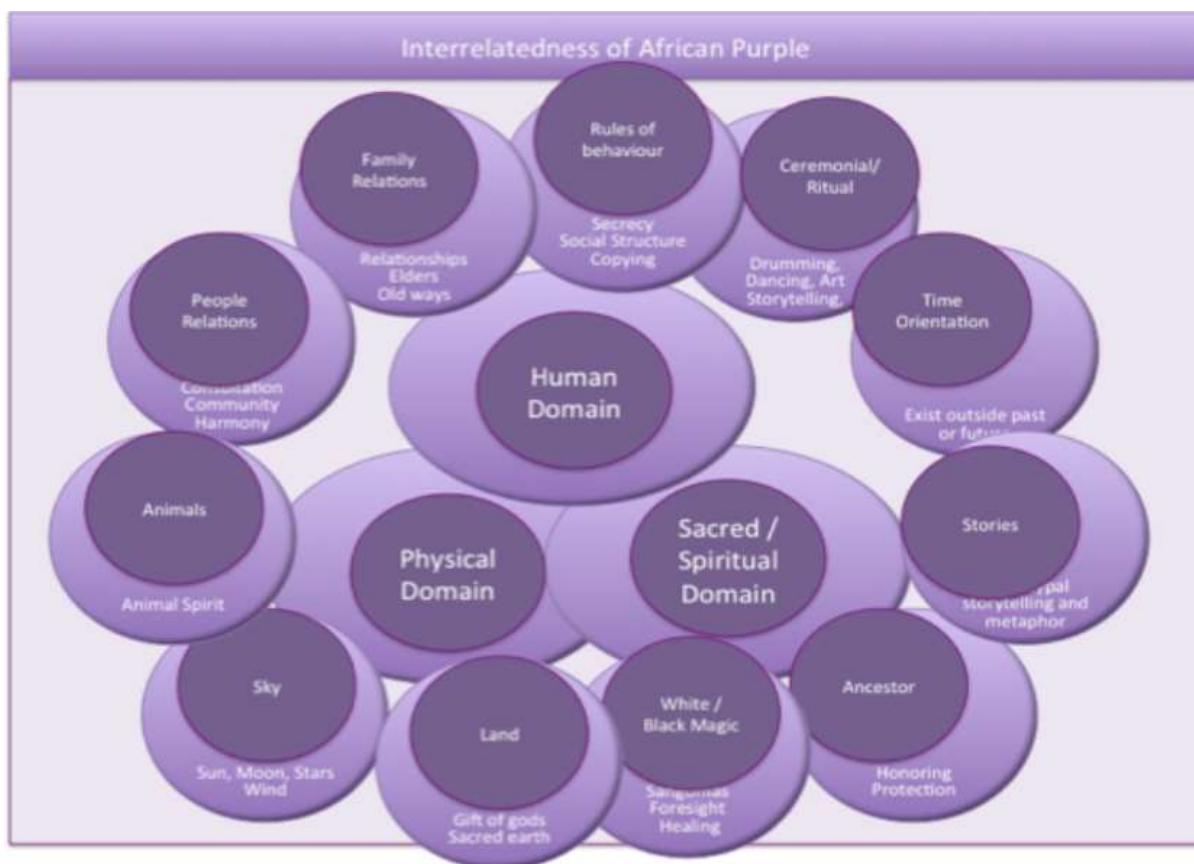


Figure 3.1: A comprehensive view of the interrelatedness of African PURPLE (Laubscher, 2013:228).

Figure 3.1 indicates the importance of consultation, community and harmony with people relations. The significance of family relations through relationships with elders as well as rules of behaviour and ceremonial rituals such as drumming, dancing and storytelling is also emphasised. The sacred or spiritual domain consists of white or

black magic, ancestors and stories. Laubscher (2013) emphasises that every human niche has a gift - the niche of PURPLE is sacred, collective humanness.

PURPLE is a copying learning system; PURPLE hears the tone of your voice and looks at your body language. When working with PURPLE, leaders must know that what you do is more important than what you say (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014). PURPLE does not feel guilt but shame. Asking right or wrong questions is not helpful; it is better to remind PURPLE people of what their parents would want (Laubscher, 2014).

### 3.5.2.3 *RED: The third-level human niche; “visible risk”*

RED is an expressive individualistic thinking system and represents the first emergence of real and effective individual action and ego. An individual in RED wants to break away from the constriction of PURPLE. Such an individual wants to stand tall, receive attention from others, demand respect and call the shots. In politics, while it may use the appearance of a participatory process, however, unhealthy RED is likely to corrupt the vote as the question that the thinking system presents is not how can we be fair or truthful, but how we can gain power. Low RED is displayed in the form of conflict, aggression and corruption. High RED is hero-like. This wonderful human energy is needed to breathe life into a subdued PURPLE workforce. The innate ability to take action is visually mirrored in behaviour and results in people who portray a sense of always being in control (Laubscher, 2013).

Nowadays, the social uprisings that are broadcast daily on international news channels can be explained as RED breaking away from PURPLE. These uprisings are often suppressed, not allowing the maturation that is so critical for RED to become highly functional. In RED structures, the person with the most power is viewed as the leader. Rebel groups and unions often have RED leadership. The RED human niche can take society out of PURPLE and create truly proactive humans. Low RED is selfish, predatory and violent (Laubscher, 2013).

Instant gratification and individual power determine RED's strength. RED also has a limited future view and members spend everything they have today; expressing the

self now impulsively (Viljoen, 2014b). RED seeks the ruthlessness of power and thrives on impulsive and uncontrollable acts, not understanding the misuse of power. Individuals in RED require targets and not goals; RED is unable to relate to goals. Again, these targets should be managed monthly (Laubscher, 2014). Goals have meaning in BLUE, but not in RED or PURPLE (Laubscher, 2013).

Tribal societies have to go through RED to reach the next stage of democracy - facilitating this transition is one of the greatest challenges today. RED leaders often hold on to power. However, in high RED the person is ready to let go, as power no longer serves him or her. The next stage can then be ushered in (Laubscher, 2013).

#### 3.5.2.4 *BLUE: The fourth-level human niche; “stabiliser”*

Traditionally it was thought that the BLUE level of thinking systems is the beginning of what most people regard as civilisation, a statement that somewhat belittles both PURPLE and RED people. BLUE is also often described as the truth force because it is organised around absolute beliefs in one right way and obedience to authority. BLUE is a sacrificial system, where individuality is sacrificed to the transcendent cause, truth or righteous pathway. BLUE believes that righteous living produces stability now and guarantees future rewards which are impulsively controlled through guilt. In BLUE, everybody has his or her proper place. Laws, regulations and discipline build character and moral fibre. Education is handed down from authority (Laubscher, 2014; Viljoen, 2014b).

BLUE sacrifices the self to gain later, making BLUE risk adverse. Laubscher (2013) describes BLUE as saintly, absolutistic and stabilising. Viljoen (2014a) refers to the effectiveness, efficiencies, compliance and reliability of highly functional BLUE. In contrast, low BLUE follows rules without thinking about it. BLUE’s organising principle is structural, and different hierarchical levels of authority are contracted, followed and respected (Laubscher, 2013).

Low BLUE can be intolerant, rigid, authoritarian, punitive and callous. BLUE individuals can work in one place for their entire life; this is perceived as stability. High BLUE has a strong sense of justice, procedures and order while being



systematic and well organised. Goal setting works for BLUE because it starts to think about future rewards. All religious systems were developed in BLUE (Laubscher, 2014). Beliefs are not only rallying flags, but also symbols of emotionality (Bloom, 2000). The absolutistic nature of BLUE becomes claustrophobic in high BLUE. This paves the way for the fifth-level human niche, once again as an individualistic expressive system (Laubscher, 2013).

#### 3.5.2.5 *ORANGE: The fifth-level human niche; “calculated risk”*

At this point, the stronger and more enterprising members of the group realise that they are being held back by adhering to the rules and procedures of the group, and better results are possible through individual action. For the first time, traditional religion is challenged. ORANGE believes in better living through technology, with the main idea being that we can shape, influence, promote progress and make things better through the use of scientific methods, quantification, trial and error and a search for better solutions (Beck and Cowan, 1996). In this thinking system, innovation, progress and success are important. ORANGE seeks to manipulate the world's resources in the most efficient and effective manner. ORANGE is optimistic, risk-taking, and self-reliant. It is the human niche of material prosperity through merit. While BLUE looks to the past, ORANGE looks to the future. ORANGE is not risk adverse but has an enterprise and calculated risk mentality (Laubscher, 2013, 2014; Viljoen 2014b).

ORANGE decision making is based on bottom-line results. Options are tested to see which works best. Achieving the desired outcome is vitally important. An ORANGE economic system is symbolised by the Western capitalistic ideology (Dawlabani, 2013). Low ORANGE is materialistic and opportunistic while high ORANGE is successful, especially in conquering the financial world (Laubscher, 2013, 2014). The world has been conquered through technology-based competition, but the good life remains unfulfilling. The consequences of not caring for the environment come to light, and the absence of the spiritual element becomes more apparent. ORANGE's desire to conquer becomes empty, preparing the ground to usher in the next human niche (Beck and Cowan, 1996).



### 3.5.2.6 *GREEN: The sixth-level human niche; “inclusive”*

The GREEN thinking system appears in the quest for inner peace and human connection; inclusivity and connectedness become the highest values. The well-being of all the people is a critical consideration. GREEN, unlike ORANGE, wants to sacrifice self, now, for both self and others, for humanity. GREEN responds to the lack of internal fulfilment by seeking peace with the inner self and exploring the more caring and spiritual dimensions of humanity. When outwardly directed, the ideal GREEN social organisation is the network, governed by consensus-decision making (Laubscher, 2014). The role of GREEN is to renew humanity’s spirituality, to bring harmony and to focus on the enrichment of human development. GREEN often dislikes conflict, because all opinions are valued. This does mean that GREEN can paralyse itself (Laubscher, 2013). The RED human niche really plays havoc with GREEN’s emotions. Hence GREEN should not enter into negotiations with RED if it does not understand the RED human niche (Viljoen, 2014a).

Ownership of resources remains private, but heavily taxed and regulated. Awareness of the environment, health of the planet and workers, is woven into every public and private decision (Beck, 2013). The knowledge economy is a contemporary manifestation of the early life conditions of GREEN. Rooted in the World Wide Web’s undeclared mandate to democratise access to information, the knowledge economy redefines the values of the sixth-level system as it matures. GREEN is known for being overly permissive, especially with RED, and has trouble dealing with the harsher realities of life (Laubscher, 2014). The warm, human aspirations of GREEN wear thin in the face of the realities of complex social problems. The lack of solutions through group effort gives way to individual initiative again and the upward journey on the spiral continues at a much higher level of complexity, now in the second-tier system. A quantum leap in terms of thinking patterns happen and a second tier of thinking systems emerge (Viljoen, 2014a, Laubscher, 2013).

### 3.5.3 The second-tier human niches

#### 3.5.3.1 *YELLOW: The seventh-level human niche; “systemic/functional”*

Similar to the first human niche in the second tier, YELLOW is concerned with survival, but this time the focus is on survival of the self and of all others. This niche is concerned with functionality and grapples with the problems of the universe (Viljoen, 2014b). It is an individual and expressive thinking system, taking many of the healthy expressions of GREEN, ORANGE, BLUE, RED and PURPLE and integrating them into a more effective system (Beck, 2013). It recognises the different evolutionary stages and works to unblock hurdles standing in the way of a healthy systemic flow for all of humanity, with the understanding that chaos and change are a natural part of the process (Laubscher, 2013).

Leaders should design interventions from YELLOW (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014; Viljoen, 2014b). Dawlabani (2013) believes that leadership development should be focused on enhancing YELLOW thinking. YELLOW thinking assists with large-scale transformation. YELLOW looks at the cultural content of each human niche in the first tier and is able to design policies that take on the form of an indigenous ecosystem reflecting the culture’s human niche values. As YELLOW begins to spread and conditions change, it becomes apparent that individual approaches to global problems are less effective. At this point YELLOW begins to transition to the eighth and last known value system when there is an acceptance of the need for coordinated action to deal with the world’s problems (Laubscher, 2013).

#### 3.5.3.2 *TURQUOISE: The eighth-level human niche; “integral-holonic”*

To TURQUOISE, the world is a single, dynamic organism with its own collective mind, and the self is at the same time distinct but also a blended part of a larger, compassionate whole (Beck and Cowan, 1996). TURQUOISE is a highly complex thinking system (Viljoen, 2014b). Everything connects to everything else, and holistic, intuitive thinking and cooperative action are expected. A full-merit system of exchange recognises the fact that the totality and efficiency of serving the biosphere will replace all monetary forms of exchange (Laubscher, 2013).

The emerging science of bio-mimicry and its construct of an economic ecosystem provide an early glimpse into a futuristic TURQUOISE world. TURQUOISE can see the patterns in chaos, has fractal-like properties and is one with cosmic energy. The cosmos is viewed as the ecosystem that should be protected. This view may seem esoteric (Laubscher, 2013).

### **3.6 INTEGRATION OF HUMAN NICHES AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE**

The spiral identifies two tiers with a distinct jump between them. The fundamental difference between these tiers is that all the worldviews in the first tier are characterised by fear, while all the human niches in the second tier are based on love (Crofts, 2008). Beck and Cowan (1996) estimated that 98% of people live mainly in the first tier, which may explain why our reaction to events is often aggressive. In addition, each first-tier level finds it difficult to understand or value the others. As a result, communication with each other is also difficult (Laubscher, 2013; Crofts, 2008). Furthermore, the impact of the high failure rate for change (Beer and Nohria, 2000a; Gilley, *et al.*, 2009a, 2009b) as well as the reality of a couple of complex changes at any one point in time (Bareil, *et al.*, 2007) can be devastating for individuals in different human niches.

PURPLE does not ask commercial questions but asks how it can sacrifice for the tribe (Laubscher, 2013). RED asks how it can gain power, while BLUE asks how to sacrifice for the future. ORANGE wants to know how it can conquer the material world (Viljoen, 2014a; Laubscher, 2013). BLUE and ORANGE ways glide off PURPLE if not translated properly (Laubscher, 2013).

BLUE organisations fail to understand why procedures and strategies are not implemented optimally. PURPLE and RED are not understood. As a result the benefits of inclusivity, as described by Viljoen-Terblanche (2008), are not realised (Laubscher, 2013). Laubscher (2013) urges managers and leaders to be trained in understanding the many elements of diversity management as well as taught how to optimise PURPLE and RED thinking patterns. “We cannot change the human niche (thinking pattern) of an individual, and should not try to do so. We can however

create a climate in which people ask different questions and decide for themselves to do something in a different way” (Laubscher, 2013:160).

PURPLE is nurtured through observing rituals, finding reassurance and expressing a sense of enchantment in life’s mystery (Laubscher, 2013; Viljoen, 2014a). RED is excited by preserving stories of company heroes and celebrating feats of conquest, and by evidence of respect. BLUE is reinforced through appeals to traditions, fair treatment for all, and by honouring length of service and loyalty. ORANGE is exercised by displaying symbols of success, individuals being recognised for their achievements, and challenges for improvement (Crofts, 2008). GREEN is enhanced by stressing the importance of human beings, responsiveness to feelings, and within a caring socially responsible community. YELLOW is energised by conveying a sense of freedom, respect for discovery and fun in the context of completing important jobs (Beck and Cowan, 1996). This model can also help leadership to gain a deeper understanding of who to use as leaders, to perform what function and to achieve which goal (Beck and Cowan, 1996).

Different organisations occupy different positions on the spiral while different departments occupy different positions on the spiral. Individuals also occupy different positions on the spiral (Viljoen, 2014a). Managerial and leadership strategies should acknowledge this and manage and lead accordingly (Laubscher, 2013). The future view of PURPLE and RED is extremely short. Leadership strategies should recognise this and work within this knowledge (Laubscher, 2014).

Laubscher (2014) found that change will result in individuals regressing one level downwards. Hence, BLUE will drop to RED, RED will drop to PURPLE and so forth. According to Graves (1978), people who are under pressure are often driven by values different from those when they are relaxed. Dahl (2009) postulated that organisational change increases frustration and destabilises the organisation, which in turn increases employee stress and turnover.

The reality of different human niches at play in the organisation does not seem to be integrated into traditional organisational change literature. However, it would seem

that an understanding of human niches may assist organisations with change initiatives. Applying different communication methods and adapting organisational change procedures and strategies relevant to human niches could ensure a clearer translation of organisational objectives during change. An understanding of human niches could empower leadership to improve a shared understanding of each other, through the design and development of systems fitting the relevant coping mechanisms.

Change will always be characterised by certain emotions. However, human niches indicate that RED does not feel guilt, while PURPLE has an inherent need for safety (Laubscher, 2013). It could therefore be argued that the U-movement (Scharmer, 2007) does not take different human niches into consideration, focusing instead on the behaviour of BLUE. As organisations struggle to appreciate and account for the different thinking of human niches, successful organisational change becomes difficult.

It is critical that leaders first understand the impact that change has on their own functioning. Thereafter, they need to understand the impact that change has on the functioning of individuals. In the new world of work where change is prevalent the challenge is to communicate the necessary awareness and skills to all employees in order to optimise human behaviour (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008).

### **3.7 CONCLUSION**

More than 60% of people in Africa excel at a human niche that manifests gifts of relatedness, connectedness and spirituality. It would therefore seem that answers to old problems can no longer come from Western minds. Africa holds specific world wisdoms relating to humanity (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014). Leaders must re-think ways to focus PURPLE. Organisations must find ways to re-introduce spirituality into the workplace.

Human niche theory (Laubscher, 2013) explains and relates to individual levels of consciousness, different value systems and different thinking systems. In the organisational change context, levels of consciousness seem particularly

appropriate. Individuals will ultimately be responsible for successful or unsuccessful change. Raising individual levels of consciousness may aid the attainment of sustainable change.

The next chapter focuses on the research methodology. The research background and design as well as data analysis and coding will be discussed. The researcher also outlines the proposed research and sampling design, data collection and data coding.

## **CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The main purpose of this research was conceptualised around a change framework to assist organisations with successful and sustainable organisational change. In addition this research attempted to gain an in-depth understanding of organisational change, leadership, the individual and organisational change process in order to design such a conceptual framework of organisational change and leadership. Hence feelings, thought processes and emotions played an important part. In terms of the research aims discussed in chapter one, coupled with the nature of this research problem, the researcher adopted various qualitative data gathering methods and thereafter followed a grounded theory approach towards analysis.

Chapter one discussed the research philosophy. The researcher adopted a constructivist stance towards data collection and theory development. The emerging themes were developed further and built upon through a methodology of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006). This methodology seemed applicable as the primary purpose was to allow the research findings to emerge from themes in the raw data without restraint by means of structured methodologies (Jackson, 2000). Since theory creation was a main aim of this research, such an approach was deemed appropriate.

This chapter explores the research methodology adopted in this study. The research background and design as well as data analysis and coding will be discussed. The proposed research and sampling design, data collection and data coding will also be outlined.

### **4.2 RESEARCH STRATEGY**

The adopted research strategy was selected in support of the research aim and an attempt was made to answer the research questions. A qualitative research approach was followed, supported by the grounded theory methodology.

#### **4.2.1 Qualitative research approach**

Qualitative research comprises one of the two major approaches to research methodology (Coldwell and Herbst, 2004; Khan, 2014), which broadly means that the research findings are not subjected to formal quantification or quantitative analysis (Coldwell and Herbst, 2004). While the focus of qualitative research is on quality – a term referring to the essence of something (Berg, 1998) - qualitative approaches focus on phenomena that occur in real-world settings and involve studying those phenomena in their entire complexity (Leedy and Ormrod, 2008:147; Khan, 2014). The literature provides a wide range of qualitative research techniques which may be represented on a continuum from less to more structured (Adler and Adler, 1987; Cooper and Schindler, 2011).

Burns and Grove (2001:19) described a qualitative approach as “a systematic subjective approach used to describe life experiences and situations to give them meaning”. Qualitative research focuses on the experiences of people, while emphasising individual uniqueness (Parahoo, 1997). As a form of social enquiry, qualitative research focuses on the way people interpret and make sense of their experience and the world in which they live (Holloway and Wheeler, 2002). Qualitative studies support the exploration of behaviour, perspectives, experiences and feelings of people, while fostering an understanding of these elements (Holloway and Wheeler, 2002; Polit, *et al.*, 2001).

According to Sofaer (1999), qualitative research is relevant to management research because such research emphasises an understanding of complex, interrelated and/or changing phenomena. Qualitative methods provide rich descriptions of complex phenomena, but also prove useful in the construction of theories or conceptual frameworks (Moustakas, 1994).

Qualitative research is concerned with the meaning of a phenomenon rather than the frequency thereof in its social context (Cooper and Schindler, 2011; Van Manen, 1990), involving an in-depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons why these behaviours manifest (Patton, 1990; Morgan, 1979). Hence qualitative research



focuses on the why and how of a topic and not on the what, where and when, which is provided by quantitative research data (Patton, 1990).

According to Lee (1999), qualitative research is suited to theory creation and quantitative research is better suited to theory testing. Qualitative methods can assist the researcher to obtain intricate details about phenomena such as feelings, thought processes and emotions, which are difficult to extract through more conventional research methods (Leedy and Ormrod, 2008). Further, Munhall (2011) states that a qualitative method boasts flexibility that is essential for an inductive approach to knowledge finding.

The researcher assumed that multiple realities and truths may co-exist because of sets of overlapping worldviews (Lessem and Schieffer, 2010). Qualitative research tends to be inductive and supports multi-process interactions and theory generation (Saunders, *et al.*, 2003). The ontological and methodological assumptions of the researcher in this study thus called for a qualitative research approach.

Grounded theory was the chosen methodological approach (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Leedy and Ormrod, 2008; Lessem and Schieffer, 2010). Grounded theory is a systematic qualitative research methodology which emphasise theory generation from data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Adopting a qualitative research approach, supported by grounded theory methodology may support emerging theory. Grounded theory will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

Emerging theory, in turn may support the development and/or evolution of a conceptual framework (Charmaz, 2006) for organisational change and leadership. A conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership is a primary objective of this study in order to provide a practical roadmap for organisations and leaders to follow during times of change.

#### **4.2.2 Grounded theory**

Grounded theory has systematic procedures for data collection, analysis and theorising whose main purpose is to generate new theory or conceptual propositions

(Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The underlying assumption of grounded theory is the complexity of social phenomena which subsequently require flexibility and creativity (Lee, 1999; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Glaser and Strauss (1967) developed grounded theory as a methodological approach to generate theory inductively and grounded in empirical data through a process of constant comparison analysis. The goal of this approach is to generate a theory that explains how an aspect of the social world works. The purpose of grounded theory is thus to develop a theory that emerges from and is therefore connected to the very reality that the theory is developed to explain (Ke and Wenglesky, 2010).

According to Creswell (2009:13, 229), grounded theory is “a qualitative strategy of inquiry in which the researcher derives a general, abstract theory of process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants in a study”. This process involves using multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationships of categories of information (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1998).

Grounded theory investigates real-world actualities, and data is generally collected through interviews (Allan, 2003). Leedy and Ormrod (2008) concur, stating that the major purpose of grounded theory is to begin with data and use it to develop theory. The term “grounded” refers to the idea that theory emergence is derived from and grounded in the collected data (Allan, 2003; Lessem and Schieffer, 2010). Hoflund (2013) however, admits that grounded theory is hard to master, and requires patience, flexibility and the ability to tolerate ambiguity and time.

Grounded theory is not confined to any one lens (Holton, 2009) and therefore supports the ontological and epistemological stance of the current research. The researcher adhered to the procedures of grounded theory, but remained flexible because of the complexities at play in the topic of organisational change and leadership. Grounded theory supports the emphasis on views, feelings, beliefs and assumptions, rather than on methods of research (Charmaz, 2006). A Stoic ontology and social constructivist epistemology are congruent with this approach.

The researcher followed the systematic and analytical procedures as set out by Strauss and Corbin (1998) and was guided towards the systematic development of a conceptual framework explaining the processes, actions, interactions and emotions experienced during organisational change and the impact of leadership on these. The researcher personally transcribed interviews, allowing for deeper exposure and understanding of the data (Hoflund, 2013). Procedures (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) were augmented through diagramming (Charmaz, 2006) at the data integration stage. The major elements of grounded theory were utilised (Legewie and Schervier-Legewie, 2004), namely theoretical sensitive coding, that is, generating theoretically strong concepts from the data to explain the phenomenon researched; theoretical sampling, that is, deciding who to interview or what to observe next, according to the state of theory generation, which implies starting data analysis with the first interview, and writing down memos and hypotheses early on; and the need to compare phenomena and contexts in order to strengthen the theory.

In this study, a literature review sensitised the researcher (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). A Straussian approach towards literature was followed by means of data collection. Thereafter, data analysis utilised the constant comparative method for generating and analysing the data (Egan, 2002).

### **4.3 SAMPLING DESIGN**

Sampling enables one to reduce the amount of data collected by considering data from a subgroup in the target population (Saunders, *et al.*, 2003; Cooper and Schindler, 2011). Grounded theory suggests the use of theoretical sampling (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

#### **4.3.1 Theoretical sampling**

The research population is the total group of people under investigation (Coldwell and Herbst, 2004). However, because the current research followed a qualitative approach, quality was deemed to be of greater importance than quantity. Hence this study utilised theoretical sampling. Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the researcher jointly collects, codes, and

analyses data and decides what data to collect next and where to find such data in order to develop a theory as it emerges (Glaser, 1978a, 1978b).

Theoretical sampling has been defined as a process of data gathering driven by concepts derived from the evolving theory and based on the concept of comparison, whose purpose is to go to places, people and events that will maximise opportunities to discover variations between concepts and to densify categories in terms of their properties and dimensions (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1998:201). Charmaz (2006) concurs, by defining theoretical sampling as seeking pertinent data that can be used to develop the emerging theory.

Following Strauss and Corbin (1998), in the current research, data collection was directed through theoretical sampling, where sampling was based on theoretically relevant constructs which enabled the researcher to select subjects that would maximise the potential to discover as many dimensions and conditions relating to the phenomenon as possible. Theoretical sampling is strategic, specific and systematic with the ultimate intention of elaborating and refining theoretical categories (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), the researcher who wishes to generate theory cannot determine beforehand how many groups will be studied and to what degree. Glaser (1992:102) posits that “groups are chosen as they are needed, rather than before the research begins”. Theoretical sampling cannot be planned before embarking on the study as specific sampling decisions evolve during the research process (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). “The analyst who uses theoretical sampling cannot know in advance precisely what to sample for and where it will lead him”. “It is never clear cut for what and to where discovery will lead. It is ongoing” (Glaser, 1978a:37).

Prior to starting the research, the researcher considered leaders and individuals who had recently been subjected to organisational change in an attempt to determine which individuals and groups could be interviewed. The researcher used theoretical

sampling to identify subsequent participants and to add sources as the research progressed.

The purpose of theoretical sampling is saturation of categories (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 2006; Leedy and Ormrod, 2008). As per Cooper and Schindler (2011), theoretical saturation was understood to mean that additional information collected no longer shed new insights into the subject matter. Dey (1999) challenged the notion of theoretical saturation, stating that instead of producing categories saturated by data, one should rather claim theoretical sufficiency and not saturation. Sufficient relevant data should thus be collected, instead of the researcher stating that he or she has exhaustively collected all data (Dey, 1999). The researcher in the current study recognised the subjectivity of the term “theoretical saturation” and did not claim to have totally achieved theoretical saturation. Since the researcher attempted to continue until themes had repeated themselves and until no new data had emerged, theoretical sufficiency would be likely to be achieved.

In this study, theoretical sampling was augmented by purposeful sampling where certain groups and individuals not necessarily directed by theoretical sampling were selected and interviewed to explore the depth of understanding, perceptions, perspectives and feelings relating to organisational change and leadership. Such data was purposefully solicited from particular participants (Glaser, 2005; Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

#### **4.3.2 Sample size**

Grounded theory sampling techniques must explicate the dimensional scope of the phenomenon of interest and enable comprehensive description of the trajectory of the phenomenon over time (Morse, 2012). Depending on the purpose and quality of data, Charmaz (2006) informs that a limited sample might be sufficient. Creswell (2009) views grounded theory as primarily based on a limited number of interviews, but does not challenge the use of a small sample. In a qualitative research methodology, because quality is more important than quantity, a carefully selected small sample may be more accurate than a less carefully selected large sample (Yin, 1994).

According to Charmaz (2006), there is no pre-definition of what the sample should be or how large it should be or what sites should/would be included. The current study followed a sampling design focused on theory construction. Hence, the sampling design was not directed towards quantity and/or population representativeness.

Eight in-depth interviews were conducted with senior leaders in manufacturing industries in South Africa. In-depth interviews were conducted with two CEOs, two ex-CEOs, three senior leaders and one divisional head, in an attempt to extract the breadth and depth of their knowledge on organisational change and leadership in the change process. All of the above individuals formed part of strategic change initiatives and were interviewed to understand organisational change and leadership from a strategy perspective. Data gathering methods will now be discussed.

The composition of focus group sessions was heterogeneous, comprising different individuals from different departments with a variety of opinions, backgrounds and actions. Four focus group sessions were conducted with senior managers and middle managers in a large manufacturing organisation in South Africa. Each focus group session comprised between six and seven individuals. The first focus group session comprised seven middle managers. The second focus group session comprised five middle managers and one senior manager. The third focus group session comprised two middle managers and five senior managers, and the last focus group session five middle managers and one senior manager.

These focus group sessions were formed through a combination of theoretical sampling, purposeful sampling and observations to ensure that all of the selected individuals had recently been subjected to, and actively involved in more than one change initiative. According to purposeful sampling, the focus groups comprised experts (individuals exceptionally knowledgeable on the topic of organisational change) as well as non-experts (individuals with information on organisational change, at an unknown level because of their recent organisational change experiences). Employees in Finance, HR and Information Technology were selected

as a result of recent changes which took place in these departments. These employees comprised experts and non-experts.

#### **4.4 PURPOSE OF VARIOUS DATA GATHERING METHODS**

Emig (1971) describes the value of a multi-model data collection method. The current research utilised a case study, in-depth interviews, focus group sessions, solicited data, field notes and observations to gather data relating to organisational change and leadership. Closely related to the above was the articulation of personal experience (Cooper and Schindler, 2011) which linked the topic of organisational change and leadership to the participants. Personal experiences assisted interviewees to articulate natural, emotional responses.

Figure 1.1 provides an outline of the data collection strategy which indicated a multi-model data collection method as comprising a case study, in-depth interviews, focus group sessions, solicited data, field notes and observations. The primary purpose of the case study was to provide context. The purpose of the in-depth interviews was to explore organisational change and leadership in depth in order to understand how individuals in the case study experienced change and leadership after being affected by change themselves. Focus group sessions explored a range of attitudes, opinions and behaviours, while observing a process of consensus and disagreement, which added contextual detail. Each of these data collection strategies will now be discussed in detail.

##### **4.4.1 Case study**

The objective of a case study is to obtain multiple perspectives of a single situation, event or process at a point in time or over a period of time (Cooper and Schindler, 2011). A case study may come from fieldwork, historical records, verbal reports or observations (Yin, 1981). The case study is a particularly suitable design for an analysis of process (Merriam, 1998).

Thomas (2011) defines a case study as the analysis of person, events, decisions, periods, projects, policies, institutions or other systems, holistically through one or more methods. The case as inquiry subject will be an instance of “a class of

phenomena that provides an analytical frame – an object – within which the study is conducted and which the case illuminates and explicates” (Thomas, 2011:511). Queen (2006) views case study research as a process of intensive investigation, extending over a period of time. Yin (2009) regards the case study as descriptive, exploratory or explanatory analysis of a person, group or event, which is used to explore causation in order to find underlying principles (Yin, 2009).

In this research, a case study as the research approach would facilitate exploration of the organisational change and leadership phenomena in context using a variety of data sources. This would ensure that issues would not be explored through one lens, but instead in terms of a multifaceted approach, allowing multiple facets of the phenomena of organisational change and leadership to be revealed and understood. Given the fact that organisational change and leadership are complex without a single, clear outcome, following a case study methodology seemed particularly applicable.

Yin (1994) underscores the strength of the case study method in terms of the inseparability of the phenomenon and the context, explaining that this method helps to address the how and why questions about real-life events via a variety of tools. Table 4.1 lists the criteria for a case study. As indicated in the table, all criteria were applicable to this study.

Table 4.1: Criteria for case studies (Adapted from Yin, 2009)

Criteria	Applicable to this study
The problem demands further conceptualisation	√
The problem requires the exploration of a phenomenon	√
The causal links of this problem are complex with no single, clear outcome	√
This problem intends to address the how and why questions of real-life events	√



Criteria	Applicable to this study
The problem is to determine the particular pattern of factors significant in a given case	√
The problem requires a holistic portrayal of experiences and results	√
Existing theory relating to the phenomenon of change seems inadequate	√

Table 4.1 indicates that the problem under study demands further conceptualisation, exploration and a holistic portrayal of experiences as existing theory seems inadequate. Furthermore, the problem is complex and addresses “how” and “why” questions. In the current research, use of a case study was deemed appropriate because the boundaries between the phenomena and context were unclear (Yin, 2009).

A case study can also be used to provide context, providing a more complete picture of situations, events or processes. As such, this study could provide more detailed information than what could be obtained through other methods. Through close collaboration between the researcher and participants, and allowing the latter to share their experiences, this study would take advantage of the case study methodology. Listening to the experiences of participants, learning about their views of reality and hearing their opinions would enable the researcher to better understand individual reactions to change and perceptions relating to organisational change and leadership. A combination of solicited data, field notes and observations would further enhance the case study, allowing multiple perspectives of a single situation, event or process to crystallise, while providing a comprehensive account of the phenomena under study.

The case study was conducted in the manufacturing industry and specifically in a South African automotive company, in departments that had recently undergone radical organisational change. The case would present three separate organisational

change incidents pertaining to radical change initiatives that had occurred in a large manufacturing company. The case study will be presented in chapter five.

#### **4.4.2 In-depth interviews**

“An individual in-depth interview is an interaction between an individual interviewer and a single participant” (Cooper and Schindler, 2011:172). In-depth interviews are commonly used in qualitative research to collect research data (Cooper and Schindler, 2011). A large number of qualitative studies rely extensively on the qualitative research methodology of in-depth interviews (Polkinghorne, 2005). The interview is generally seen as a study where data and findings are based on direct researcher-to-respondent conversation (Daniels and Cannice, 2004).

Knapp (1997) emphasises the value of emergent information which is introduced through interviews. There is also a possibility that knowledge that did not exist before may be co-created during interviews (Winkinson and Young, 2006). Hence, interviewing is part art and part science, during which explicit and tacit knowledge learnt from experience is used and developed (Ponterotto, 2006).

As per Cooper and Schindler (2011), the participants were chosen for the in-depth interviews not because their opinions were representative of the dominant opinion, but because their experiences and attitudes reflected the full scope or elements of the phenomena of organisational change and leadership. The purpose of the in-depth interviews was to extract from the participants relevant, rich knowledge and information pertaining to organisational change and leadership. The focus of the interviews and the specific questions asked would follow the constructivist approach. Based on a constructivist philosophy, the researcher would emphasise eliciting the participant’s definitions of terms, situations and events, and try to tap into his or her assumptions, implicit meanings and tacit rules (Charmaz, 2006).

The semi structured, in-depth interviews allowed participants to provide divergent opinions about the approach to change in their organisations. The semi structured in-depth interview schedule is attached in appendix D. Appendix C indicates the participant’s consent to act as a research subject.

Semi structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with subject matter experts throughout various industries in South Africa. Subject matter experts comprised two CEOs, two ex-CEOs three senior leaders and one divisional head from various industries. These industries included chemical (alcohol, food ingredients, rubber, and fertiliser), motor manufacturing, hospitality, technology and education (leadership training).

Confidentiality and anonymity were ensured and maintained throughout the interviews. Interviews lasted between 60 and 90 minutes and were recorded. The researcher took notes during the interviews, jotting down prominent issues, subjects and areas of focus. The interviews were transcribed within five days of the interview. A memo was written subsequent to each interview. If required, a follow-up meeting with the participant was arranged to ensure correctness and to clarify any items which required further elaboration.

#### **4.4.3 Focus group sessions**

A focus group is a panel of people (typically six to ten participants) who are guided in an exchange of ideas, feelings and experiences on a specific topic. Groups allow the exploration of surprise information and new ideas (Cooper and Schindler, 2011). Krueger and Casey (2000:5) define a focus group as “a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive non-threatening environment”.

In an interactive group setting, questions are asked and participants are free to engage with other group members (Krueger and Casey, 2000). Such an interactive group setting allows the researcher to study people in a more natural setting than the one-on-one interview. This method has a high apparent validity, is low in cost and is less time consuming than individual interviews (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Conversely, the researcher has less control over a group than in a one-on-one interview situation. Time may be wasted on issues irrelevant to the topic, and data may be difficult to analyse because the data may be either culture or topic specific or specialised within the context of the organisation.

Four focus group sessions were conducted in an interactive group setting. The discussion format was semi structured, questions were asked and participants were free to engage with other group members. The first focus group session comprised seven middle managers. The second focus group session comprised seven participants, five middle managers and one senior manager. Focus group session three was led with seven participants, namely two middle managers and five senior managers. The final focus group session included six participants, five middle managers and one senior manager. In total, the opinions of 26 participants were heard.

Confidentiality and anonymity were ensured and maintained throughout. The focus group sessions lasted between 50 and 60 minutes and were recorded. These sessions were transcribed within five days. A memo on the prominent issues and focus areas was written subsequent to each focus group session. If required, a follow-up meeting was arranged to ensure correctness and to clarify any items which required further elaboration.

The purpose of these focus group sessions was to extract relevant, rich knowledge and information pertaining to organisational change and leadership from a strategy perspective while understanding the impact of organisational change initiatives on individuals. To ensure free participation, the focus group sessions mixed participants from various departments. The participants were chosen because they had recently been involved in organisational change. As such, the researcher felt that their experiences and attitudes would reflect the scope of the issue under study. Appendix C indicates the consent to act as a research subject, and the interview questions are attached in appendix E.

#### **4.4.4 Solicited data**

Solicited data relates to company and project specific and strategy data. Solicited data in this study included company documents, schedules, memoranda, process discussions and meeting minutes, which the researcher had access to in her role as researcher. These documents were combined to provide information while adding rich texture to the collected data. The researcher compiled personal memos and

minutes during the period of study, which further contributed towards solicited data. This study presented data collected from solicited data in order to provide a comprehensive account of the phenomena under study.

#### **4.4.5 Field notes and observations**

During the period of study, the researcher compiled field notes that logged behaviours, activities, events and processes. These were further augmented by notes and documents recorded during the researcher's time as consultant. These field notes were used to produce meaning and understanding of the phenomena of organisational change and leadership. Such field notes included descriptive information on settings, actions, behaviours and conversations. Field notes also included reflective information, recording thoughts, insights, ideas, questions and concerns. These field notes assisted with probing questions during the in-depth interviews and focus group sessions.

The researcher observed how individuals were engaging in and reacting to organisational change. Observational methods allowed the researcher to collect data visually, listen and read. The researcher included a wide range of monitoring behavioural and non-behavioural activities and conditions (Cooper and Schindler, 2011). Non-behavioural observations included record analysis, physical condition analysis and physical process analysis. Behavioural analysis included nonverbal analysis, linguistic analysis and spatial analysis.

The researcher actively observed human interactions and behaviours during the period of study in general, and specifically during the in-depth interviews and focus group sessions. Observing the behaviour of employees helped the researcher to better understand verbal responses and contextualise responses. Through observations, further field notes were recorded on participant behaviour, the setting, the purpose, the social behaviour, the frequency and the duration of the phenomena of organisational change and leadership. This research presented data collected from field notes and observations in order to provide a comprehensive account of the phenomena under study.

## **4.5.1 DATA CODING AND ANALYSIS**

### **4.5.1 Data coding outline**

Another major component of qualitative research is the procedures used by the researcher to interpret and organise the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Because a grounded theory approach was adopted, the procedures of grounded theory were followed as much as possible and collected data were analysed using this systematic approach. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998) coding is an analytical process through which data is fractured, conceptualised and integrated to form theory. Data collection was directed towards saturation of the categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

Grounded theory coding is a process used to find and conceptualise the underlying issues in the data as the first step towards data analysis. Coding defines what the data is about and categorises the data into segments with a descriptive name, which simultaneously summarises and accounts for each piece of data (Allan, 2003; Charmaz, 2006). Coded information motivates the desire for more data, defined as theoretical sampling (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). According to Charmaz (2006), coding is the pivotal link between data collection and the development of emergent theory. Codes are the anchors that allow key points in the data to be gathered (Allan, 2003; Charmaz, 2006; Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

Coding is the process of defining what the data is about. A grounded theorist creates qualitative codes by defining what he or she sees in the data - the codes are emergent (Bryant and Charmaz, 2012). Coding is a form of content analysis to find and conceptualise the underlying issues among the “noise” in the data.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) describe flexible guidelines for coding data when engaging in grounded theory analysis, and propose a combination of open and axial coding to suggest relationships between categories. In the current study, open coding was used to form initial categories of information about the phenomenon being studied on the basis of the data gathered. This is “the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising, and categorising data” (Strauss and

Corbin, 1990:61). Axial coding was utilised to assemble the data in new ways after open coding. The researcher commenced with coding after the first interview.

#### *4.5.1.1 Open coding*

Open coding is the process of reducing the data to small sets of themes which appear to describe the phenomenon (Allan, 2003). During open coding, the data is scrutinised for commonalities which reflect categories or themes, which are then further examined for properties, specific attributes or subcategories (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

The researcher formed initial categories of information on organisational change and leadership from the data gathered. Initial categories were created by breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising the data. Data was fractured to allow emerging categories. Fracturing data into discrete parts further allowed for the comparison of similarities and dissimilarities.

The researcher categorised segments of data with a short name, summarising and accounting for each data piece. Each word, line or segment was named. Thereafter, focused selection commenced where the most frequent or significant codes were sorted, synthesised, integrated and organised.

#### *4.5.1.2 Axial coding*

In the next phase, the researcher made interconnections between categories and subcategories. Following Leedy and Ormrod (2007), the focus here was to determine more about each category, the conditions that gave rise to this category, the context of the category, the strategies followed and the consequence of these strategies.

Through a process of axial coding the researcher attempted to identify which types of phenomena, contexts, conditions and consequences were relevant to the research topic of organisational change and leadership. After fracturing the data during open coding, the researcher now assembled the data in new ways using axial coding.

The researcher sorted, synthesised and organised sets of data and reassembled the data after open coding. Using questions such as when, where, why, who, how, what and with what, helped the researcher to convert the text into concepts. The process of axial coding promoted the emergence of a conceptual framework to contain these newly developed concepts.

#### *4.5.1.3 Selective coding*

Through the continuous movement back and forth between data collection, open coding and axial coding, categories were refined and their interconnections established. Subsequent to the developed categories and identified concepts, selective coding was used to combine these categories and their interrelationships.

Through selective coding, the researcher established a core category, related the core category to other categories and validated their relationships. During selective coding, the researcher enhanced categories which needed deeper refinement. The result of this process of data collection and analysis was probably a substantive-level theory relevant to the topic of organisational change and leadership.

#### *4.5.1.4 Concepts, categories and theory*

Through the process of open, axial and selective coding, themes started to emerge. Thereafter, the researcher clustered codes together. These theoretical concepts offered an abstract understanding of the inter-relationships between codes and concepts and served as frames of reference and interpretation. Through concepts, the researcher created and explicated, organised and presented the data without attempting to discover order in the data.

Concepts were grouped and regrouped to find higher-order commonalities or categories. These concepts and categories guided the researcher towards the emergence of theory. The researcher remained aware of the importance of allowing the emergence of theoretical codes through a process of constant data comparison.



#### **4.5.2 Data analysis outline**

Data analysis was achieved through open, axial and selective coding, theoretical memoranda and theoretical sorting. This process continued until no new codes were generated, indicating data sufficiency. Interview questions were refined throughout the process to ensure that data analysis built towards a tentative theory. Theoretical coding conceptualised the underlying pattern of a set of empirical indicators in the data (Glaser, 1978a). The key themes became a guide for further collection and data analysis. Data analysis was further supported through constant data comparison, memoranda, sorting, outlining and writing.

##### *4.5.2.1 Constant comparative method*

Data analysis in grounded theory research involves a constant comparative method for generating and analysing data (Egan, 2002). Glaser and Strauss (1967) emphasise the importance of continuing the comparative process and of analysing extreme cases throughout the research process as a guide to theoretical sampling.

This study commenced with a research problem after which constant comparison took place against collected data. The collected data was transcribed, sorted and filtered to assist with the identification of categories and properties. The researcher constantly compared the data to generate theory to explain the situations and experiences of organisational change and leadership, while presenting possibilities for the development of a conceptual framework that would emerge from the situational research.

Throughout the process of constant data comparison, the researcher attempted to discover theory implicit in the data in order to gain insights into the phenomena of organisational change and leadership, which would ultimately be conceptualised into a change framework. The research questions remained unchanged throughout the constant comparison of data.

##### *4.5.2.2 Memoranda, sorting, outlining and writing*

The core stage of the process of generating theory is the writing of theoretical memos (Glaser, 1978a, 1978b). “Memos are the theorizing write-up of ideas about

codes and their relationships as they strike the analyst while coding” (Glaser, 1978a:83). Memo writing is the fundamental process of researcher/data engagement that results in a grounded theory (Lempert, 2007, 2012). Theoretical memoranda describe ideas about codes and their relationship in the evolving theory. Such memoranda can ultimately lead to broader concepts or ideas about the coherence of the data (Glaser, 1978a).

Memo writing assisted the researcher to transform the data into theory. Through sorting, analysing and coding of the raw data into memos, the discovery of emerging social patterns was facilitated. Through the use of memoranda, this thesis attempted to theoretically develop codes with absolute freedom. Memoranda writing helped the researcher to elevate the data to a level of conceptualisation. The writing of memoranda also assisted with the development of properties for each category and identified possible connections between categories. Memoranda writing also aided the integration of various categories, thereby locating the emerging theories with potentially more or less relevance.

#### *4.5.2.3 Conceptual ordering*

Conceptual ordering refers to the organisation of data into discrete categories according to their properties and dimensions, and then using descriptions to clarify the categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). They (1998) also discussed the rating of data according to a specified set of properties. According to Glaser (2005), sorting is a creative activity. Hand-sorting releases the creativity required to see theoretical codes in the memos. Locke (2001) and Goulding (2002) also underscore the importance of hand-sorting conceptual memos.

Subsequent to the integration and synthesis of categories in this study, hierarchical grading was done based on popularity. This assisted the researcher to determine those categories with the most relevance to organisational change and leadership. The researcher considered concepts from many perspectives, following the advice of Charmaz (2006) that theoretical sorting further assists with integration of the analytical process.

The researcher sorted the memoranda into batches and linked them to create a conceptual outline explaining the themes in the data. In this research, handwritten memoranda, mind maps, diagrams and sketches was used to unlock codes and categories. The researcher used hand-sorting to assist with the emergence of conceptual themes. As the research headed towards theoretical sufficiency, memoranda were sorted by similarities, connections and conceptual orderings. Such theoretical sorting led to the emergence of patterns in the data, while identifying any interrelatedness. The researcher concluded with conceptual elaboration once the relationships between individual concepts had emerged.

#### **4.6 ANTICIPATED PROBLEMS DURING DATA COLLECTION**

Excessive data can hamper analysis because the researcher may feel swamped, scanning instead of cognitively processing the vast number of transcripts. It may thus become difficult to discern and sift through piles of substandard data (Morse, 2012). This concern underscores the importance of purposeful sampling, inviting research participants according to their knowledge of the topic under investigation to ensure rich, relevant data from the outset.

Related to the above, is the risk of inundation. The researcher may be unable to transcend the descriptive detail, and as a result miss the true conceptual power of grounded theory methodology (Holton, 2012). In the current study, the grounded theory method of memo-writing analytical thoughts in tandem with the coding process was utilised to facilitate and/or mitigate this conceptual transcendence. As the researcher's conceptual coding skills developed and improved, she was able to more readily dispense with the initial descriptive codes and employ conceptual-level coding at the start of the open coding process (Charmaz, 2006).

A researcher's social location may affect the research process (Cooper and Schindler, 2011). Through the process of qualitative research, the researcher inevitably takes the words, perspectives, experiences, personal and cultural stories from respondents (Lempert, 2012). This could invariably cause bias. However, such bias can be overcome through the practice of give and take (Lempert, 2007) in research practice. Give and take is a conceptual framework where who will give, who

will take, and what will be given and taken, is ever present as an interactional subtext between those researched and the researcher (Lempert, 2007).

Through purposeful sampling, the researcher mitigated the risk of excessive data. Memo-writing reduced the risk of inundation. The researcher followed Unisa's ethical guidelines, while ensuring the confidentiality of the participants.

#### **4.7 CONCLUSION**

The purpose of this chapter was to elaborate on the research design and chosen research methodology. Qualitative research and grounded theory were described as the methodology of choice. This included a discussion of the three major elements of grounded theory, namely theoretical sampling, constant comparison and theoretical sufficiency. Data coding, concepts, categories and theory were also outlined. The data gathering and analysis techniques were also touched on together with the application of a constant comparison of data. The literature on qualitative methodology was studied in order to apply the correct methodology to this specific research project.

Chapter five presents a case study based on three organisational change initiatives. This case study discusses the implementation of a new information system, the attempted installation of a system to measure labour efficiency and the implementation of a work style innovation initiative, directed towards the creation of a more agile workforce.

## **CHAPTER 5: THE CASE OF FLEET, TOTAL WORKING TIME AND WORK STYLE INNOVATION**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter will present a case study pertinent to organisational change and leadership. This case study relates three separate organisational change initiatives pertaining to radical changes which occurred in a large manufacturing company and involved the monitoring and recording of individual experiences and/or observations of an organisational change situation. The purpose of the case study was to gain an in-depth situational understanding of those involved in the change process.

The background to the case study was a large manufacturing company in South Africa. This company had started off as a family business that had grown steadily. Majority shareholding had been sold to an overseas affiliate. Subsequently, various changes had been implemented on strategic, functional and operational levels. A major change point was entry into the export market which, in turn, required global competitiveness. This company is currently subject to cutting-edge industry competition, which further necessitates frequent changes.

The complexities at play within the various situations as well as the influence of different individuals on the issues under discussion will be dealt with. Having the advantage of hindsight while being relevant in the present, would be advantageous. This chapter also highlights the influence of the passage of time. In the context of this research, the installation of a new fleet system, the attempted installation of a total working time (TWT) system and the implementation of a work style innovation (WSI) initiative will place the organisational change process and leadership under a magnifying glass.

The fleet initiative involved the removal and replacement of the department's information system. The TWT initiative involved major changes to improve production line efficiency, coupled with the introduction of labour efficiency measurement tools. The purpose of the WSI project was to change the desktop interface for electronic communication in order to create a more agile workforce.

## **5.2 THE FLEET INITIATIVE**

This section examines the implementation of a new information system, which comprised radical change in the Fleet Department. From a project management perspective, this project followed the PRINCE (projects in controlled environments) methodology which encompasses high-level management and project control. PRINCE is a process-driven approach based on seven principles which include business justification, learn from experience, defined roles and responsibilities, management by stages and management by exception.

While computer software can greatly enhance daily operations and hugely reduce administrative burdens, paradoxically, such systems will only be as effective as the people using them. Implementing radical change successfully can be a daunting task if resources are limited, ill-informed and/or not actively encouraged to participate.

Cost justifications were done in 2008, redone in 2009 and again in 2010. The 2010 cost justification was accepted and the project approved. Initial development costs amounted to R1, 5 million, but these costs were grossly overrun.

### **5.2.1 Contextual evolution**

The physical setting of this part of the case study was at a manufacturing plant in South African, specifically the Fleet Department. The main task of this department is to issue employees and departments with company, pool and tool vehicles across four physical sites. This department consists of operations at the assembly plant and at headquarters. Various stages and departments are involved before an employee or department is issued with a new vehicle, resulting in a complex and involved process.

Typically, an employee or department will initiate the process by interacting with the Human Resource (HR) Administration department, which will check affordability and availability before physically capturing the vehicle request onto the system. Vehicle orders then follow the normal build schedule to delivery. First registration, vehicle tracker fitments and pre-fitment notifications then ensues. Accessories are ordered and fitted, after which the vehicle is registered, linked to an employee and included in

the asset register as a company asset. This department is responsible for an asset value of roughly R360 million.

During the time an employee drives a specific vehicle, various sub-processes (such as fines, repairs, accidents and insurance and service plan updates) are managed until such time as an employee requests a new vehicle. Once the newly requested vehicle physically arrives, the process starts all over again. Financially, one of the main tasks in the department is to ensure the following: (1) correct vehicle prices, (2) correct charges from employees, (3) correct payroll deductions, (4) correct handling of price changes, and (5) correct departmental cost centre charges. Justification and entitlement of company vehicles are also handled by the Fleet Department. In conjunction with an administrative function, this department ensures that entitled employees are allocated affordable vehicles.

Employees in this department had worked on a legacy system for 25 years. This system no longer supported business requirements. Data accuracy and reliability were major concerns. Furthermore, technical support became problematic as there were few programmers who could still deal with such old programming languages. As a result, no system maintenance took place which further eradicated data integrity and reliability, widening the gap between business practices and actual activities. This, in turn, led to extensive use of Microsoft Excel for data capturing and data management. There were no audit trails on any of these documents and data could be changed easily and without consequences.

The Fleet Department comprised 16 employees across two sites. In the year leading up to the start of the project, the management in this department changed. The previous manager was dismissed because of un-procedural work methods and financial misappropriation. New management was appointed, but the business processes remained unchanged.

The department was extremely power oriented - the boss directed the work and determined what had to be done. There was little or no upward communication. Communication was predominantly downward, and information was shared on a

need to know basis. Furthermore, through the use of a totally outdated legacy system, the ways and culture were diligently preserved.

### **5.2.2 Organisational strategy**

Various off-the-shelf packages were scrutinised. In all instances, at least two members from the Fleet Department were involved – both in attendance and in decision making. Despite various available packages, this department held firm that in order to ensure a 100% business fit, an in-house solution would be required. Off-the-shelf packages did not provide a good business fit, and an in-house developed system would overcome this challenge.

This newly developed system would integrate with the HR system, the logistics system for material movements, the payroll system for payroll deductions and the dealership system for vehicle ordering. This strategic decision entailed a radical change in the department because this change would fundamentally impact on all job functions.

A project structure was created. According to this structure, a super-user from the business would become the full-time project leader. In addition to the tasks relating to leading the project, this person would be required to be the interface between the business and the IT team. The role of the project leader was to focus on the project. The project leader's role and responsibilities did not include any daily/operational/functional activities.

The PRINCE project management methodology was followed to replace the old legacy computer system. The project scope was established and a list of deliverables drawn up. The business requirements' phase then commenced. Business processes were fleshed out and broken down into sub-processes. Meetings were set up with the project leader and the IT team. Owing to the nature of the project structure, it was the project leader's responsibility to invite the correct people from business for each process under discussion.



Meetings with the project leader, IT team and relevant users were convened twice a week. The main purpose of these meetings was to understand the current processes and procedures and how to relate the current processes to the newly proposed processes. Users were interviewed to understand their current processes and activities. A general feedback session with senior management was held on a monthly basis to advise them on current progress as well as pressing activities for the coming month. These events took place from 2012 onwards.

The strategic decision to replace the old legacy system did not encompass change management. The human side of change was not considered in any strategic forum or meeting. Typically, strategy did not change according to evolving business requirements.

### **5.2.3 Prevalent culture within Fleet**

During 2012 the Fleet Department had 3 000 vehicles on its asset register. An attempt by the company to reduce the number of fleet vehicles through private purchase incentives failed, after which a decision was made to replace the 25-year-old legacy computer system with new technology in support of the changing business needs. As a result of the antiquated legacy system, duplication was rife. There was no workflow in place, which resulted in job fragmentation, long waiting periods, lack of reliability and little personal responsibility and accountability.

Owing to the lengthy lifespan of the legacy system, working methods had become entrenched in the departmental culture, resulting in rigidity from an individual and departmental perspective. Low flexibility and adaptability existed in the department. Complacency was the norm. Employees in this department had a poor reputation and their clients (albeit fellow employees) often referred to them as rude, unhelpful and uncooperative. Phoning “*Fleet*” served no purpose as nobody readily answered their telephones. Poor work ethics prevailed. Poor timekeeping, procrastination, incorrect vehicle allocations, undocumented transactions, long outstanding administration, incorrect or no filing as well as a reluctance to attend training opportunities were the order of the day. There was no staff turnover for the duration of the project.

The views of the department manager and employees were largely divergent. Priorities differed and many employees stated that their processes were not important; only important processes were changed. Such feelings resulted in demotivation, despondency and mistrust. No management action was forthcoming to rectify, alter or improve these perceptions.

Various employees complained about the lack of communication, involvement and participation. Complaints were also raised about a lack of interest in functions, which did not directly pertain to the department manager or the super-user. These functions were belittled and labelled as unimportant and to be dealt with later. No action, coaching or mentoring were given to the super-user in an attempt to facilitate and/or improve the growing despondency in the department.

Communication methods enforced a feeling of us versus them, which led to a further breakdown of interdepartmental co-operation. A lack of role clarity after the change, entrenched norms and values and uncertainty about possible organisational reconfiguration further divided the department. Employees complained about a lack of continuous and honest communication during the period of change.

Communication and training were used as power tools in a strongly guarded hierarchical structure. There were no opportunities for bottom-up communication or informal information sharing meetings. As such, the department was divided, with the manager and project employee on one side and the rest of the employees on the other side. The implementation of this new system was utilised as a method to strengthen power.

Employees who were kept in the dark about the intended organisational changes, merely wanted to be included and understand the end point of the change. As the divide grew between involved and uninvolved employees, resistance increased.

#### **5.2.4 Change methodology**

No change methodology was followed. PRINCE was used to manage the project from a technical perspective. From a human/employee change perspective, no

change management component existed and no change management process was followed. No tools, techniques or processes were applied to manage the people side of change. No methods or techniques were applied to reduce and manage resistance to change. No readiness assessments were done to establish the scope of the change or to determine the number of people affected. There was no integration between change management, project management and/or leadership.

After the decision had been made to develop an in-house solution, only two people in the department were involved and participated in decision making on this radical change. Communication was difficult, fragmented and shared on a need-to-know basis. Furthermore, communication was used as a tool to enforce power and was not focused on department-wide- buy-in.

One user was trained for the entire application of the new information system. This person was tasked to train the various individuals in the department. This approach failed dismally as employees were trained inadequately or not at all. Training and system knowledge were used to increase power and thus not readily shared.

Given the entrenched work methods in this department, low flexibility and capacity to respond to a changing environment prevailed. Because no readiness for change assessments were done, the organisation was completely unaware of the extent to which individuals would be cognitively and emotionally able or inclined to accept, embrace and adopt the particular change initiative. Moreover, the organisation and/or management failed to take into account the different perceptions and responses to organisational change by members of different groups. These elements all contributed to the combined experience of change.

This change initiative revealed that change was viewed markedly differently by various organisational actors. The uniqueness of each individual, coupled with his or her unique method of thinking was never considered and thus not harnessed in the most productive way. This initiative failed to account for the vastly different change perceptions, change responses and diversity which emerged in one, relatively small

department. The resultant behaviour influenced by a fear of job insecurity was never addressed. Similarly, the lack of integrity on the part of co-workers was not detected.

Negative attitudes, coupled with different worldviews or thinking systems, complicated matters. Moreover, resistance was not treated as positive or negative or connected in the particular organisational circumstances. Management and leadership completely ignored resistance.

The department manager and super-user were satisfied with the new system. Other employees in the department experienced fear, uncertainty, anger, resistance, denial, disbelief and anxiety. When asked, many responded that they could never go through another project like that again. A lack of clarity on future roles and responsibilities and inadequate understanding of the potential organisational reconfiguration further increased anxiety. The perception of us versus them increased and prevailed throughout and subsequent to the implementation of this change initiative.

### **5.2.5 Human reactions to organisational change**

This department had operated without major changes to work methods for many years. This radical change would fundamentally alter traditional work methods. The traditional work method involved a large amount of safety, security, certainty and assurance. Despite the large prevalence of duplication, everybody in the department had role clarity and certainty.

As the new system progressed, role conflict developed as role clarity disappeared through reduced duplication. Role ambiguity surfaced as individuals justified why certain tasks had to be performed and duplicated. This, in turn, resulted in interpersonal problems with co-workers. Various employees complained that nobody listened to their arguments. As a result, many employees felt they were simply wasting their efforts.

During and after completion of the project, the majority of employees reported reduced job satisfaction and involvement and increased job-related tension and

anxiety. Frustration, exhaustion, cynicism and emotional exhaustion surfaced daily. Conflict erupted regularly. A lack of time urgency and high absenteeism were prevalent. Owing to severe migraine headaches, one employee was forced to call in sick on numerous occasions.

In meetings, emotional behaviours such as irritability, frustration and misunderstandings were common. Disbelief, anger and blame surfaced daily. Negativity was rife. Deadlines were missed despite completion date agreements. When questioned, employees responded by saying they were confused, could not concentrate, and were uninformed and uncertain. One employee admitted to feelings of total shutdown.

Employees constantly complained about a lack of guidance, leadership and shared understanding. Common complaints pertained to inconsistency of messages, disorganised management, destructive behaviours and general disjointedness. Indecisiveness and non-focus further frustrated employees. Management simply ignored all of these complaints.

Although employees had different perceptions, everybody reported increased fear, stress, anxiety and uncertainty. Existing structures in the organisation did not provide for methods to alleviate these negative feelings. Some employees reported going to the gym after work to forget about what had happened in the office. Others admitted to praying a lot. One employee reported that she simply no longer understood anything - everything was totally chaotic.

Since no change management component existed, many employees reported that there was no planning for this change, or if there was, they were excluded from the conversations. Change occurred in a disorganised, unsystematic way which increased misunderstanding, mistrust and fear. Top-down communication was ineffective, while different employee perspectives were disregarded.

Human reactions and experiences relating to this change, as well as the perception that poorly planned or executed organisational change initiatives increases stress

levels, led the researcher to consolidate these ideas into figure 5.1 below. These ideas resonate with Graves' (1978) insistence on the importance of a multidisciplinary, multidimensional approach to understanding human nature, while incorporating the bio-psychosocial systems in humans. This figure indicates that individuals comprise physical, emotional, mental and spiritual elements (Bull, 1951; Kelly, Kelly, Crabtree, Gauld, Grosso & Greyson, 2007). When one of these elements is burdened, the other will also be troubled. Only when all these elements receive equal attention or are balanced can there be any coherence. A whole person will be able to contribute much more at an individual, team, organisational and community level.

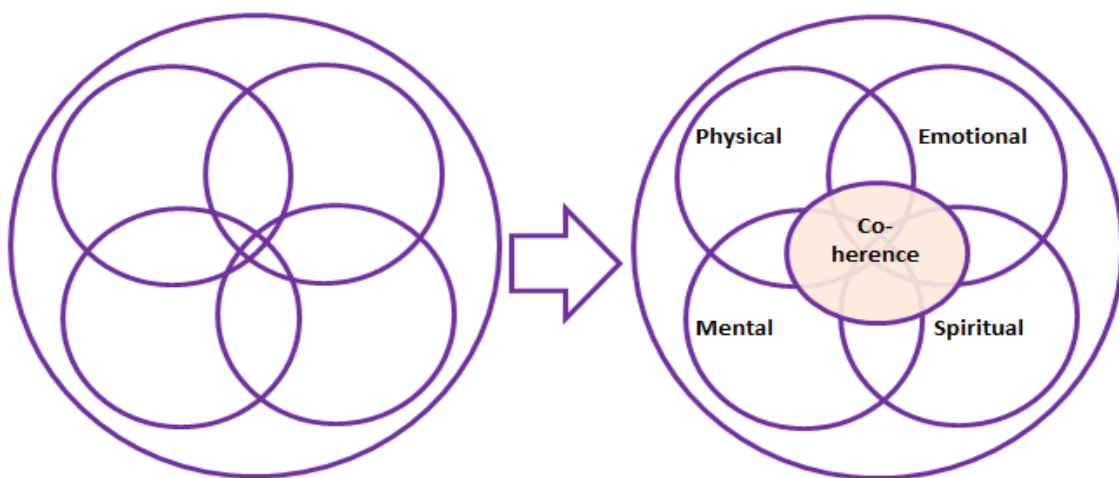


Figure 5.1: Basic elements of the whole person

The researcher developed figure 5.1 drawing a basic mandala (as displayed on the left-hand side) fused into the basic elements of the whole person, comprising a physical, emotional, mental and spiritual element. The whole individual should be considered to ensure cohesion, optimal functioning and minimal resistance. This thought will serve as a fundamental building block in organisational change and leadership.

The reality of different human niches at play was repeatedly displayed. Different individuals exhibited different thinking systems and coping mechanisms. Neither management, nor the project or the organisation knew how to deal with this dilemma.

### **5.2.6 The experience of leadership and/or management**

When the Fleet Department abdicated the leadership/management role in this project, the role was handed to the IT Department. As such, the project was run following the PRINCE methodology with no change management component.

IT also assumed day-to-day management of the project to ensure continuous progress. Neither the department manager nor the super-user was perceived to manage the change. Employees felt that their manager was not pragmatic, realistic or sensible in terms of resource allocation, tasks and responsibilities.

Neither leadership nor management mentioned any motivation or reward. Given cultural, managerial, leadership and communication constraints, the participants were not empowered to develop a sense of ownership. Employees complained that the leaders operated disjointedly, inconsistently and did not listen to them. They perceived leadership as unfair, demanding, unfocused and indecisive.

A lack of leadership, guidance, effective and efficient communication perpetuated the inefficiencies. A lack of firm decision making further increased the difficulties experienced. Leadership failed to lead in areas relating to workable solutions, employee capacity, driving process improvements and ensuring valid and reliable data. Such failures resulted in non-credible information, demotivated staff, despondency, no direction, inconsistencies and indifferent individuals.

### **5.2.7 Problems and steps taken to rectify them**

During the data collection period, problems surfaced as a result of the project leader's lack of project experience. The project leader found project tasks totally unfamiliar and struggled to cope with the volume of documentation and communication required to ensure smooth activities. As a result, the wrong people were invited to attend meetings and documentation was not up to date. As the project progressed into the development and testing phases, it became evident that requirements relayed from the project manager did not match the requirements or expectations of users. This, in turn, resulted in repeated rework which the IT team voiced as a major risk.

The project struggled in terms of communication and technical skills. Communication was downward only and shared selectively. A lack of technological skills, teamwork capabilities and conceptual skills further hampered progress. However, the inability of the project team to involve and include all fellow employees was the main obstacle.

This inability to work with people was raised as a concern, but management did not perceive the above to be a real obstacle or risk factor. The structure thus continued unchanged. However, subsequent to this discussion, IT took over project documentation, scheduling, task monitoring and activity planning. Approximately six months into the project the same concern was raised again. During the months leading up to this request, one employee was continually helpful and able to grasp the bigger picture. IT requested greater involvement of the latter employee. The department manager refused, stating that the project was already too mature to embark upon such radical changes.

Tasks were slipping, deadlines were being missed and incorrect business requirements became the norm. A task deadline sheet had to be introduced, which indicated the particular activities with the deadline date, as well as the priority, department and person in charge and activity status. This sheet also indicated any issues plus supporting departments that could or should assist in resolving such issues.

In an attempt to mitigate and improve the above situation, an IT team member did these functions with the Fleet Department super-user in an effort to improve the project management skill level of the super-user. This continued for three months. However, similar concerns resurfaced shortly after the project had been handed back to the Fleet Department. As a result, IT took over all project-related tasks, leaving the project manager with the sole responsibility of liaising between the Fleet and IT Departments.

Another problem that surfaced was the lack of capacity of employees in the Fleet Department to continue with current operations while spending time and energy on



the development of a new system. As a result, owing to incorrect requirements, business requirements went back and forth. It also became evident that the project manager did not liaise with all parties involved or did not liaise effectively. On more than one occasion, a user would ask: “What is happening with my process? I have not been involved in anything!” Similarly, IT would move a process to production, only to have the process user ask: “Why do I have to do it like this now? Nobody ever spoke to me about this.”

Early on in the project, the Fleet Department had been requested to clean the data in the old system. During the first trial run of the new system in August 2012 (the plan was to go live in October 2012), almost 80% of data could not be taken on due to data errors. External auditors were called in to assist with data cleaning, that is, ensuring the correct asset value, deduction values and balancing stock on the system to stock on hand. The segregation of duties was thus strictly enforced through built-in system authorisations.

As a result of the inability of the old legacy system to support business requirements, everybody in the department worked disjointedly with minimal structure. Functional duplication was common. However, this work method effectively preserved the old, comfortable ways. Changing to a more integrated way of working was difficult and increased conflict and individual stress.

The new system was process driven and prevented employees from continuing if the first process was not completed entirely. As soon as testing started, it became evident that a process-driven methodology did not fit well with the prevalent departmental culture. Given the above, IT again took the initiative and (1) drew up communication documents which had to be shared with users as the project progressed; (2) compiled extensive training manuals for each process, indicating the process and explaining actions to take in a step-by-step manner; and (3) suggested bi-monthly formal update meetings which included all Fleet employees.

Initially, employees were excited about this new project. However, owing to a lack of participation, communication and involvement, many employees reported feeling

despondent about and resistant to the project. Many employees reported increased stress levels which they attributed to increased levels of uncertainty in the department. Employees admitted that resistance negatively influenced their work performance. Because no change management component existed there was no method or forum at where conflict, stress, resistance or any general difficulty could be addressed.

### **5.2.8 Organisational change results**

The new system was implemented in October 2012. The old legacy system was decommissioned shortly after. At the time of this study, the new system had been in operation for over a year. Phase two commenced in January 2013 and was completed in May 2013.

The department manager used the system extensively and evolved into a super-user who created his own reports through direct queries on the tables in the database. However, after a year, the department manager was still changing agreed-upon rules. A recent internal audit revealed that most of the segregation of duty rules were broken and that a single employee could once again assign, change and return a vehicle. The department manager was the only person with the authority to request such changes.

The project leader returned to her operational position. When asked to assist with testing or rule clarification, IT was informed that she was too busy and would assist later. It was not uncommon for IT to wait between two and three weeks to receive a response. These requests were often delegated to a specific person in the department. It is interesting to note that the person to whom the task was delegated was a temporary employee who was never involved in the project. The employee who assisted IT quite extensively through her ability to see the bigger picture, was moved to another job function in the department. She was not using the system in her new role.

As discussed in section 5.2.4, no change management methodology or model was followed. There was no communication strategy to support or enhance the

technological changes. In hindsight, technological changes are the easiest of changes, yet a lot of time and effort are spent on ensuring successful completion of technological changes. Human change is far more difficult, but often no plan, model or strategy is developed and implemented in order to achieve human or individual change. Different worldviews or thinking systems further increased the complexity of this change initiative.

Although the project was finalised from a technical perspective, the business impact on individuals was far from complete. Stress levels in the department were not reduced. At the time of the study, resistance to the new system was still alive. The negative feelings and sentiments still prevailed. Failing to consider a change management approach in conjunction with the technical projected resulted in sub-optimal achievement of business goals. Given the lack of efficient communication, enormous time and effort were spent post-implementation to ensure individual buy-in.

### **5.2.9 Organisational change challenges**

From the outset it was clear that this change initiative faced various issues across a broad spectrum. Challenges ranged from cultural to role specific, to individual challenges and different worldviews. The lack of structure which prevailed for so long exasperated the IT team as it was extremely difficult to extract clear rules, obtain sign off on rules and then abide by the given rules. The project manager's lack of competency further increased the pressure on related parties and departments. Employees not directly involved in the project, but whose jobs would be affected, received minimal feedback and communication.

Integrating some of these organisational change challenges against human niche theory (Laubscher, 2013) indicates how lower-level employees did not seem to understand what all the plans and changes were about. Employees at lower levels of the organisational structure merely wanted job security and security. Other employees were interested to see how this change initiative could give them more power and control.

Despite concrete actions to assist the department, the department manager continued to perceive communication and feedback as unimportant. IT compiled a communication plan and prepared the communication documents. These communication documents explained to all vehicle controllers that the system was changing, what to expect, how it would impact on them and when to expect these changes. Despite IT continuously requesting the distribution of these documents and adding this as an item on the monthly high-level feedback agenda, these documents were never distributed. The department manager distributed one document to all controllers on the “go live” date.

Fleet users complained about the legacy system on a continual basis, but personal attachment to an archaic system was hugely underestimated. In addition, all employees working in Fleet had been working in the department for more than ten years. Although the legacy system was blamed for various data errors and held responsible when data could not be delivered in time, the sense of comfort this provided to users was misjudged and undervalued.

#### **5.2.10 Beyond results**

The new IT system was implemented in 2012 and is still operational. Operations have improved and duplication has been minimised. Checks and balances ensure that asset values are correct and that employees are correctly charged. However, since implementation in 2012, only six people in the department are using the system. There are 16 people in this department, which equates to a 37% usage. Upon entering the department, a division is perceived between system users and non-system users. Informal conversations which were held post implementation indicates that interdepartmental communication did not improve and is still problematic.

Out of the six people, a few are able to use the system correctly and without assistance. IT is still involved with the department and runs weekly and monthly checks to ensure that data is captured correctly. The implementation of this system had the potential to reduce numerous heads from the department structure and employees realised that they might no longer have jobs. The fear of a jobless future

could have contributed to initial resistance as well as current underutilisation of the system.

### **5.2.11 Integration**

From an individual change perspective, change is challenging and difficult. Individuals experience a range of emotions, which throws them into further turmoil. Proper technological uses should be distributed to all, while allowing content to be informed by the needs of everybody in the department. This implies inclusivity (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008). Technology creates transparency. However, a mind-set shift requires time for the dissolution of fear and compulsiveness. Through involvement and participation, the fear and resistance of all stakeholders could have been significantly reduced.

The existence of different thinking systems was illustrated, alongside the lack of acknowledgement of the importance of the human element in successful change. This change initiative confirms Hogan's (2007) finding that a main aspect of human nature is that people have an inherent need for predictability and order. Major organisational changes may be experienced in ways that contradict this basic need and likewise deplete employees' adaptive resources (Hogan, 2007).

The researcher built upon the U-movement (Scharmer, 2007; Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008) depicted in figure 5.2. It indicates that the U-movement from denial through to commitment rests on a triangle comprising leadership, management and the individual, as the base.

For clarity, an enlarged visualisation of the whole person is displayed in the bottom right-hand corner of figure 5.2. As indicated in this figure, the individual, in turn, is acknowledged to comprise physical, mental, spiritual and emotional components. Inclusivity, participation, involvement, empowerment and clear communication can assist the individual to remain firmly rooted through a change initiative. Effective management might enhance the change experience through improved planning, preparation and control. Strong leadership will ensure a clear vision and end goal, essentially providing certainty amidst the turmoil.

Figure 5.2 indicates that a person will experience increased difficulty if the individual, leadership, management triangle is out of balance. This figure incorporates the whole person image indicated in figure 5.1.

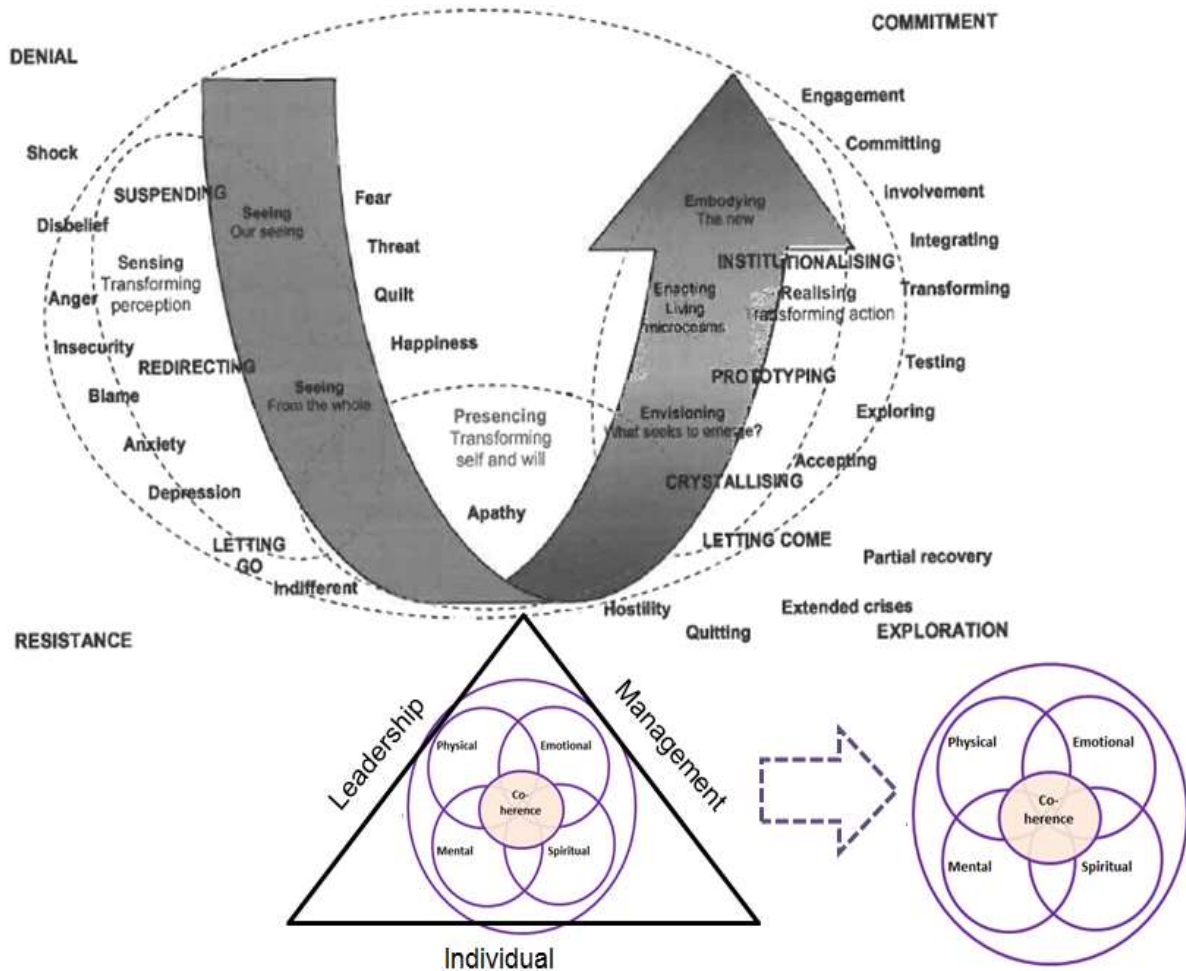


Figure 5.2: Adapted U-movement integrating organisational description (Scharmer and Kaeufer, 2010:25; Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008:82)

Furthermore, figure 5.2 indicates if the whole person is not attended to during change, the U-movement would likely skew to the left, resulting in resistance. The principles indicated in figure 5.2 will serve as a building block element in organisational change and leadership.

### 5.2.12 Conclusion

It would seem that the more ingrained a model of work becomes, the more change will be resisted. As much as the injection of information and technology makes the

defence of old practices preposterous, a shift in human consciousness is required to alter/adjust such practices. If the project does not cater or allow time for such a shift, resistance will prevail. This clearly illustrates the requirement for change management alongside technological changes.

Quantitative analysis can never be the sole metric to use in business practices. New technology allows the accurate measuring of information. However, the interconnectedness between employees and their conscious, subconscious and irrational thoughts and feelings have not been addressed. The long-term functionality of the system requires the former and the latter.

Technological change should be used as a catalyst to align existing talent, relationships, innovation, experience, processes, systems and value systems on a trajectory to serve the goals of the entire department. Goals should encompass all employees in a department, not only one or two “more equal” individuals. Allowing one or two powerful individuals proprietary rights to the system should not be permitted. A productive future will be difficult without collaborative systems.

It would seem that any change which impacts on the way people do their daily jobs should not be taken lightly. Furthermore, this case initiative illustrated that organisational change still does not hold its rightful place within the organisational structure or even within project structures. To ensure improved change, the profile of change should be elevated to a place on the strategy agenda to ensure everybody is able to join in on the journey towards successful change.

### **5.3 THE TWT INITIATIVE**

During the period 2012 to 2013, a large manufacturing company embarked upon the implementation of a new TWT system in various production shops. The ability to calculate TWT would allow the accurate projection of production time for a new production model. The ultimate goal of the project was to enable the measurement and improvement of labour efficiency. To achieve the above, the objective of this project was, firstly to expose and quantify inefficiencies that effect actual TWT; secondly, to design a system to capture and track actual TWT across all plants;



thirdly, to achieve a true man-hours-per-unit (MHU) calculation based on TWT data to ensure optimal labour allocation; and fourthly, to determine the average time per part assembly.

### **5.3.1 Contextual evolution**

The physical setting of this project was at a manufacturing plant in South Africa. This change initiative involved all manufacturing plants (weld, paint, assembly and final). This project required change from the lowest levels of the organisation (group leaders, team leaders and team members) through to section and senior managers. The success of this project would depend heavily on the co-operation of the lowest level employees in the organisation.

At the onset of the project the company used MHU as an efficiency measurement tool. MHU efficiency calculations were based on an ideal situation, using 7.58 hours as the base time; assuming every employee spends a full 7.58 hours working. Realistically, this is not the case, given nature breaks, training and medical station visits. However, no accurate/correct MHU was in place, resulting in incorrect labour allocation across the company. The launch of a new vehicle model required a more accurate calculation of TWT to ensure optimal labour allocation.

Subsequent to the change, working data factors would include overtime, time and attendance (early out, late in, absenteeism) and downtime. The working day/hour breakdown would include time spent at the medical station, training, quality, improvement and other activities.

Figure 5.3 provides an example of the organisational structure impacted by this change. Team member (TM), team leader (TL) and group leader (GL) activities would be monitored to determine the time spent away from the production line. Activities away from the production line would be categorised as time in surgery, training or time spent on improvement activities.



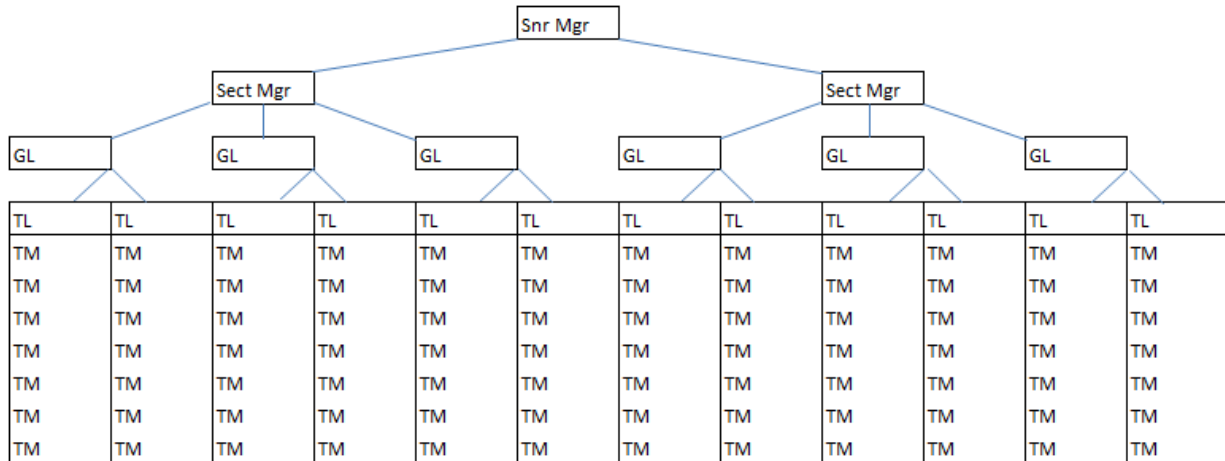


Figure 5.3: Example of organisational structure impacted by TWT

According to figure 5.3, a senior manager (Snr Mgr) would have numerous reporting section managers (Sect Mgr). GLs would report to one section manager. GLs are responsible for several TLs who, in turn, are responsible for various TMs.

The demographics of employees involved in this project are provided in table 5.1 below. This table indicates the majority of workers as African. Furthermore, 213 GLs were male with 11 females. TLs comprised 714 males and 87 females. TMs consist of 688 females and 3 543 males. These demographics are indicated in table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Project demographics

GL (group leader)	224
African	110
Coloured	25
Indian	61
White	19
Unclassified	9
TL (team leader)	801
African	588
Coloured	55
Indian	112

TL (team leader)	801
White	10
Unclassified	36
TM (team member)	4231
African	3581
Coloured	176
Indian	341
White	33
Unclassified	100

Table 5.1 above clearly indicates the African male dominant profile in this project. The total number of employees affected by this project was 5 256. Females comprised 15% of the affected population.

This project was broken down into three phases. Phase one entailed initial investigation, development and capturing of TWT data by GLs. Phase two encompassed the expansion of TWT to include a breakdown of each plant by process, standard times, volume of goods part quantity and the calculation of earned hours per plant. Phase three involved the calculation of labour efficiency based on captured TWT and earned hours. No change management was followed on this project. This case study initiative focuses on phase one.

### 5.3.2 Organisational strategy

A thorough investigation was launched to understand the current shop-floor condition. A manual template of the ideal system was designed and a pilot plant selected. Targeted GLs in the pilot plant were selected to assist with the initial manual capturing. Manual capturing would require a GL to capture the time spent of every TL and TM in the GL's structure. Out of a possible 7.58 hours available in a normal workday, the GL was expected to indicate the amount of time each TL and TM spent on being absent, out early, late in, involved in quality, training or time spent in the medical facility. These hours should then have totalled 7.58 hours.

GLs would have access to TLs and TMs, their shifts and the respective times they spent not working on the line. Available time per shift was indicated as 455 minutes, while non-production-related activities were absence, unplanned overtime, early out, late in, loaned labour to another line, borrowed labour from another line, kaizen/improvement activities, surgery/medical centre, quality activities and training. The total time spent would then add up to the TWT as opposed to available time. If TWT equalled 410 minutes and available time 455 minutes, the inefficiency of 45 minutes would be recorded against the relevant line, process and GL.

The results of the manual trial were used to gauge the level of GL training required. Areas in the welding and assembly shops were selected for trial purposes. The trial indicated that GLs in one shop could cope with the requirement. GLs in the other shop had tremendous difficulty capturing the required data. GL computer literacy skills were highlighted as a concern, which required attention.

Investigations revealed that a total of 224 GLs would be involved. Fewer than half of these group leaders had used a personal computer. GLs who indicated that they used a personal computer, used the personal computer that was assigned to an open space. This open space was also used for tea and lunch breaks and meetings.

Emphasis was placed on GL training as they would be responsible for the input of live work hour data per line at the end of every shift. System requirements (hardware and software) were drawn up, based on the above results. The final goal was that every GL would have a personal computer and would capture TWT for his or her TLs and TMs. A total of 101 personal computers had to be purchased in support of the project vision.

Training all GLs in basic personal computer skills became a secondary project. 101 GLs had to be taken off the line for a day to attend basic computer training at the training centre. According to the initial training strategy, GLs leaders who completed basic training would attend another session where they would be trained on how to use the TWT application. Training would thus entail two days away from the line.

Strategy did not encompass change management. The human side of change was not considered in any strategic forum or meeting. Typically, strategy did not change according to the evolving business requirements. Training was the only component of change management that actually received some form of attention.

### **5.3.3 Prevalent culture within TWT**

This organisation is a large, bureaucratic entity. This change initiative specifically related to the employees involved in the production process. Communication in this environment was challenging even without any change taking place. In this production environment, a top-down communication approach was followed and various structural levels existed in a strong hierarchy. Time and attendance, absenteeism, leave and general work methods were governed through this hierarchy. Punishment was meted out through this hierarchy.

Given the large number of employees involved, the communication function generally resided with the general manager of each production area. The culture and communication method vested power in the hands of management. Following the stated hierarchy, communication would filter down from general manager to senior managers, section managers and eventually to GLs. It was the responsibility of the general managers in each area to ensure that GLs understood the purpose and reasoning behind this project, were released from line as required, attended one-day basic training, attended one-day TWT training and captured TWT data at the end of every shift.

Amidst all of the above, the people on the line became withdrawn, quiet, inhibited and unresponsive.

From a production perspective, it is evident that a great deal of emphasis is placed on time keeping, quality, elimination of waste and doing work correctly the first time. Such an environment is highly mechanistic which is reflected in the culture. Authority is placed centrally and formal practices and procedures in the form of job specifications, task sheets and standard operating procedures dominate.

The transference of such a mechanistic culture to employees is not always appreciated. Employees often report feeling like- and being treated like robots, just being a number and not being respected as an individual. Given such a mechanistic culture, reacting to- and coping with change becomes challenging.

#### **5.3.4 Change methodology**

No change methodology or change management was followed. From a human/employee change point of view, no change management existed for this project and no such process was followed. No tools, techniques or processes were applied to manage the people side of change. No methods or techniques were applied to reduce and manage resistance to change. No readiness assessments were done to establish the scope of the change or to determine the number of people affected. Leadership was not integrated into any methodology.

Communication was difficult, fragmented and shared on a need-to-know basis. Rumours were common. Communication was not focused on company-wide buy-in. Communication was directed from the top-down. No informal information sharing sessions existed.

The relative success of a change process is not determined by how change is described, explained, or understood, but rather by how it is experienced and what it means to those directly affected. The change experience of the GLs was dreadful. They experienced anxiety, stress, uncertainty and fear. Many expressed disbelief. The lack of communication exacerbated their anxiety. There was a major difference between the messages that management communicated and the way in which the GLs understood these messages. The views of GLs and management were also totally divergent. They might as well have been speaking totally different languages with no awareness of different viewpoints from which to build understanding.

The same change was viewed and appreciated differently by various organisational actors in fairly diverse ways. When speaking to the GLs one story unfolded. Speaking to management revealed a completely different story. Whether these different stories related to perceptions or differing world-views appeared significant

However, equally important was the obvious lack of common ground relating to the shared experiences in this project.

It became evident early on that the top-performing GLs were chosen to display the workability of the TWT concept. Older GLs and GLs with no prior personal computer experience struggled to collect data and to capture data in time at the end of every shift. GLs who were issued with personal computers for the first time during the roll-out of this project were unable to perform the required tasks. Unfortunately, none of the GLs who struggled to capture data formed part of the pilot group.

The programmed template also did not seem to work. The blocks were too small and some GLs complained that "... I cannot see this number ..." which proved even more challenging when time intervals such as 15/30/45 minute breakdowns came into play. Others battled to "... find this on my keyboard ...". Industrial engineers were called in to assist the GLs with data capturing.

It also became evident that roles and responsibilities were determined not by the GLs, but by older employees on the production line. Obedience to the elders was demanded, and the majority of GLs were not willing to break these unspoken rules. The new method was perceived as threatening both to individuals, teams and the comfort that was prevalent in working in the old way.

This project was the antithesis of how change should be done. Given the drastic change in work methods and possible infringement of personal data, this comprised a radical change initiative. However, despite the radical nature of this change, no change management was followed and few participation opportunities were created. In December 2014, this project was still not live, and could therefore be classified as another attempted change initiative that had failed. Owing to repeated failure, scepticism abounded.

### **5.3.5 Human reactions to organisational change**

Individual reaction to this project was troubled from the outset. Fear and anxiety dominated. Ambiguity further increased uncertainty. This project experienced

enormous resistance. However, from a management perspective, such resistance was largely ignored. The individual behaviours relating to this project were either led by aggressiveness, hostility and antagonism or by resentment, antipathy and ill will.

The individuals selected to participate in the pilot group stated that they were unhappy and uncertain about what was expected of them. Complaints about the capturing, the impracticality of the request, the unrealistic demands placed upon them and a lack of understanding were repeatedly voiced.

The GLs regularly expressed their discomfort, worry and distress regarding this new task of capturing data. Many GLs stated that it hurt them to capture the data; their fingers could not work on a keyboard, which resulted in pain and soreness. The GLs also commonly complained that nobody listened and that no proper communication existed. A lack of leadership and guidance increased their distress, discomfort and distrust.

The GLs said that they did not understand management. Nothing worked and everything was upside down. One GL commented that management work backwards. When asked, the GLs admitted that prayer helped them to cope with the uncertainty, turmoil and discomfort they were experiencing.

Because top-down communication was ineffective, rumours were rife. A lack of openness and honesty about the reasons behind the change, increased feelings of suspicion and doubt. The GLs' and management's views on the reasoning, method and end result of this project differed enormously.

### **5.3.6 The experience of leadership and/or management**

A major disconnect ensued between the GLs' experience of management and that of management. According to management, the project was on track, there were few issues to report and things were going according to plan. The GLs reported a totally different picture. They struggled to capture data, they could not see on the screens or understand the requirements and had not been released from the line to attend training.

Leaders stood up from within the ranks of the GLs in order to protect the TLs and TMs. These internal leaders received the support of the GLs and voiced their concerns on the group's behalf. From within the organisation, leadership did not stand up and address this growing crevasse that had opened up between the organisation and the GLs. Leadership and management had failed to acknowledge that there was a growing disconnect between GLs and management. This disconnect concerned a lack of understanding, participation, involvement and communication.

From within the lower ranks, leaders emerged, who had no titles or power of position. These leaders stood up in protection of the TMs and TLs who would be scrutinised by management. No leaders with title or position power emerged to communicate, explain, reason or consult with employees about the reasoning behind these changes. No leaders from within the management ranks, stood up and explained that the purpose was not victimisation, infringement of personal space and time or persecution in any form. No leaders from within the management ranks stood up to explain or reason about any matter.

### **5.3.7 Problems and steps taken to rectify them**

Various problems were identified prior, during and after the project. The success of this project relied heavily on the co-operation of the employees at the lowest level in the organisation. These employees, however, were not sufficiently consulted prior to the start of such a huge behavioural change initiative. The communication method that was applied failed to reach these lower-level employees. A limited number of employees were involved in this project which further hampered successful implementation.

Management did not consider human constraints in terms of software and general personal computer skills. On numerous occasions, industrial engineers would indicate that the GLs were not coping and did not have time for capturing, and also that the GLs were spending most of their time on the line performing a production-related activity. Given that management were unable or unwilling to release the GLs



for training (despite prior agreement), the training method proved inadequate to provide for the level of skills required to successfully launch such a huge project.

The number of GLs involved amounted to roughly 250 employees. Such a volume of people involved was not duly considered when the time schedules were agreed on. Due consideration was not afforded to production constraints or training requirements for both personal computer skills and the relevant application. The time schedules were completely inadequate to allow for a solid technical implementation. Allowances to provide for adequate time to alter behaviour were never considered as no change management schedule existed.

Contingency plans were inadequate to mitigate the reality of operational duties on the line versus TWT project requirements. Operational activities will always take precedence if not actively alleviated through strong management and diligent control mechanisms. However, management deemed it completely irrelevant to add a change management portion to this schedule, and did not consider this change initiative as a radical change.

The pilot group was perhaps selected incorrectly. Given the large geographical area spanning the manufacturing operation, an attempt to ease physical constraints resulted in an inadequate pilot group selection. Perhaps a more random selection, instead of a location-based selection, would have highlighted the extent of difficulty for some GLs. If this had become evident earlier in the process, a stronger case could have been made for the proposed training, which in turn, had failed dismally in its attempt to up-skill members.

Deploying industrial engineers to resolve the problem further alienated the work force from the project. This action was viewed as an indication that it was easy for management to undermine the input of the GLs. The latter perceived this action as indicative that the easier option (to bring in industrial engineers) took precedence over the correct action (adjust plans and spend more time and effort to gain consensus before adequately training all GLs).

The GLs resisted through non-action and incorrect action. Almost all of them were unable to cope with the new task and some of them were completely overwhelmed by this new requirement. Some of them were visibly anxious when asked to perform this task while others reacted with aggressive or defiant behaviour. Other GLs became reserved and withdrawn. Another visible problem was that certain GLs were unable to remember from one day to the next what they were required to do in terms of data capturing.

The uncertainty created as a result of this system, spilled over into the work environment. These behaviours created an atmosphere and environment in which it became all but impossible to implement the system. The environment felt oppressive, negative and impossible to penetrate with such radical changes to work methods.

The GLs, TLs and TMs worked in a closely knit formation and were hugely interdependent. Management completely ignored this fact. Management failed to acknowledge the extent of behavioural change required to ensure the success of this project. Insufficient communication increased the GLs' discomfort. The expectation that the GLs would indicate that their members did not spend the required time on line added to the GLs' anxiety.

When checking data input in the new system, it was evident that the GLs often captured data incorrectly. Some GLs openly admitted that they were not prepared to capture such sensitive information. Others claimed that they did not understand what was required of them. Others again simply refused to speak. The question remains whether these actions were a result of inadequate training, fear of victimisation or the realisation that working as an interdependent team would become increasingly difficult.

### **5.3.8 Outcomes of the problems experienced**

Given the above problems, various outcomes resulted. Knowing that the GLs would be vital to the success of this project, management decided to collaborate and communicate at a general manager level. A GL typically reports to a section

manager, who reports to a senior manager, who reports to a general manager. The communication effort was thus targeted three levels above the GL, when in fact the GLs should have been the direct receivers of the message.

Knowing that 55% of the GLs had never used a personal computer, a training strategy was followed during 2012 to remedy this situation. However, shop demographics were not considered. The GLs in certain shops were much older than those in other shops. Attempting to teach an older person (who has never used a personal computer) computer skills in two days could not possibly succeed.

Given the large volumes of people involved, communication and involvement were obtained from within the highest levels of the organisational structure. This allowed the project team fewer people to interact with. However, this resulted in the GLs feeling left out and not understanding the reasoning behind the project. This further resulted in the GLs feeling that they were turned into spies – having to split on the whereabouts of their TLs and TMs. This increasing discomfort on the part of the GLs was exacerbated by the fact they did not understand what management were planning to do with the data they had been ordered to capture. At no point was any GL assured that the collected data would not be held against him or her and his or her team. The GLs posed questions related to the disciplinary action being taken, based on their data capturing. However, management never responded to these questions.

Operational duties would always take precedence over project requirements. With no support personnel or employees able to fill in for the GLs, production had to take precedence. The disregard for the volumes of employees involved and the extent of behavioural change required was not adequately reflected in any of the project documentation or in the minds of general managers who were ultimately responsible for ensuring the availability of the GLs.

GLs with prior personal computer experience were selected, but this failed to prove the point. GLs without any experience should have followed the training programme. This would have immediately indicated that they were unable to cope with the

expectations. Deploying industrial engineers further aggravated the situation as the GLs now felt threatened and humiliated, which further increased resistance levels, resulting in higher levels of incorrect data capturing.

This project resulted in a breakdown of relationships, trust and employee involvement. Relationships between individuals from various levels in the organisation deteriorated. At an individual level mistrust was rife, uncertainty led to insecurity and misunderstandings and poor communication resulted in resistance.

### **5.3.9 Organisational change results**

The initial go live date was set for end April 2011, which did not materialise. A new date was set for April 2012, postponing the project by a year. This deadline was also missed and a new target date was set, namely to have all shops live by September 2012. This date was also missed and the middle of December 2012 was set as yet another new target date.

During April 2012 all network points were installed and the TWT application was loaded on to the new personal computers. From a technical perspective, all equipment, network points, software and hardware were tested and subsequently rolled out to the various plants. One month later, the equipment remained unused because difficulties related to capturing and intent surfaced. This equipment continued to remain untouched and unused.

The new target date of December 2012 never materialised. The fact that equipment had been installed at line side, which had remained unused, now raised security concerns. A countermeasure was thus implemented to secure equipment with locks and chains. The GLs refused to capture data for themselves, the TLs or the TMs. The GLs came up with various excuses, ranging from a lack of capacity to capture, not understanding and not having enough time to complete these tasks.

During February 2013, management eventually relinquished and requested the IT Department to write reports indicating TWT as accurately as possible using the closest proximity access control input. Proximity access control points are located

close to the entry gates and are not located at line side. Hence, a person could enter the plant, clock in at a proximity reader and never arrive at his or her place of work.

### **5.3.10 Organisational change challenges**

This project created immense challenges for employees and employee behaviour. It also clearly indicated the lack of communication and trust between labour and management. The biggest mistake was to exclude the GLs from participation in this project. Exclusion resulted in fear of the unknown, habit, general mistrust, insecurity, social disruption and selective perceptions which, in turn, increased resistance to the change initiative.

Elements such as involvement, participation, consultation and empowerment were missing in the TWT project. After three years, this project was still not up and running – there had been plenty of time to promote participation, involvement and engagement or even only consultation. Given the importance of the GLs on this project, they should have been targeted directly with communication, involvement and engagement programmes. Unfortunately, inclusivity of the GLs, TLs and TMs had never been considered.

### **5.3.11 Beyond results**

The intended system had not been rolled out. A total of 101 personal computers had been removed from line-side. The organisation had incurred huge costs, with little or no return on investment because the GLs were not capturing TWT. Reports had been written to satisfy the data requirement. Data was being analysed by employees in the HR department.

This project was not delivered on time or within budget. Almost two years had elapsed from the initial go-live date until a conscious decision had been made to pull the plug. At inception of the project, time and volumes had been indicated as constraints, which justified the chosen methodology. In hindsight it would seem that a year spent in consultation, while involving GLs to actively participate and contribute, could have resulted in a different, more positive outcome. One could ask

what role group think had to play in keeping a sinking project alive, long after it should have been terminated.

Furthermore, the importance of a true understanding of the environment proved vital. An office worker can survey plant operations and come to a conclusion, but different covert, complexities may be at work. Once again, this underscores the vital importance of participation, inclusivity and hearing the true voice of the lower echelons of the organisation.

### 5.3.12 Integration

Given the reality of this change initiative, the researcher again adapted the U-movement (Scharmer, 2007; Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008) as depicted in figure 5.2. This figure indicates that certain individuals will experience increased difficulty if the circle of discussion is out of balance. For clarity, an enlarged display of the whole individual is displayed on the bottom right-hand side of the figure.

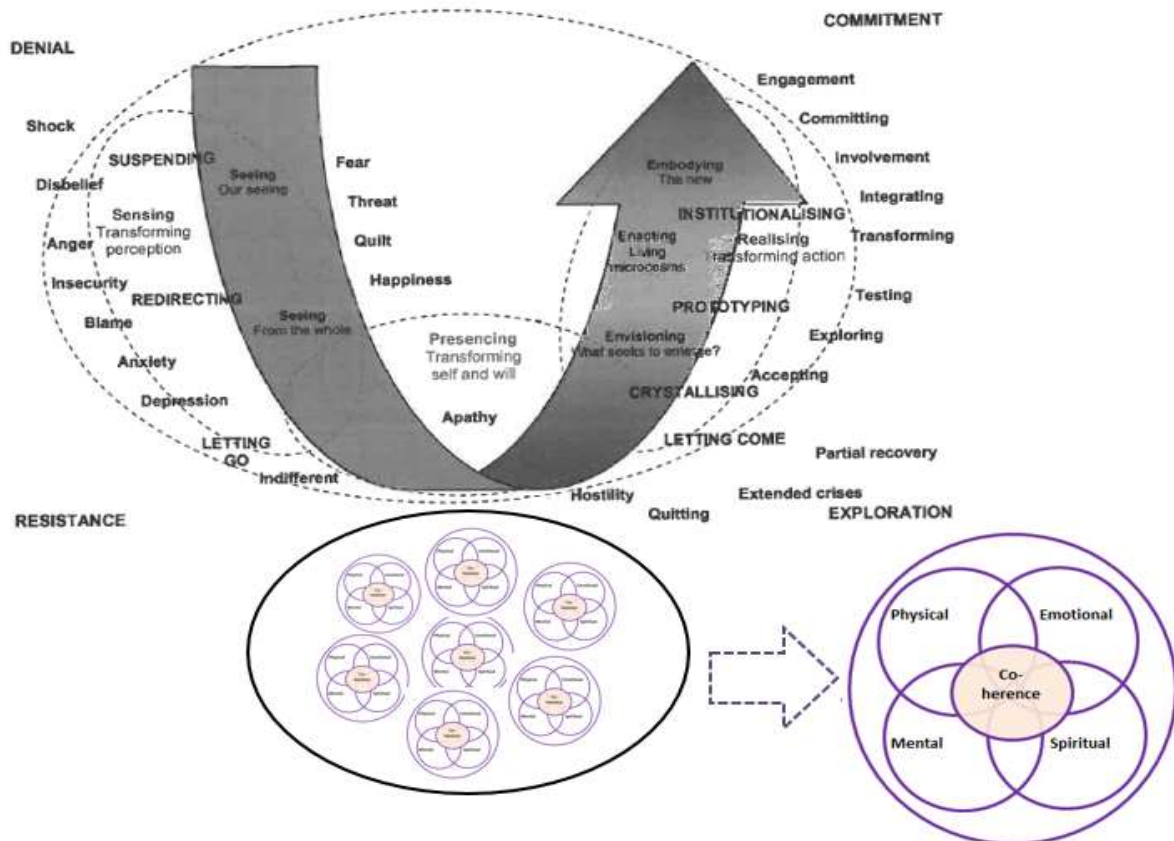


Figure 5.4: Adapted U-movement integrating organisational description (Scharmer and Kaeufer, 2010:25; Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008:82)

Figure 5.4 indicates the reality of this change initiative. During change, the U-movement would be likely to skew to the left, resulting in resistance. Resistance played a large part in the failure of this change initiative. Resistance could partly be due to the nonexistence of change strategies, poor communication and a lack of employee involvement. Resistance could also stem from mechanistic structures, too much managerial power and too many procedures and rules. Less personal and more formal communication could have detracted from management's ability to effectively communicate the change initiative intention. Fear of the unknown, loss of security, disruption of routine and/or lack of understanding could have further increased resistance. This again emphasises the importance of change management alongside technological changes.

Figure 5.4 indicates that the U-movement from denial through to commitment rests on a circle symbolising equality, participation, inclusivity and empowerment of all as the base. Various individuals, comprising physical, mental, spiritual and emotional components, sit in this circle. The GLs sought inclusivity, participation, involvement, empowerment and clear communication. A strong need for discussion was evident. These discussions can take place within a circle. The principles indicated in figure 5.4 serve as a building block element in organisational change and leadership.

### **5.3.13 Conclusion**

If change impacts on the way people do their daily jobs, the impact of such change on the relevant people should be considered and treated with the necessary respect and empathy. Throughout this change initiative, it appeared as if management did not treat change with adequate care.

From a human niche perspective, it would seem that some employees did not even realise that things were changing. For some, family was more important and all the talk of doing things differently remained just talk. However, such talk about change did increase employees' stress, in some instances, to a point of becoming paralysed and completely unable to engage in the change initiative.



Change was generally treated as simplistic, resulting in time, effort and energy spent reactively. Such an approach results in wastage and damage. This project damaged individuals, the company, relationships, trust and employee involvement. At an individual level, mistrust was rife, uncertainty led to insecurity and misunderstanding resulted in resistance. At an organisational level, this poorly run project resulted in wasted time, effort and expenditure. These outcomes would have to be corrected through yet another project, again emphasising the importance of change management alongside project and/or technical changes.

#### **5.4 THE WSI INITIATIVE**

(WSI was a global project, initiated by the organisation's mother company, which would be implemented across four continents. The South African portion of this project was scheduled to be completed by August 2014. The IT Department was tasked to align the technology to that of the mother company, which would lay the foundation for the commencement of the WSI project. This project tried to innovate the work style methods of approximately 300 000 employees worldwide. Related to WSI was WSEG (work style etiquette guidelines), intending to change the electronic behaviour of employees.

The purpose of the WSI project was to improve and/or introduce new IT tools to create an effective, efficient and agile electronic work environment through the following: improved video conferencing; electronic mail; an electronic calendar; electronic document sharing facilities; web conferencing systems; wireless LAN; paperless meeting solutions; social networking services; search engine systems; a global bulletin board system; and mobile device systems. However, the biggest challenge of this project was to effect behavioural change through WSEG.

##### **5.4.1 Contextual evolution**

The physical setting of this change initiative was a manufacturing plant in South-Africa. This particular manufacturer operates across two sites in two provinces. In addition, three regional offices in Cape Town, Port Elizabeth and Bloemfontein would also be affected by this project. During 2013, the IT Department started technical



work on the WSI project in order to combine WSEG with IT tools to create a more productive teamwork environment.

The major change points of this project were a change in e-mail package, introducing instant messaging and document-sharing management. This change sought to improve e-mail usage, electronic calendar scheduling, instant on-line communication and document sharing. This project would affect every employee who logged on to the company’s network and had access to e-mail. A total of 3 000 employees would be affected by the technology change and would be expected to change their work methods.

A major concern was that the IT Department was ready to go live, but hardly any employees in the organisation were even aware of WSI, what it stood for or what the project entailed. A working group was hastily formed comprising employees from HR, IT, Communications, Information Security and Training. It was acknowledged that content would be critical to the project’s successful implementation. As a result, the working committee agreed on the following dual objectives: (1) to obtain input from managers and above in terms of WSEG (specifically relating to policy and etiquette challenges); and (2) to obtain input from lower levels in terms of WSI (specifically relating to technology challenges).

A schedule was drawn up which included communications, policy changes and training. These are indicated in figure 5.5 below.

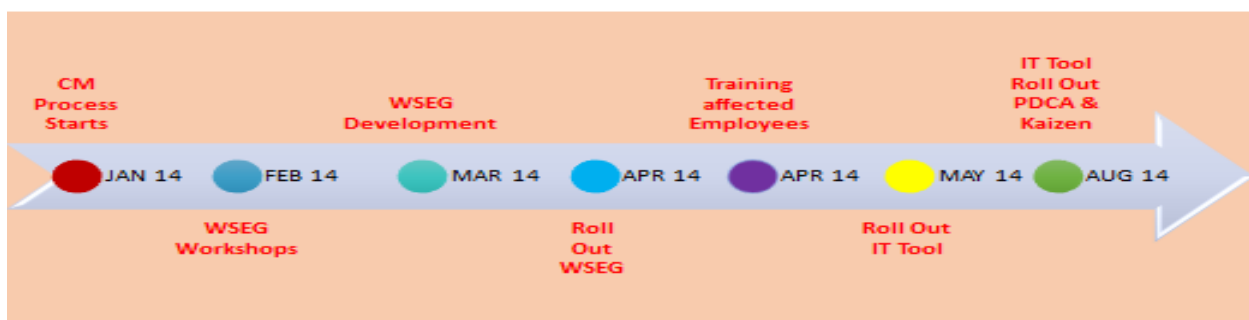


Figure 5.5: WSI people impact roadmap (WSI information session, 2014)

Figure 5.5 shows the people impact roadmap. This roadmap indicates the start of the project, the start of the change management process, the WSEG development and roll-out as well as the training dates.

Initially, it was decided to introduce and communicate the details of WSI and WSEG in focus group sessions. However, owing to the late planning, time constraints and volume of people involved, this proved impractical. In mitigation it was decided to have communication sessions with everybody who would be affected by the change. The purpose of these sessions would be to create awareness, to understand employees' training needs and frustrations and to gain insight into what would ensure the successful roll-out of this project. In line with the above, it was decided to follow two separate communication approaches - one for managers and above, and another for lower-level employees. The content focus in these sessions would be different, aligning to WSI content focus for lower-level employees and WSEG content focus for managers and above.

A deliberate attempt was made to include high-level change management activities in the project schedule. These activities mostly related to communication and training. A concerted effort was made to ensure communication downward and horizontally across all salary bands. The communication sessions attempted to create a safe space where questions could be asked in an effort to improve upward communication flow.

Two pilot sessions were scheduled to test the content. These sessions comprised 20 employees for WSI and another 20 employees for WSEG. Upon successful completion of these pilot sessions, all affected employees were invited to attend a communication session.

For the WSI sessions, the employees comprised skill level 00 to skill level 07, salary band 5/6/7 (clerks and coordinators) and salary band 8/9 (assistant managers, secretaries and senior coordinators). Manager and above levels comprised 2 624 employees. The intention of these communication sessions was primarily to create

awareness and a platform for participation and input. It was perceived that participation would assist with the project's success.

In conjunction with the WSI working group, a project schedule was drawn up which indicated the communication activities which started in February 2014. This project attempted to incorporate a change management element into the project structure. Only communication activities in respect of the relevant human-related activities which were required to ensure the successful transition to the new technological roll-out were included. While these activities were not comprehensive, they did comprise a communication, participation and feedback strategy.

This schedule included training, general awareness and technological change awareness as well as the pilot, communication and training sessions. Migration of employees to the new technology would follow training and completion of the project was scheduled for the end of June 2014.

Awareness campaigns and e-mail communications comprised communication activities with two communication sessions held daily over a two-week period. A third week was used for another two sessions per day, held at regional locations. Upon completion of these communication sessions, roughly 60% of employees involved in the project attended a session and were afforded an opportunity to raise their concerns, questions and comments.

#### **5.4.2 Organisational strategy**

During 2013, the IT team worked in the background to convert technologies, install networks and become hardware compliant in order to support this project. This project was designed to ensure that e-mail would always be available from anywhere, supported across multiple devices in a safe environment, thus meeting compliance requirements.

During the last week of January 2014, the researcher was called in and asked whether she could oversee the change management of WSI. At this point, she had no idea what WSI stood for or what the project entailed. However, IT was ready to go

live, and the organisation therefore had to find a quick way to ensure successful transition.

It became evident that no documentation existed for change management or communication of the project. In addition, there was no project schedule to indicate how change management or communication should be managed. However, a WSI roadmap existed which indicated that the change management (CM) process was due to start in January 2014, roll-out of WSEG would commence during April, employees would be trained during April and the IT tools would be rolled out during May 2014.

Strategy did not encompass change management. Change management was understood to relate to communication and training only. This change management had to be implemented mechanistically, without any consideration for human elements. The human side of change was not considered in any strategic forum or meeting. Typically, strategy did not change according to evolving business requirements. Evolving business requirements were not shared through top-down communication. Training was the only component relating to change management that received some form of attention. However, when project timing came under threat, training was the first component to suffer.

#### **5.4.3 Prevalent culture within WSI**

The organisation had been using a particular electronic communication system for the past ten years. All employees were comfortable with the use of this technology and were adept at performing the functions of this software package. The main driver for this change initiative was technology. Changed technology was, in turn, driven by improved global communication, ease of global communication and the establishment of a uniform platform.

The reasoning behind this large technology change was not explained. Employees were simply informed that changes are imminent which would affect the way they interacted with e-mail, scheduling and communication. This organisation is a large, bureaucratic organisation and follows a strict hierarchical structure. The culture is

rigid and low flexibility makes it difficult to respond to environmental challenges in an agile manner.

The IT Department did not deem it necessary to communicate or train employees. According to IT, the technology was easy to use and nobody was expected to experience any difficulties. This department did not expect any resistance and did not deem it necessary to even consider resistance as a possible hurdle. As a result of this stance, the project was already quite mature before any attention was focused on communication and/or training.

Lack of planning, poor cross-functional workings and blame shifting were common elements. It took weeks to convince management that different communication methods had to be employed, memos and top-down communication would not suffice. Communication was used as a power tool, and as such, management were reluctant to change entrenched communication methods, even though they were ineffective.

Training was the next stumbling block. The change management team drew up a training schedule and requested that nobody's software package should be changed, until they had received training. At this point, the training department dug in their heels and said that was impossible. Another few rounds of blame shifting, priorities and departmental importance were used as weaponry.

The prevalent culture supported poor cross-functional working. The culture also did not require cross-functional responsibility and accountability for the success of this change initiative. The poor planning, teamwork and preparation, and strong stance that no human elements required attention on this project, were supported by the dominant culture. The entrenched, hierarchical, bureaucratic culture was repeatedly confirmed. Only after a high-level directive, did the various departments agree to work with a change management portion on the project plan.

#### **5.4.4 Change methodology**

No change methodology was followed. A high-level portion of change management was included in the project plan. These change management elements related mainly to communication and training and did not include any other human-related elements. No tools, techniques or processes were applied to manage the people-side of change. No methods or techniques were applied to reduce and manage resistance to change. Also, no readiness assessments were done to establish the scope of the change or to determine the number of people affected.

The change management element did not acknowledge human reactions to change, the amount of energy in the system, culture or any other underlying mental models in the organisation. Leadership was not integrated into any method, model or methodology.

Although a change management element was included, it addressed organisational change extremely simplistically and was scheduled according to the project plan. As such, change management elements followed project milestones and were managed in the same, mechanistic way as the technology side of the project.

Employees who did not comply would no longer be able to utilise their e-mail and scheduling functions. Employees therefore basically had no choice but to comply and change. However, this did not detract from the fact that the employees had a deep need to be included and understand the reasoning behind change.

The communication element as a limited portion of change management spoke to the above need and alleviated uncertainty to some extent. The communication platform created a forum where people started to raise their concerns and voice their opinions.

Common complaints were that one department said one thing, while another department said something else. The true story remained elusive. Different messages created anxiety and even fear. Employees did not know who to trust, which messages to be correct and how to react to the different versions of

information. The disjointed manner in which various departments cooperated often jeopardised the positive communication element. The importance of speaking with a united voice and presenting a united front during times of radical change was reiterated.

Again, a markedly different change experience was reported among different departments, managers and employees. This case initiative also indicated that different people viewed things differently, resulting in a different change appreciation of the same organisational initiative. These different thinking systems were displayed as being vastly different, even from those in an employee's immediate working group.

#### **5.4.5 Human reactions to organisational change**

This project comprised radical change because fundamental work methods had to be changed fairly drastically. Initial reactions questioned the reasoning behind the project and offered various other methods as alternative solutions. The reasons for resistance pertained to a possible loss of documentation, unproductive work methods and not understanding why this change was required.

Executive secretaries were anxious about this change and stated that this project would make the executive diaries chaotic. Skepticism, fear and uncertainty heightened the stress levels of secretaries and co-ordinators alike. Some employees reacted with aggression and hostility, while others shrugged and reacted despondently. Others again, voiced their frustrations, stating that the organisation was obstructing their jobs.

Many employees said that they had rationalised the change. "Everybody will be in the same boat. At least I won't be alone." Through rationalisation, many employees justified the change, thereby reducing their anxiety about the size and impact of the change.

Nervousness and uncertainty about the impact on their job function were reported by many employees. Various individuals reported feeling fearful and/or anxious. The

expressed fear related to trepidation and apprehensiveness as they felt unsure whether they would be able to cope with the new change. Many employees complained about uncertainty and were sceptical about the successful outcome of this initiative. Scepticism was a common defence mechanism.

Increased communication improved employees' understanding, but feelings of involvement and participation were limited owing to poor planning and preparation. As a result, there had been no time for early involvement of all affected employees. Despite the fact that this involved radical change, the increased stress as a result of this project was never considered, dealt with or alleviated.

#### **5.4.6 The experience of leadership and/or management**

This change was again viewed very differently by various organisational players. The IT Department felt that the project was going extremely well. The change management team were extremely concerned about the lack of communication and training, poor planning and ineffective roll-out. The Training Department reported no issues on their part until their tasks appeared on the change management schedule. Various players viewed this initiative through a noticeably different lens.

The affected employees reported appreciation for the communication attempts, but complaints and resistance surfaced when plans were not executed as promised in the communication sessions. This caused ambiguity which, in turn, increased uncertainty. Many employees phoned the researcher and asked when their software will be migrated because they had already completed the training. When following up, IT stated that they were a little behind on their roll-out schedule. This again emphasised the disconnect between various departments in terms of following plans, communicating and working together to ensure a unified voice among affected employees.

#### **5.4.7 Organisational communication method**

Communication attempted to develop trust while cultivating employees' engagement and involvement. It was hoped that shared communication would motivate employees to engage with this change initiative. Communication sessions created a



forum for upward communication, affording bottom levels the opportunity to communicate with the top levels of the organisation. The normal communication method is downward communication, which assumes the correct information is passed from managerial levels to the lowest level of the organisation.

A more interactive communication approach tried to emphasise the importance of sending, receiving and understanding information and meaning. Interactive communication ensured that the correct message was received and understood.

Realising the importance of communication in the successful implementation of this change initiative, it seemed necessary to utilise various forms of communication, to ensure that the organisation engaged in two-way communication, to allow for feedback and to incorporate such feedback as well as finding innovative ways of employing the grapevine to the project's advantage. The grapevine was used as an inevitable part of informal WSI communication. This proved especially useful given the importance of these communications, the possible threatening nature of these changes and the organisational culture in which lack of trust was prevalent.

In light of the above, the communication strategy was built around the following principles: to utilise various forms of communication; to ensure two-way communication; to ensure engagement and feedback; to incorporate feedback seriously; and to employ innovative ways of using the grapevine. The concept of communication, as opposed to information sharing, was accepted as the foundation on which the entire communication strategy would be built.

Given various constraints (time to roll-out, release from line, day and night shift workers) communication sessions had to play a primary part in the project. The content for each session as well as the formulation of relevant questions for discussion purposes would be imperative to ensure the success of the project. Timely responses to feedback were not negotiable.

The format of the communication sessions was established along the guidelines of first introducing the project and WSI and WSEG concepts. This entailed explaining

the reasons for the change, the potential benefits and the impact on each individual. The second objective was to explain how this change would affect each individual. The third objective was to enlighten individuals on the benefits they could expect in their own work environment as a result of these changes. The fourth objective was to engage individuals through asking relevant questions, and lastly to use relevant responses to constructively give feedback to the business on topics such as policy creation and training.

Hence the communication project plan comprised information on all topics relating to WSI and WSEG. Posters and animations were used to create awareness in common areas. Company-wide e-mails and memorandums supported the awareness campaign. The communication campaign ran for the duration of the project and finished when all employees had concluded the training and once the migration of all employees to the new technology had been accomplished. All relevant change point topics were discussed through catchy one-liners.

Communication sessions were fashioned in ways that enhanced employees' feeling of participation. In total 60% of affected employees attended these communication sessions. Content was explained, opinions were heard and employees were afforded the opportunity to raise concerns and ask questions in order to clarify matters. Two sessions were held daily over a three-week period. Sessions were scheduled in accordance with production requirements to ensure optimal attendance. The communication sessions were led in an informal, non-threatening manner and active participation was encouraged. Although numerous employees attended each session, these were kept informal and led to questions and answers. Comments and feedback from the communication sessions were worked into policy creation and training material in an attempt to increase employee engagement. However, some employees did not seem to engage in the slide show sessions. Employees who struggled to engage constituted part of the demography that traditionally sit in circles and tell stories.

Employees who were generally known for spreading rumours were asked to assist with communication. Information was shared with these employees and they were

asked to share the message. It was perceived that first-hand information sharing with these employees would make them feel important, reduce the circulation of rumours and ensure that the correct messages were shared through informal channels. The assistance of these employees would then be in order to share these messages during informal employee discussions. It was assumed that these employees would in any event be sharing information with colleagues. Correct information would empower and enable them to spread the correct message while enhancing employee awareness.

#### **5.4.8 Problems and steps taken to rectify them**

The IT Department had worked during 2013 to ensure hardware readiness for this project. However, the IT Department had not considered the impact of such a change on employees. As a result, a change management component was attached to the project as an afterthought. Again, no time plan was allocated for change activities, which were imperative for the success of the project.

As a result, the change management project team had to compromise on various activities. Communication sessions would not be a first choice for communication because of their formal nature. However, with a little adaptation and flexibility, 60% of the affected employees did attend and consequently received the WSI and WSEG message.

Training plans were adjusted to include policy elements. A process was put in place to ensure that every affected employee would be trained in WSI and WSEG before migration to the new packages. Various constraints from an IT perspective surfaced during these discussions. Because of these discussions, the concerns could be mitigated and planned for before they became issues.

A list of employees with their training dates was given to the external supplier responsible for migration. Only upon receipt of confirmation of training did the external supplier change the packages of the relevant employees. This ensured that everybody would receive training and education on the use of the new tools.

During April 2014, a number of incompatible computers were found. This raised concerns because these employees would be unable to perform their daily activities after migration. As a result, a brief, four-question readiness probe was sent out prior to the start of training in order to collect further feedback. This allowed the team to identify some incompatible hardware which could be corrected prior to the commencement of the training. This activity further indicated that the majority of users were aware of the WSI training requirements.

Executive secretaries, coordinators and clerks from various departments were selected to participate in pilot training. During the pilot training, super-users were identified and included in the project to assist with the roll-out and to facilitate technical assistance for users after roll-out and migration. This approach alleviated support pressure from IT and ensured that most areas had trained users who could assist with general queries.

#### **5.4.9 Organisational change results**

IT indicated that the project should be live by June 2014. A feasible project schedule was drawn up, indicating the training and migration of all 3 000 employees by the end of July 2014. Training material was developed in time and comprised e-mail etiquette and technology training elements. The pilot training revealed small change points which were addressed and reworked into the training manuals before formal training started.

The concept of every employee being trained in the new software and then migrated was followed for the majority of employees. Exceptions were made for executive employees. All executive secretaries formed part of the pilot training. Subsequently, executive secretaries would be migrated first and the relevant executives to whom they reported would be migrated thereafter to ensure a smooth transition at executive level. Executive secretaries were also able to resolve small issues and played a huge role in ensuring seamless operations for the highest levels in the organisation.

The rest of the employees were scheduled for training based on a concept of three departments in close proximity of one another. This ensured that operations in each department could continue, but also assisted the IT Department with its post-roll-out support. Average training attendance amounted to 82% of employees who had been earmarked to attend the training. Training attendance was reported at 57%. The Training Department perceived such improved training attendance to be attributable to more effective communication and an increased understanding of the project and the personal impact of the project on employees. The change management project team anticipated a fair amount of rescheduling for training. Surprisingly, operational requirements demanded only minimal changes to the training schedule.

This project did not follow a proper change management model or methodology, but communication and training received attention. Unfortunately, increased stress and anxiety were not addressed. Management increased anxiety through poor planning, inadequate preparation and inconsistent execution. Leadership did not provide guidance in terms of the magnitude of the change and the subsequent human change required to cope with this radical change.

#### **5.4.10 Organisational change challenges**

The main challenge this project faced related to poor planning. Because of poor planning, crucial elements had to be rushed and reduced. However, albeit late, the importance of change relating to communication and training, was acknowledged and these activities did take place. In effect, poor planning also touched on the inability of members to think and work in a cross-functional manner in order to achieve a common goal or target.

Further challenges related to the innate difficulty employees in different departments had in working together to achieve a joint, successful result. When under pressure, IT indicated that the project belonged to HR. When the Training Department encountered difficulties, it pointed fingers at IT. When HR felt cornered, they shifted the blame to Communications.

Improved planning would have ensured that the change element related to this project would be taken on board at the same time as IT commenced its activities. This would have enabled the entire cross-functional team to work together from the outset, which might have improved the sense of cohesion among these cross-functional departments.

#### **5.4.11 Beyond results**

Involving people through information sharing creates the potential to motivate different aspects of their performance (Imberman, 2003). This project endeavoured to be successful with both downward and upward communication. This was achieved to a large extent as proved by the readiness probe which was sent out to all affected employees. As per Randall (2010), the stance of the change management team was that technology alone could not replace the social aspect of face-to-face contact. As such, the technical project was supplemented with a change management project.

The grapevine was used as an active communication channel. People talk and they therefore need to receive the correct message. The change management team advocated active information sharing. The change management team realised that this channel would increase employee trust. The reason for this could have been that employees received the messages from peers or purely because they received information and were not left wondering about what was going to happen next.

The communication element of this project attempted to create meaning for the affected employees as receiving and understanding proved to be the most important operations in the communication process (Scott, 2005). This meant going beyond two-way communication and allowing a safe space where employees could join in the conversation. The communication sessions were changed to informal to allow for close discussion. This was further facilitated through a different seating arrangement, not using any communication equipment such as microphones and bringing the facilitator into the conversations. Through these discussions it also became clear that the communication attempt had been successful.

The feedback aspect of communication was critical. No outstanding question was allowed to remain unanswered for more than 24 hours. Any questions that were asked via e-mail or reached the CM team were answered, at the latest, the following day. To further enforce the idea that feedback was deemed an indispensable component (Guo and Sanchez, 2005), feedback largely contributed to the creation of the WSI training manual and the WSEG policy and guideline material.

Realising the significance of communication in the successful implementation of this change initiative, it seemed important to utilise various forms of communication. Various communication forms assisted the organisation to engage in two-way communication, to allow for feedback and to incorporate such feedback. Furthermore, innovative ways of employing the grapevine were found to the project's advantage.

#### **5.4.12 Integration**

There seemed to be an association between communication and employees' attitudes towards change. When employees received information about change, they seemed to experience a greater openness, which lowered their resistance to change. The reality of this change initiative again led the researcher to reintegrate the adapted U-movement depicted figure 5.2. Figure 5.6 indicates a hierarchical structure with boxes depicting the organisational structure.

Figure 5.6 indicates that a coherent, complete individual resides in each box. Although this structure differs, the individual should still be attended to. If not, the U-movement is likely to skew to the left, resulting in resistance.



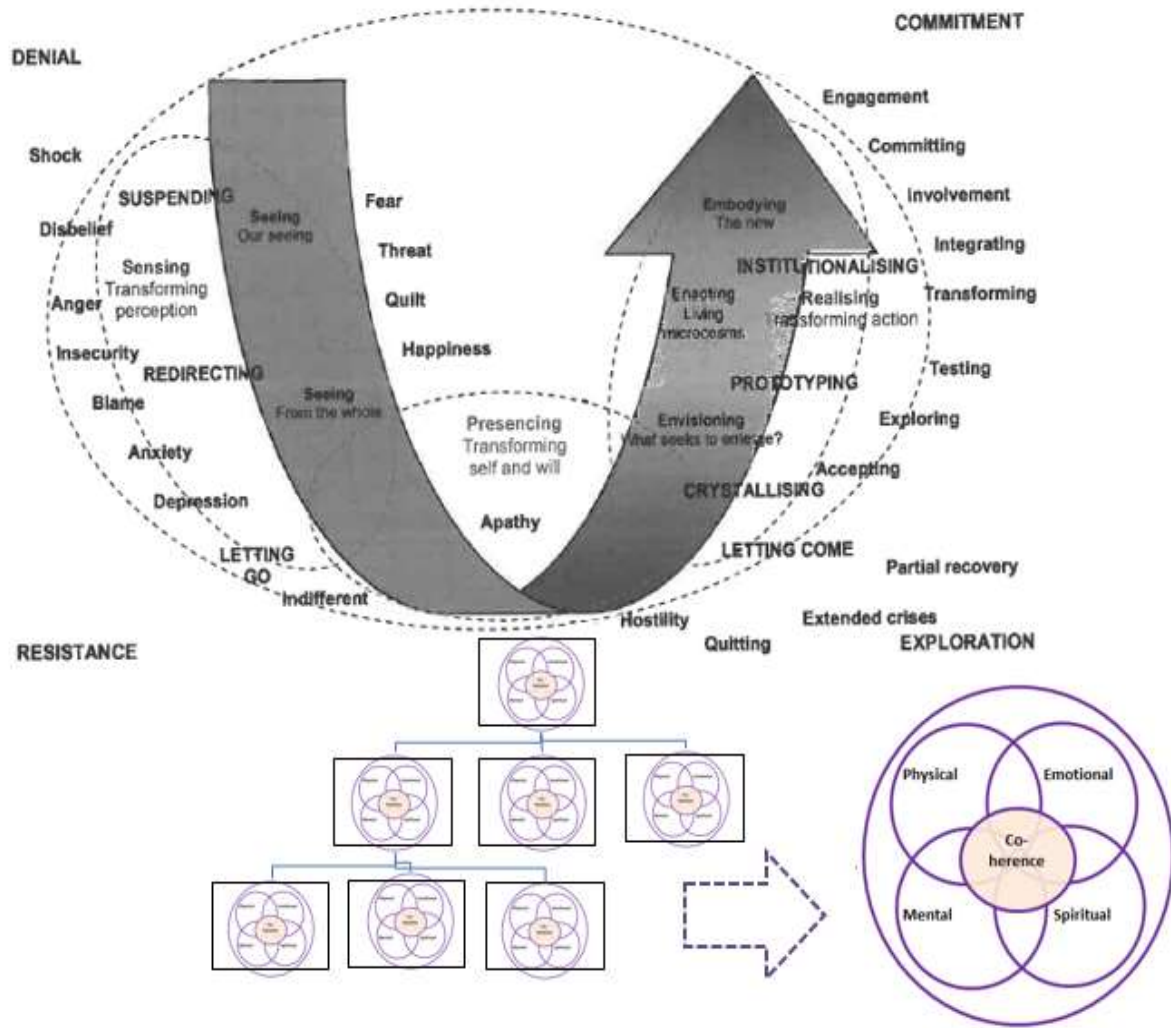


Figure 5.6: Adapted U-movement integrating organisational description (Scharmer and Kaeufer, 2010:25; Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008:82)

Given the played-out reality of different thinking methods or human niches (Laubscher, 2013) and different perceptions between different organisational players, in such a hierarchical structure, individuals experience increased difficulty with discussion and/or communication. The principles displayed in figure 5.6 will serve as a building block element in organisational change and leadership.

This change initiative introduced limited elements related to change management. However, applying small elements made a difference. Involving, engaging, explaining, ensuring understanding and participation, validates the reasoning for the project. Lewin's original three-step-model was depicted in figure 2.1. The approach



followed in this change initiative is depicted in figure 5.7, indicating a joint project and change management approach.

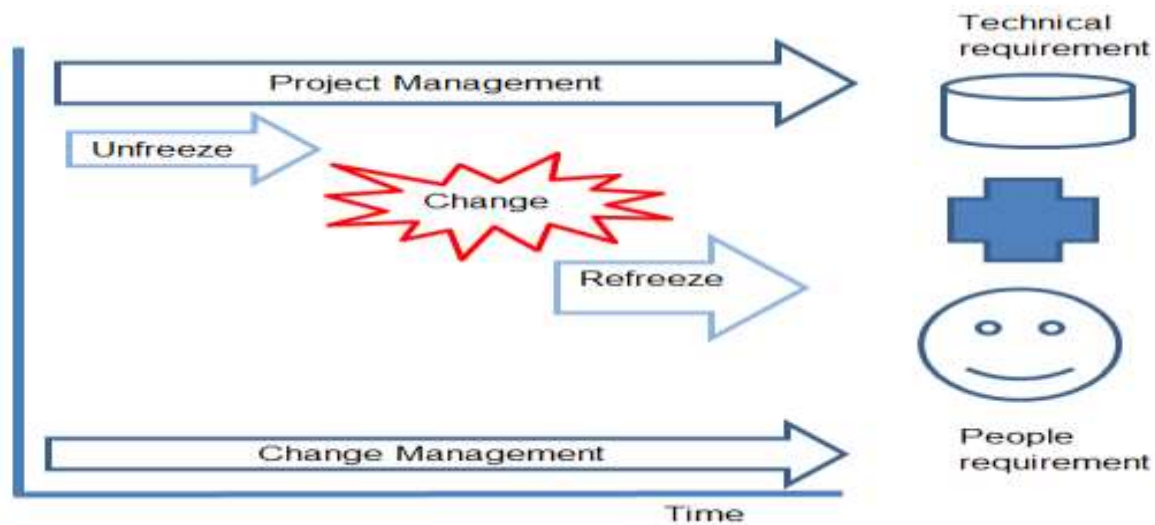


Figure 5.7: Adapted version of Lewin's (1951) three-step-model

Figure 5.7 indicates that a joint project and change management effort is able to support both technical and people requirements. However, in this specific change initiative, the change management portion was admittedly small.

#### 5.4.13 Conclusion

Organisational change initiatives increase individual stress and deplete the individual's adaptive capacity. Reducing stress and anxiety allows people to carry on with what they have to do. Employees spend less time pondering or mulling over things when relevant information is provided at the appropriate time. Relevant, timeous information also reduces the need to spread rumours. Clearly explaining the steps and how every employee needs to be involved reduces the need to gossip. Ensuring the correct understanding reduces and largely minimises resistance.

Through the application of a combined technical and change management project method, the project was completed successfully. The change-over became almost inconsequential and the number of issues negligible. Planning and interdependence can be hugely improved, but being allowed to implement small elements differently should be celebrated.

## **5.5 INTEGRATION**

Consolidating the integrations from the case study indicates different thinking systems at play in an organisation. The self-organising principles of each thinking system also seem evident and were represented in figures 5.2, 5.4 and 5.6. These thinking systems may group together covertly or manifest explicitly. It would also appear that each thinking system handles stress and accountability differently. These different thinking systems do not appear to understand each other, and often struggle to grasp management's rationale. Different thinking systems will not respond equally to a one-size-fits-all organisational approach to communication. The importance of implementing a multifaceted approach which integrates different thinking systems therefore seems clear.

## **5.6 CONCLUSION**

This chapter presented a summary of the experiences of three large, vastly different, organisational change initiatives. The data presented in this chapter was subjected to grounded theory analysis together with the data collected in in-depth interviews and focus group sessions. Following a combined approach of case study and grounded theory, would allow flexibility and ensure a rich harvest of research data.

Although various lessons were learnt during the implementation of the fleet, TWT and WSI projects, these lessons were not generally taken to heart and institutionalised in the organisational operations and culture. Significant points that emerged during the first and second change initiative as having been handled incorrectly were the lack of participation, communication, consultation and discussion opportunities. Also, the organisation seemed unable to handle elevating individual stress levels. A lack of management and poor leadership appeared to further increase stress because of the combination of poor planning and preparation, no guidance and not sharing the vision or the end point.

The significance of change management when work methods change and the radical change affects employees in the lower levels of the organisation, was displayed. The important role of leadership and the human elements involved in change came to the fore. The negative impact of ineffective, inefficient and dysfunctional communication

to ensure proper understanding were evident. Paradoxically, the organisation was willing to put time and effort into damage control after an unsuccessful implementation, but spending time and effort on consultation, involvement and participation was not deemed important during the earlier phases of the organisational change initiative.

Negative attitudes, coupled with different and overlapping perceptions, worldviews and thinking systems, stood out as obstacles in the process of change. A clear inability on the part of leaders and managers to effectively acknowledge and cater for these different and overlapping perceptions, worldviews and thinking systems was further aggravated by an attempt to enforce a general solution for a diverse population. The inability of leaders and managers to harness and employ this diversity further increased the difficulty of achieving successful organisational change.

What was evident was the lack of integration between leadership and any change methodology. However, considering the change models discussed in chapter two, coupled with the real diversity dilemmas and emotional displays faced in an organisational change context, it would seem that following any change methodology might have been futile. Furthermore, that discord between leadership and current change methodologies would have been inevitable.

Chapter six deals with the research findings pertaining to the complexities of organisational change and leadership. These findings will be presented according to the data collection methods of in-depth interviews and focus group sessions.

## **CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH FINDINGS**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter the case study provided the context for the emerging change framework which is the primary objective of this thesis. This chapter focuses on the research findings pertaining to the complexities of organisational change and leadership. These actualities were presented from the perspective of organisational leaders and employees who had recently been subjected to organisational change initiatives.

The research findings will be discussed on the basis of the in-depth interviews and focus group sessions. The in-depth interviews are logically grouped together. Each focus group session is discussed separately.

### **6.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS**

The researcher refrained from advancing reasons for or finding explanations for or the causes of individual experiences reported by members of the sampling group. This section represents the beliefs and assumptions of the individuals who participated in the qualitative research. The data gathered from the eight in-depth interviews and the four focus group sessions was used for this analysis. Verbatim responses and a category extract are provided in appendix H.

#### **6.2.1 In-depth interviews**

In chapter one, table 1.1, the researcher indicated that six senior regional leaders, two ex-CEO's and two divisional heads would be interviewed. Because data collection was driven by the emerging theory, theoretical sampling was applied. Through the application of theoretical sampling, the sampling group changed. Actual in-depth interviews were therefore conducted with two ex-CEOs, two CEOs, three senior regional leaders and one divisional head.

##### *6.2.1.1 In-depth interview (ex-CEOs)*

Two in-depth interviews were held with ex-CEOs. These individuals had been subjected to mergers, acquisitions and culture changes in organisations. The

purpose of these interviews was to understand the role of leadership and the concept of organisational change from a strategy perspective.

In the first interview, the first respondent was not aware of any change models. His organisation had not used any/or had not been influenced by any organisational change model. The second respondent was aware of change models and management theory, but could not name any models.

The next question related to the main forces resulting in change. The first respondent discussed the economy, external affairs and union demands. He stated that South Africa is faced with many changes, but he saw change as positive. “We have to keep evolving. Evolving and involvement means change.” He mentioned that if the organisation does not change, it stands still. “If we stand still, we die.”

During the second interview, the second respondent mentioned survival, competitiveness, efficiency and sustainability as reasons for change. It was stated that “change for the sake of change will fail”. People must understand the reasoning behind the change. They must understand the “burning platform” and what is required to put the fire out.

It was the opinion of the first respondent that the purpose of change is to evolve towards something positive. However, the person did caution that buy-in is important and that change must be positive. Buy-in could be obtained through careful explanation and reasoning. The respondent argued that constant communication and participation are vital.

Communication in the work environment, union challenges, pitting workers against bosses and the difficulty of obtaining buy-in without specific, well-themed communication were discussed. The conversation drifted towards the difficulties experienced by the platinum mines, and the respondent stated that communication in such an environment is “extremely difficult”, “communication doesn’t work” and that “they need some other form of communication”.

The respondent was asked whether he had any idea of what such other form of communication should be. He answered that confrontational behaviour is a dilemma. Also, that people should see the bigger picture in South Africa, consider everybody and not have a short-term view.

According to the second respondent “communication is an old chestnut”. This respondent claimed that people do not recognise communication when it happens. “Communication goes on all the time. The organisation can’t function without communication.” The issue was raised that management communication is not perceived as such.

The first respondent discussed the importance of leadership in change situations and emphasised the significant role of leadership and management. However, without trust, change will not be successful. The respondent again reflected on the platinum mines, stating that management did not handle the strike issues well. “The way we build trust and develop trust” must change.

The second respondent agreed on the importance of trust. “It’s all about trust.” Followers should trust their leaders, and be prepared to “go to war” with their leaders. “People have to trust the leadership.” “Leadership without trust is management.” The respondent mentioned that trust has a dual responsibility and “leadership must also implicitly trust their followers”.

“Perhaps a shared method would be more meaningful”, the first respondent suggested. Everybody would then know that we are all in the same predicament. The respondent reasoned that then it would not help to “talk to whoever is standing next to me, who is also in the same predicament”.

According to the second respondent, the design of the new organisation should come from the people. Organisations should “fundamentally trust their people” because the future of the organisation is in their hands. “They have to be involved. They have to build the future organisation.”

It was said that management have to have a strategic outlook. The first respondent spoke about the many “world firsts” coming out of South Africa. He stated that perhaps during times of isolation, change had to come from within. Now, as part of the global village, change is forced from the outside.

According to the first respondent, his organisation did well in terms of planning, forecasting and strategic thinking. However, he perceived the organisation’s stable workforce with reasonable education to play a large part. “Our employees don’t leave” and management is stable. That makes it easier to “get towards a common vision.” It was stated that it is up to management to convince the staff that the way forward is the right way and that this will benefit everyone in the long term.

The second respondent disagreed, stating that “I really don’t believe we plan for change”. Strategy should encompass change, but “definitely does not”. This respondent asserted that senior people do not live the strategy, and do not know what has been successful or what has failed. “Planning for change is the exception.” The respondent stated that “a forward thinking concept” is correct, but organisations generally follow mechanistic planning, which ends up in a cupboard. “If you don’t think about the future, you cannot plan change.” Also because the future is unknown, we need to forecast frequently.

Both respondents agreed that short-term, opportunistic actions are becoming more prominent in the business world. Although one respondent said that organisations must take risks, both agreed that organisations increasingly discard longer-term thinking for “instant gratification”.

The topic of resistance was discussed, and the first respondent stated that mistrust in management largely contributes to resistance. Also, not everybody has the same vision, and the benefits and how to get to the vision may differ. Communication was mentioned as a method to overcome resistance.

The importance of leadership in the change process was stated. Managers are expected to be part of the team, however, “a manager who is not part of the team

and who is not a leader” should not be there, and the sooner you “get rid of him the better”.

Again, the second respondent disagreed, stating that there is really no difference in management and leadership in an organisation with a stable or a turbulent environment. “Fundamental core qualities and requirements of the leader don’t change” because of environmental changes.

According to the second respondent, “organisational change strengths rest on leadership”. He went on to say that “poor leadership is a huge issue”, and “nothing can compensate for poor leadership”.

This respondent asserted that leaders must communicate effectively and correctly, and communication is not always understood. Situational communication was perceived as one solution to the communication dilemma.

The second respondent drew a distinct difference between managers and leaders. “Appointing a manager is no issue at all, appointing a leader is an entirely different matter.” “The leader cannot decide if he is a leader, the followers will decide.” According to this respondent, leadership is granted to the leader by the followers. Also, leadership is counter-intuitive and paradoxical. The “leader is holding up the people”, allowing them to fulfil their duties. “Humility is important.” Arrogance was said to be the “antipathy of good leadership”.

According to the second respondent, the job of the leader in change is to make people understand the reasoning behind the change. “Leadership generally does not succeed in the above.” He went on to say that “changes are inevitable” but how to “do it in a sustainable way”, is the job of the leader.

The second respondent asserted the following: “Change without trustful leaders is difficult and even traumatic.” “Employees fear change”. The respondent admitted to not knowing the details of his employees. “I don’t know where they live or their



personal circumstances.” After a moment of reflection he laughed and said “they must think I’m mad when I talk about change”.

“Organisational change creates stress.” The second respondent said that whether in times of stability or change, organisations do not handle stress properly. The first respondent agreed, saying “we are not handling stress properly”. He added that “I don’t think we handle stress as an organisation”.

Both respondents agreed that fear is a large contributor to resistance. They both agreed that involvement is required to obtain buy-in. Buy-in was perceived as a method through which resistance could be minimised.

#### *6.2.1.2 In-depth interview (senior leaders)*

Three interviews were held with senior leaders. The original intention was to interview six senior leaders, but, availability constraints rendered this impossible. However, through theoretical sampling, two CEOs who did not form part of the original plan, were interviewed.

The three respondents had all been closely involved with change in South African organisations. The organisation for which one respondent worked changed had changed from a local to an international endeavour, and in so doing, had drastically changed the business environment. Another respondent had worked for an organisation that operated at the forefront of technology. This organisation had continually been involved in radical changes through technological implementations. The organisation of the last respondent had been involved in international marketing. Respondents were based in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. The purpose of these interviews was to understand the role of leadership and the concept of organisational change as viewed by senior employees who form part of strategic change initiatives.

The researcher asked whether the person was aware of any change models or whether any models had influenced the organisation. All three respondents who were interviewed responded negatively to both questions.

The next question related to the main forces resulting in change. One respondent replied that the marketing environment, new competitors, competitors exiting the market and new products all forced the organisation to change. Another respondent stated that they are very aware of what their competitors do. They watch their competitors extremely closely and “although we don’t change because we want to be followers, sometimes we change because we have to keep up”. The third respondent indicated the main triggers as market dynamics and leadership vision. It was stated that direct triggers are related to market conditions.

One respondent felt that care should be taken not to treat change as the “flavour of the month” as people will then not buy-in to the change. The respondent asserted that if people perceive change for the sake of change or just for the sake of something new, change will fail. It was the opinion of this respondent that as long as the change was understood, people would be reasonable about changing.

The third respondent said that his organisation had been exposed to many types of changes, “within the organisation and within teams”. However, he said that his “organisation does not prepare well for change”. According to him, many processes and procedures regulates daily business life which “kills change and initiatives”.

One respondent asserted that “constant communication, throughout the entire process is important”. However, she also mentioned that people naturally want to evolve and improve. She felt that if change is not communicated clearly, it will be difficult. The difficulty of communication in South Africa with diverse educations and backgrounds was mentioned, but none of the respondents had clear solutions to how communication could be improved.

“Communication, honesty, integrity, authenticity” were emphasised as important during organisational change initiatives. One respondent mentioned that empowerment and engagment are critical to success. Another stated that critical success factors are leadership role models, communication and “making the wider population feel like co-owners” of the change initiative.

According to the third respondent, his organisation was extremely strong in internal communication. The organisation sees trends, but mechanisms to translate these trends into business actions are challenging. The organisation finds it difficult to translate the business vision into a change vision. The respondent admitted that despite strong internal communication processes, not everybody always understood the message that was being communicated.

“Usually the attitude towards change is negative.” Given the high prevalence of change, one respondent said that people should “breathe” the change. However, this respondent stated that “breathing the change requires leadership example”. “Past experiences contribute to resistance.” Employees who have survived five unsuccessful change deployments stop believing that the sixth change will be successful. “But of course change is very stressful.”

It was the sentiment of one respondent that people are critical to successful change. People in key positions must show clearly that they are leading the change and “that they are not afraid to embark upon change”. Leaders cannot be afraid of change and/or risks.

All the respondents were adamant that leadership is required. One respondent said that communication is difficult without good leadership. Weak management was also mentioned as a difficulty during change. “If the people you are trying to change don’t trust you, you are not going to win.” Leadership is the “key to success”. “People will not follow leaders whom they perceive as not accepting the change.” Important leadership characteristics were perceived to be “honesty, authenticity and integrity”.

“Within our company, everything is shared. If the company does well, everybody benefits. That has worked well for us. People understand the principle and know that is how it works.” Another respondent agreed that a shared approach may be beneficial as he acknowledged the importance of employees in a change process.

According to one respondent, having a strategic outlook was essential, given the changes they had experienced in the external environment. Their external

environment had changed drastically with the removal of export incentives. According to this respondent, achieving the end point, might require changes which, in turn, might drive the change “for our strategic aim.” Another respondent asserted that strategy should absolutely encompass change, but that that was not always the case.

Another respondent emphasised that translating the vision with a changing workforce is difficult. With high staff turnover, one has to start from scratch again and again. “I think you need a certain level of education to be able to understand why it’s needed to change.” This respondent stated that “without a level of education, communication is extremely challenging”. Another respondent postulated that some employees may just be “against change because of religious reasons or customs”. However, all three respondents agreed that bad communication, poor leadership and ineffective management cannot lead to good change. “One must be able to communicate with all the stakeholders”, and ensure that everybody understands, and then engage in the change.

The third respondent asserted that communication and flat structures could alleviate resistance. Having somebody to lead who owns the change process should also minimise resistance. The respondent stated that “managers should in fact be leaders”.

All three respondents highlighted the fact that stress plays a huge role during organisational change. One respondent said his organisation had no process or method to deal with increased stress. The other two respondents said there were processes in place, such as employee assistance programmes. These two respondents agreed that employees found it difficult, if not impossible, to ask for assistance through these programmes. Both respondents agreed that these programmes were generally not an effective method to reduce stress.

### *6.2.1.3 In-depth interview (CEOs)*

Two in-depth interviews were conducted with CEOs’ from different organisations. Although the original plan was to interview two ex-CEOs, through the process of

theoretical sampling, two current CEOs were interviewed. Both of them were intimately involved in organisational change. The purpose of these interviews was to understand the role of leadership and the concept of organisational change from a strategy perspective. Both CEOs were based in KwaZulu-Natal, and operated in the technological and educational industries, respectively.

Both respondents mentioned that they knew models and knew theory, but they were not able to name any models that had influenced or had been used by their organisations. Both agreed that they were influenced by what they saw around them and what the need at the particular point in time was.

One respondent asserted that the main motivator for change is the achievement of organisational goals. The other respondent mentioned technology, economics, a changing environment and survival.

It was indicated that a huge challenge in change is that employees “are not coming along”. “Organisational change is still not happening” as leaders struggle to “deal with the stumbling blocks”. This respondent felt that because people were not “coming along on the change journey” further changes were required to rectify initial stumbling blocks.

Unrealistic time frames for change were mentioned as one such a stumbling block. “People take a lot longer to change.” People have baggage which “affects their ability to change.” Organisations are often idealistic. “Not everybody will change.” However, the respondent stated categorically that “everybody should be given the opportunity” to engage in change. This respondent added that employees should be given time to adjust, but then there needs “to be progress by everybody”. This respondent felt that if employees do not join the change journey, “necessary endings” are called for.

Both respondents agreed that South African business generally does not prepare for change. The situation in this country was perceived as follows: “organisations embark on change, announce change late and do not prepare people”. One respondent asserted that preparation is “very important from a change point

perspective”. The second respondent mentioned that it was imperative to “show people where we are going”.

If people are not aware of what the roadmap looks like, they will be apprehensive and instinct might kick in. That will lead to resistance. This respondent said that when instinct kicks in, people become irrational and change then “becomes extremely difficult”.

Communication is essential to ensure a common understanding of the required change. This respondent felt that communication was difficult and that communication did not always succeed in translating the required message for the people. This respondent postulated that communication and participation relating to technology changes seemed particularly difficult. Both respondents agreed that poor and/or ineffective communication largely contributed to change failure.

The first respondent stated that “we all want the same things” but that this fact “is often missed during change”. If people are shown where to go, are included and allowed to participate, they “will gladly follow”. The second respondent disagreed, stating that there is often disconnect between individual and organisational goals.

This respondent continued that engagement and leadership commitment are vital during change. The second respondent postulated that “leadership is critical” during change and individuals should participate and be included in the changes from the outset. The first respondent felt that leaders “must be strong, people oriented, inclusive and sensitive”. According to the second respondent, leaders must be “trustworthy and take people along” in the change process. Both agreed that leaders must be effective communicators. “How leadership handles the change will determine the success of the change”.

Both respondents saw management and leadership as distinctly different functions. One respondent spoke of a “leadership mentality as opposed to a management mentality”. According to the other respondent, we often recruit managers instead of

leaders. “Then we expect the people to follow.” “If your leadership level is right the change process has a much greater chance for success”.

Humility was seen as a vital leadership characteristic. This respondent said that leadership must pull in the same direction. “Leadership must show a unified front.” This respondent was adamant that organisations “should not embark upon change until leadership is on the same page.” The other respondent stated that “ego, power-play and internal politics are definite leadership no-no’s.”

The importance of personality during change was mentioned. It was stated that not all personality types are suited to change. Often “steady-stables” do a mundane job which is critical. During change, you “want people who do the same job day in and day out and do it well, and are employed to do just that, to change.” According to her, “that causes huge stress and even bigger inefficiency”.

Both respondents agreed that empowerment is essential during change. One respondent asserted that empowerment should be bottom up through involvement, participation and setting of individual goals and action plans. The other respondent felt that leadership should communicate the goals and action plans as set out in the strategy. Leadership should then set the example and empower individuals to achieve the given goals.

Both respondents acknowledged the reality of fear during change. According to one respondent, “fear is the first response when talking change”. The other respondent said that when change is mentioned employees’ “survival instinct kicks in”. Both respondents agreed that change creates fear and that different messages perpetuate fear while creating unnecessary anxiety. “Uncertainty creates fear.” Both respondents agreed that different messages create trust difficulties.

Both respondents agreed that “stress plays a huge role”. The first respondent said that “change creates enormous stress which the organisation does not necessarily know how to deal with”.

Again, there was agreement that a lack of buy-in will result in resistance. One respondent said that “if stress is caused by the change, then people will say this is not working, I’m going back to the old way”. She went on to say that “I don’t think straight when I am under stress. Stress is a vicious cycle”. Both agreed that there is a lot more stress out there than what we perceive. One respondent felt that technology increased stress because it demanded instant responses from individuals.

The first respondent asserted that “we have to allow for time. Change takes time.” The other respondent said that in the organisation, time was often in short supply. As a result, “we often do the urgent and not the necessary”. During change, it was agreed that the necessary elements include leadership, communication, participation and involvement.

#### *6.2.1.4 In-depth interview (divisional head)*

One in-depth interview was conducted with a divisional head. This person had been involved in a merger, which had internationalised the organisation.

The respondent said that he had heard about change models, specifically that of Kotter, but that in his organisation, mostly internally developed best practices had been used.

In his previous organisation, they had never announced what they were going to do. “Management was doers and started initiatives top down.” His current company rolled out change from the top. However, unions and representatives were always reactive and were never pro-actively involved.

The opening up of the South African economy was mentioned as a main change driver. Old and outdated technology and equipment also forced change, as did legislation changes.



The respondent highlighted the importance of the leadership role, postulating that “leadership initiated all the change processes”. “Leadership was the most important part of the change process.”

“We were thrown into the deep end, didn’t have time, there was no planning. Consultants are then called in, but these consultants are often seen to be on the side of management. “This increases mistrust between management and employees.”

According to this respondent, “strategy must encompass change.” He added that strategy comprises “vision, mission statements, shared value systems and action plans”. “All of these involve change and leadership.” He stated that they tried, but “vision was not always translated effectively as a vision of change”. He went on to say that not everybody had bought into the “shared value systems.”

Although the organisation had a process in place to explain the impact of business changes, the respondent was not sure whether this process had been effective as “change caused fear and uncertainty.” The respondent admitted that they themselves often did not fully or clearly understand the change. “We tried our best, but if you are not clear, how do you expect people to follow you?”

In his organisation “fear and uncertainty was not always handled well”. He stated that “I don’t think we always realised the amount of stress we caused for individuals”.

“The role of the organisational structure is very important during change.” The respondent felt that the organisational structure often works against change. He added that in mature organisations, middle management is often the biggest obstacle to change.

When talking about change success, the respondent asserted that good communication-, preparation, and a solid understanding of the change would ensure success. “We have to ensure a clear understanding.” “A guarantee for failed change is unplanned sabotage of the change process by management.”

According to this respondent, his organisation had no strengths relating to organisational change. He said that communication was difficult and not always understood, there were big differences between management and employees, trust was an issue and leadership was not accepted by all.

“Employees perceive change as something to be feared.” “Fear contributes to resistance.” “Yes, fear creates stress.” He said that “most of the time change is chaotic”. The respondent added that it is unrealistic to expect performance and productivity from “stressed individuals”.

The importance of communication during change was reiterated, but “we don’t get communication right”. Organisations often use selective communication and biased messages. This increases the trust burden and “creates further stress”. He acknowledged that the organisation communicates, but said that he was not sure why communication was not understood.

Leadership was seen as crucial to the change process. The respondent posited that managers should become leaders as “opposed to resisters”. He added that “leaders need openness to change, willingness and enthusiasm. Leaders who can get it right to convince or communicate to get people behind him will be successful”. The respondent felt quite strongly about bad leaders, stating that “bad leaders must be kicked out”. “If they build a monster, they should be fired.”

According to the respondent, “the impact of stress on individuals during times of organisational change is huge”. He said that we do not realise the large amount of stress “out there. The impact of stress is immeasurable”. He added that uncertainty, fear and trauma are inherent to the change process. “Lots of fear is attached to the change process.”

“Organisations do not handle stress correctly.” The respondent went on to say that “we call the doctor or the *dominee* [minister] to come and deal with the stress. The organisation is not able to handle the amount of stress created during change.”

The respondent felt that empowerment during the change process was essential. However, he said that “empowerment is also a word like communication which we don’t get right and which we don’t understand”. He reiterated the importance of empowering employees during change. He was of the opinion that “if organisations have a process to engage and empower a large number of people during change, they will do well and change will be successful”.

### **6.2.2 Focus group sessions**

In chapter one, table 1.1, the researcher indicated that roughly 20 middle managers and 20 senior managers would be interviewed through focus group sessions. The purpose of these sessions was to understand the impact of organisational change initiatives on individuals and leaders from a senior management perspective. Another purpose was to explore the impact of organisational change on middle management, while understanding the role that middle managers play in change implementation. Four focus group sessions were held, each comprising between six and seven participants. In total, the opinions of 26 participants were heard.

#### *6.2.2.1 Focus group session 1*

Focus group session one comprised seven middle managers. This session had to be rescheduled three times owing to time constraints affecting various respondents. Prior to the session, four individuals phoned to establish the exact purpose. Even though the purpose was explained as research and participation was stated as voluntary and confidential, four participants repeatedly stated that they could not participate without the assurance of confidentiality. This session started hesitantly, yet took more than an hour to complete. Although the respondents knew the faces of the various respondents, some respondents had to be introduced to each other.

The respondents were asked what type of changes they had been exposed to in the last two years. All of them initially answered “none”. After a little probing, one respondent replied that after thinking about it, he had actually been exposed to “continuous change.” Another respondent agreed. The other respondents slowly started participating. One respondent mentioned that she had had “three managers in the last three years. Is that change?” Another respondent mentioned team

changes, while yet another responded that “we are actually always busy with some change.”

When asked how the organisation prepared for change nobody was willing to venture an opinion. The researcher stated again that these sessions were confidential and would not be discussed with anybody’s management. After a period of silence, one respondent stated that “the organisation is mostly reactive to change.”

The discussion moved to factors that are critical to success. One respondent stated that we “have to involve all”. Another confirmed this by saying we “must include the people”. A respondent spoke about the importance of communication, but also said “we must all participate”. One respondent asserted that the organisation does communicate, but that the communication is not understood. Two respondents agreed with this.

All participants agreed that the organisation does not have a process in place which assists individuals to understand the impact of change. When asked how they perceive change, respondents looked at each other but were hesitant to speak. After some probing one respondent said that she was currently involved in change for which she has no answers. “I don’t want to come to work when people expect answers from me and I have none.” Another replied with “skepticism”. Another said that “I’m ashamed of how we do change”. A respondent said that “nobody in HR knows how to do change”.

One respondent said “I was scared”. Another responded nodded, saying “I prayed a lot”. Someone then said “we do change backwards. We don’t speak to the people and then expect them to understand and know how to participate.”

The discussion turned to resistance and one respondent mentioned that she resisted because she did not understand. “Poor communication worsened my resistance.” Another respondent had decided to be negative “because of past experiences”. Yet another stated that she resisted because “I did not understand why”.

The researcher asked whether leadership is important for change. Everybody agreed, despite different opinions. “We have to have leaders.” “Not all managers are leaders.” It was said that some managers seek instant gratification and do not plan for change. According to one respondent, “management send out a memo and then think they have spoken to their people”.

Thereafter management was discussed. One respondent felt that “archaic management” was creating problems. Another said that “many middle managers are sceptical”. Yet another responded that “unsuccessful managers make change even harder”. One respondent said that “organisations can’t manage change”, while another asserted that “management look at plant productivity before people productivity”. According to a third respondent, “poor managers don’t plan or prepare. Poor management does not spend time on the right things.” According to another, “poor management creates disaster”.

The impact of individual stress on organisational change was discussed and everybody agreed that individuals struggle with heightened stress. One respondent mentioned that change causes “fear and resistance for many people”. Another stated that “many people feel insecure”. One respondent said that “change impacts on the individual”. Someone said that “we can’t accept change if we don’t understand the change”. Another agreed that change impacts on the individual, but that there is a “lack of personal interest in employees. Nobody knows or cares when someone is struggling.” Another said that there are always changes and that this “lack of stability creates fear and stress for everybody”.

One participant stated that she had been unable to function during the last changes. The researcher asked whether anyone else experienced this. Three respondents nodded in agreement.

About two weeks after this session, the researcher received a phone call from one of the respondents. The respondent said that she had been hesitant to share in the group, but said that she had experienced change as extremely stressful. “My anxiety increased.” She added that “I was unsure why the change was needed ... I came to

work and left. I have no decision making power.” The respondent also stated that she had never been involved and that there was no participation as “management decides”. She continued as follows: “I felt inconsequential after the change. Nobody listened.”

#### *6.2.2.2 Focus group session 2*

Focus group session two comprised one senior manager and five middle managers.

When asked about types of changes that this group had been exposed to, one respondent answered “departmental changes” another said “technology changes” another “project changes” and yet another said there “is always some type of change going on”.

The group was asked how the organisation prepared for change. One respondent said “we draw up schedules, deadlines and documents”. Another respondent said “yes, but we mostly miss the deadlines”. Another asserted that he thought the “organisation is mostly reactive to change”. Somebody said he was sure “there is a plan, but the plan is just not always shared with everybody”.

The second focus group combined and integrated a project approach into their answer, talking about documents, schedules and deadlines. In the first focus group session, participants had struggled to articulate what types of changes they had been exposed to and had not connected change to any schedules or project plans. Even so, both groups agreed to have been subjected to numerous changes.

Critical success factors were discussed and everybody agreed on leadership and communication as essential change factors. One respondent said that “communication is vital”. Another asserted that “a lack of communication contributes to resistance”. Another asked for “constant communication. I need to understand the change.” One respondent asserted that “authentic leadership” was important. Another mentioned an “awareness of people and increased transparency”. Somebody in the group emphasised that it was important not to do any harm, but to

solve the real problems. Another said that “management must know what to communicate”.

It was stated that the organisation had mechanisms in place to deal with change such as processes, procedures and schedules. However, it was agreed that there were no real processes in place to understand the impact of change. One respondent said “change was very messy”, another that things “are just done”.

Change was perceived by one respondent as follows: “Change is about spending lots of money and then calling consultants in to fix.” Another said that “change is messy”. Someone then mentioned he went “to the gym”, while someone else responded that she “prayed”. One respondent admitted to “coming to work and leaving”. This respondent said she found it extremely difficult to function, not understanding the changes and not understanding what was expected of her.

When asked whether they had resisted the change, the respondents answered in relation to other people, not themselves. They stated the following: “I know somebody really feared the changes and therefore resisted.” Another said that “one of my friends felt demotivated and disempowered after the changes they went through”. Another mentioned that he knew “if people understand, they will follow, but people don’t always understand why”. According to one respondent, she had experienced change as highly stressful because “people expect answers from me, but I don’t even understand what is happening”.

One respondent said people resisted change because of a lack of communication, while another asserted that “management does not want to communicate honestly”. Somebody said that “there is no communication”. One of the respondents looked perplexed and stated the following: “... but management communicates all the time. Every day there are memos and e-mails distributed?” The other respondents simply shrugged at this comment.

Again, everybody agreed that leadership was important in the change process. One respondent complained about management stating that “managers are short-sighted,

but should have a multi-faceted view. Managers are short sighted and only concerned with instant gratification.” Another then said that “management have a short term view and only looks at the bottom line”. Someone else mentioned that “management has no time”. One respondent said all she heard from her manager was “... no time”. Another commented that a certain manager “can’t afford half an hour to spend with his people”. Someone in the group brought the discussion back to leadership stating that “change can’t fix poor management or poor leadership”.

“Organisations don’t have change knowledge.” Another said that “organisations need change based on projects that went wrong”. According to one respondent, the organisation “doesn’t have any change knowledge. Organisations can’t support change internally.” After reflecting, one respondent asserted that “organisations need change support”.

“There is no planning for change but everybody thinks they are change managers.” One respondent reiterated that change can cause harm. Another commented that HR struggles with change and often hinders, rather than helps the change process.

The impact of stress on individuals was discussed and one respondent replied “that there is more stress than we perceive. Employees are extremely stressed and change makes it worse.” The respondents nodded in agreement. One respondent said that people feel insecure during change, while another commented that constant instability creates fear and then “survival kicks in”. According to someone else in the group, “change is chaotic”. Another respondent asserted that many employees operate on the basis of anxiety.

A respondent commented again that “people must understand the change, then they can contribute and participate”. The respondent added that it would be nice to be included. “A lack of participation and involvement will derail change.” Another respondent agreed, saying “we want to participate, we want to feel included”.

Everybody concurred that empowerment was important during change. One respondent said “we need tools to be empowered”, another that “empowerment is



important for decision making”. A third respondent asserted that “empowerment must come after communication”.

### *6.2.2.3 Focus group session 3*

Focus group session three comprised five senior managers and two middle managers. This session was vastly different from the first focus group session, because there was a lot more talking and more frank opinions, although one person hardly spoke. When asked her opinion, she would agree to what was being said.

The researcher asked what type of changes the group had been exposed to. Two respondents mentioned market changes. The other respondents answered with structure changes, leadership changes and project changes.

When change preparation was discussed, one respondent mentioned that “there is a plan”. Another respondent said “yes, there is a plan, but the plan is never shared”. Another respondent stated that the organisation had schedules for change. One respondent asked whether these schedules were adhered to. The previous respondent said “sometimes we do”.

There were many opinions on the critical factors for success. Four respondents agreed that the involvement of all is critical. One asked for authentic leadership, while another asked for increased transparency. Someone else said “we have to create workable solutions. We all want to feel like co-owners.” Yet another mentioned “honesty, integrity and participation”.

The respondents were asked whether the organisation had a process in place to understand the impact of change. Four respondents said the organisation did have policies and procedures in place. Another asked whether these procedures helped to understand the impact. After some discussion there was no agreement. Two respondents felt that “change is all over the show”, that “things are just done”. Four respondents felt change was governed by procedures. One respondent failed to respond.

The researcher questioned the respondents about their perception of change. Two of them said that “change is about empires, power games”. “Spending money on change and then doing damage control.” Some said that change must happen and that employees must comply. “If employees can’t comply with changes they must leave.” Someone asked if that was fair: “can people comply if they don’t understand the rationale behind change?” Again there was disagreement. Four respondents stated that change must happen - it is right and good to happen and moves the organisation forward. These respondents added that such changes should be communicated and implemented through the organisational and/or hierarchical structure. Two respondents agreed that change must happen, but felt that more input was required at an individual level through participation, inclusion and discussions. One respondent failed to comment.

The respondents were asked whether they resisted change. Four employees said “no”. “We have to change. That is the right thing to do.” Again, two respondents saw things differently. “People must understand otherwise they will resist.” The respondent said that “people see things differently”. Two respondents argued that there is more than one way to do change. This discussion created visible discomfort for four of the respondents. Their body language changed, they folded their arms and indicated through their body language that they had nothing further to contribute on this point. Throughout this discussion, one participant sat quietly with a downward gaze.

Everybody agreed that communication is important during change. Again there were different opinions. Four respondents said that the organisation does communicate. “There are communication channels” and “we send e-mails and memos”, the organisation “communicates all the time”. Another responded as follows: “Yes, but how many of those e-mails do you read?” This topic followed a similar path to the previous one. There was visible disagreement and no common understanding.

Everyone in the group agreed on the importance of leadership and said that leaders were required to guide followers during change. One participant commented that leaders were required to set the scene and show the way, but thereafter it was up to

management to execute the plan. This comment was again attacked, with one respondent stating that “management can’t do change”. The respondent went on to say that “management does not have strengths in leading change”. Another asserted that “change needs time. Management never has time. Management wants instant fixes.” According to one respondent, “senior management does not explain properly”.

One respondent continued as follows: “Organisations don’t have change knowledge” and “organisations need change based on projects that went wrong”. The same respondent asserted that the organisation “doesn’t have any change knowledge”. According to another respondent, “organisations can’t support change internally. Organisations need change support”. The previous respondent spoke again, saying that “there is no planning for change and everybody think they are change managers. Managing change is an art.” The other respondent agreed, saying “no change knowledge can cause harm. Managers don’t have change knowledge which makes change worse.” This person added that he felt “ashamed of what change managers do”. The other respondent agreed, saying “not everybody in HR can do change. HR often hampers change.”

Another respondent concurred, saying that “poor managers don’t plan or prepare”. “Poor management does not spend time on the right things.” “Poor management create disaster.” “We don’t plan for change” and that there is “... no early start on change”. “Shortcuts result in difficulties for employees.” “You see that there is no planning for change.” “South African organisations do not plan for change.”

The above statements that South African organisations do not plan or prepare for change again caused visible discomfort among the other participants. One participant stated that he disagreed and folded his arms. The one participant mentioned previously, still sat with an averted gaze, not saying a word.

When the impact of stress on individuals was discussed, one respondent said that the organisation had an employee assistance programme to help individuals who struggle to cope. One respondent started laughing and asked “Do you really think that helps? Do you really think people who are really stressed will volunteer and ask

to be placed on these programmes?” Another respondent mentioned that there were always changes and “this lack of stability creates fear”. “People often respond with fear and become irrational during changes.”

Everybody agreed that empowerment was important during change. However, four respondents commented that the organisation did empower people. “There are training courses that people can attend.” It was mentioned that change enables people to do things, but because of their own negativity, they do not feel empowered. Again there was disagreement. Another respondent commented as follows: “I experience a lack of empowerment. We must relook at empowerment.” Somebody said that “empowerment is a very important element of change”. Again, these different opinions caused discomfort for some of the participants.

A few weeks after the above session, the researcher received a phone call from the respondent who had sat quietly throughout all the discussions. The person asked whether she could come and see the researcher.

In a confidential setting, the respondent shared that she had been extremely scared, fearful and anxious. She stated that after the discussion, she had realised that she had been extremely stressed by the changes, but that there was no outlet in the organisation which she trusted enough to turn to.

The person shared with the researcher that she had been subjected to numerous changes in the workplace, but that life at home had also been extremely stressed. She admitted to having contracted a sexual disease, after which her partner had left her. She stated that “... I tried ... but now I also struggle at work”. “I felt unhappy and unsure.” “I prayed a lot.” “The organisation has a very bad understanding of employees.” “Continuous change is unproductive.”

#### *6.2.2.4 Focus group session 4*

Focus group session four comprised five middle managers and one senior manager. The purpose of this session was to understand the impact of organisational change on middle management, while comprehending the role that middle managers play in

change implementation. The session started with participants responding openly, but, the tension in the room increased as the session progressed. Halfway through the session, the participants stopped responding freely, allowing one individual to respond to the questions. Therefore, although this session displayed employee dynamics related to the topic of organisational change, it was debatable whether this session actually achieved the stated purpose.

The first question related to the types of changes the group had been exposed to. One respondent mentioned “radical changes in the last 18 months”. Another said project changes, yet another, team changes. One respondent stated offhandedly that there were always changes.

The group was asked how the organisation prepared for change and the respondents started by saying that “change is done roughly”. “Deadlines are always missed.” “There is no planning.” There is a “lack of planning”. There is “no schedule for changes”. Then the senior manager replied that it is impossible to plan for change - “people should grow up and just deal with it”.

This behaviour upset some of the group members, and they appeared visibly shaken. It took some time before the majority of the group would volunteer opinions again. Throughout the rest of the session, some members in the group remained quiet and continued to refrain from offering further opinions.

The researcher asked what the critical success factors were to ensure successful change. The respondents offered answers such as the following: “involve all”; “communication”; “improve communication”; “participation and understanding”; and “leadership”.

The conversation then turned to management. One respondent mentioned that proper management was critical, and another that “management must know how to communicate”. One respondent commented that “management must understand the employee and his/her job”. This statement sparked another bout of aggression from the senior manager who stated that people should deal with change, and that

management knows all the jobs and understand the people. “What is not understood is that people don’t want to participate. Management does not have time to spend on nonsense.”

The researcher asked whether there are processes in place within the organisation to understand the impact of change. Nobody spoke except the senior manager who stated that “there is no change preparation because it is impossible”. “We have to deal with change as it happens, here and now.”

The discussion turned to how people perceived change. Respondents shrugged their shoulders and looked down. The respondents were visibly afraid to aggravate the senior manager. The respondents failed to answer this question.

Resistance was discussed. When questioned whether people resisted change, the senior manager again commented as follows: “People’s attitudes are negative, people must stop thinking and feeling sorry for themselves and just get on with life and their jobs and change.”

Everybody nodded that communication was important during change. The senior manager said that she was not sure “why communication is such an issue because the organisation communicates constantly. People just don’t want to hear.”

Again everybody agreed that leadership was important, but again, the senior manager took over the discussion, with everybody else sitting quietly. The respondent stated that “leadership is important”. “But we as management have a big task with change.”

One respondent said that “this change will result in my fifth manager in seven years, but nothing really changes. A lot of instability is caused, but in the end nothing really changes.” The senior manager commented that the person should stop moaning, as it was really not that bad.

When asked about the impact of stress on individuals, the respondents were unwilling to report their own experiences of stress, answering in the third person. One respondent said that he thought individuals might struggle with stress. Another commented that others probably experienced fear and anxiety, and yet another that change probably made other employees feel insecure.

According to the senior manager, stress is merely a convenient excuse because people are not willing to move out of their comfort zone and deal with what is happening in their lives.

### **6.3 INTEGRATION**

Different dynamics were displayed during the in-depth interviews and the focus group sessions. The different thinking systems of senior leaders and CEOs became evident as did the reality that people viewed and approached a similar concept in many different and diverse ways. It also seems clear that there were no right or wrong answers - only multifaceted perspectives.

Relating the dynamics in the focus group sessions to thinking systems of human niches displayed these various thinking systems. What was also evident was the lack of understanding between different human niches, coupled with the inability to see and understand each other's viewpoints. Even when participants agreed on the end point, there was no understanding of the different views people held in order to arrive at the same point.

The perceived impact of stress was also evident during the interviews. Participants admitted that organisational change created stress. However, nobody seemed able to successfully mitigate their individual stress levels during change. In addition, there was a lack of perceived support and assistance during periods of change.

However, a subtle undercurrent was evident in the focus group sessions. Some respondents sought safety, participation and feeling a part of something. When the environment became threatening or hostile, they shut up like clams. If the

environment was friendly and safe, they were willing to share their opinions, but, if their opinions were ridiculed, they resorted to silence.

During focus group session four, behaviour similar to bullying was displayed by the senior manager. When this senior person spoke, that was it, and nobody dared to cross the invisible line. Because this behaviour was linked to a senior position, the virtue of the position could have further increased the inhibitions of the other individuals.

The prim and proper respondents felt everything was right and justified. They found it difficult to understand why not everybody felt this way and why everybody could not see that their way was obviously correct. During one focus group session, it was evident how one respondent deliberately challenged these viewpoints which, in turn, rendered the other respondent despondent and glum.

#### **6.4 CONCLUSION**

The interviews indicated that different thinking systems or human niches are at play in organisations. However, what seems disconcerting is that these different ways of thinking are completely unaware of viewpoints other than their own. Secondly, organisations are unaware of these nuances. Thirdly, it seems that organisational processes and procedures do not cater for different thinking systems.

Even more alarming is the perceived impact of stress on different human niches. Through direct agreement or projection, everybody agreed that organisational change creates stress and that employees find it difficult to cope with increased stress. It also seemed as if organisational interventions do not speak to these different thinking systems or human niches.

Current change models fail to take these different thinking systems into account. However, because these different human niches are displayed in the organisation, it would seem that a one-size-fits-all organisational approach, is doomed to failure. As overt behaviours are displayed, the organisation and leaders should be able to respond with methods that resonate. However, organisations fail to do so, and there



is evidence of this in the academic literature. It therefore seems imperative to fully understand different human niches at play, totally comprehend the meaning of stress and grasp how the organisation can adapt knowledge of different thinking systems in order to assist individuals and to optimise the change experience of individuals.

Chapter seven discusses the research analysis. Data from the various data gathering methods will be compared and where applicable, will also be compared with relevant literature.

## **CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH ANALYSIS**

### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter will present the research analysis. Data from the various data gathering methods will be compared. Where applicable, the data is compared to data in the relevant literature. Data codes are discussed in relation to the case study, in-depth interviews and focus group sessions. Thereafter, the combined data are discussed in categories. A synthesis of the collected data on organisational change and leadership will be presented in this chapter.

### **7.2 DATA CODES**

#### **7.2.1 Case study**

Table 7.1 illustrates the similarities of themes extracted from the case study. Although the nature of the Fleet, TWT and WSI change initiatives were completely different, fundamental similarities were evident.

Change was perceived from a fear perspective. As such, stress, anxiety and fear were dominant themes in the case study. Individuals appeared to have a deep need to understand the rationale for organisational change, because a lack of understanding increases stress and anxiety. The importance of participation, communication, feedback and discussions as well as leadership was a recurring theme.

The lack of change management skills was prevalent. The non-existent integration between change management, leadership and management exacerbated the difficulties. Throughout the different change initiatives discussed in the case study, the inability of the organisation and leadership to address the increased stress levels arising from the change initiative was evident.

Table 7.1 indicates the importance of participation and inclusivity during periods of organisational change. The requirement of capability and competency to work optimally after the change initiative surfaced in the case study.

Table 7.1: Case study similarities

	Fleet	TWT	WSI
Participation and inclusivity	☹	☹	☹
Communication, feedback, discussion	☹	☹	☹
Leadership/change integration	☹	☹	☹
Organisational capability/competency to handle change	☹	☹	☹
Management/change integration	☹	☹	☹
Stress, anxiety and fear	☹	☹	☹
Resistance	☹	☹	☹
Impact of radical change on individuals	☹	☹	☹
Change management/methodology	☹	☹	☹
The individual's need to understand the change	☹	☹	☹
Different thinking systems	☹	☹	☹
Understanding of impact of stress	☹	☹	☹
Organisational capability to deal with the impact of stress and anxiety	☹	☹	☹
Ethical change	☹	☹	☹

Table 7.1 also indicates that the radical changes had a huge impact on individuals and they generally reacted with resistance. In the case study, emotions such as stress, anxiety and fear were very real.

Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) suggests diversity as a driving force for change. Analysing the case in terms of human niches indicates such diversity in an organisation made up of different thinking systems. According to Oreg (2006), employees' subjective experiences of change must be addressed to understand what resistance to change actually entails. A deep need for safety, participation and discussion is typical for PURPLE. PURPLE also seeks safety, which could explain the deep anxiety and fear experienced during change.

According to Werkman (2009), communication in large, bureaucratic organisations is less personal and more formal. Hence management's ability to effectively communicate organisational change is essential to mitigate the personal reasons for resistance to change such as fear of the unknown, lack of understanding, disruption of routine or perceived loss of security. However, the case study indicated a lack of organisational understanding of different human niches. The need for discussion and communication could be explained by the fact that PURPLE wants to belong. However, this also indicates the significance of applicable organisational methods, which speaks to the relevant human niches, in order to reduce individual stress.

Werkman (2009) reported that large, bureaucratic organisations with mechanistic structures can hinder change through too much managerial power and too many procedures and rules. Such mechanistic structures, managerial power, processes and rules largely cater for and speak to BLUE, forgetting about PURPLE and RED. The applied processes and rules of BLUE further increase stress, especially for PURPLE.

#### **7.2.1.1 Application of human niches to the Fleet initiative**

Applying the behaviour which resulted in the Fleet project to human niches reveals a RED departmental structure. The resultant flow of communication (downward only) is typical of a RED structure. An examination of this project through a human niche perspective indicates that the introduction of the new system was used as a power tool, further strengthening the power of RED. Individuals who threatened this power were subsequently removed, while employees who supported the power base were untouchable. Figure 5.2 presented in the case study confirms the above.

The instant gratification that RED seeks explains many difficulties. Decisions were made on the spur of the moment, with no time for careful consideration. When things did not work, the technology had to be adapted to suit RED. Furthering the pursuit of power explains why the meticulous rules and regulations which were put in place were broken one after the other. The case highlighted the short-term view and instant gratification of RED. A limited future view raises no concerns when the rules are broken.

Again, overlaying a BLUE system with rigid rules and control on top of a RED thinking system had to result in resistance. In addition, being unable to truly unleash the creative and constructive energy of RED resulted in frustrations. Without a strong power base to challenge RED, BLUE had little chance of completing the project on time, in budget and within the requirements. The project schedule, deadlines and milestones clearly frustrated RED. The longer-term targets without constant visible progress further perpetuated the difficulties that had already been experienced.

### **7.2.1.2 Application of human niches to the TWT initiative**

Given the demographics of the TWT project, it is clear that the majority of employees involved in this project fall within the PURPLE human niche. PURPLE bands together as a tribe, and this was evident through the behaviour of the GLs. The capacity of GLs, TLs and TMs to form groups and to protect these groups underscored the reality of the PURPLE thinking system. The importance of ways in which PURPLE identifies should have been explored prior to the start of the project. The adapted U-movement displayed in figure 5.4 underscores the above.

The collectiveness and willingness of PURPLE to sacrifice for the leader or the group was completely missed in the TWT project. PURPLE also observes events and memories. The changes presented by the TWT system could have been in direct opposition to these events and memories. This, in turn, must have led to resistance.

The future view of PURPLE is short. The difficulties built into the system due to a lack of basic understanding of PURPLE thinking, further contributed towards the failure of this project. A prior understanding of this human niche could have directed the project towards success.

In the PURPLE human niche, relationships must be established first. Once a relationship has been established, the work can be done. The polar opposite of this principle applied, resulting in inevitable resistance. Management did not tap into the power of metaphor, stories and folklore parables when interacting with PURPLE. PURPLE was never consulted for shared understanding. The importance of PURPLE people's family connections was never acknowledged or harnessed.

Instead, enforcing a prescriptive approach, which is typical of BLUE, largely resulted in resistance and increased organisational costs.

In addition to the above, the organisation as a BLUE human niche attempted to enforce the right way of doing through regulation and discipline. The BLUE human niche tried to impose order through a systematic new work method and could not understand why these strategies could not be implemented optimally. Without translation of such BLUE thinking systems into PURPLE, disconnect was inevitable.

### **7.2.1.3 Application of human niches to the WSI initiative**

Poor planning spelled the near death of this project. Poor planning can be laid in front of low BLUE. The difficulty of employees to think and work in a cross-functional manner further emphasises the BLUE element. Everybody believes that what they do is correct, without listening to other voices or opinions. The adapted U-movement depicted in figure 5.6 endorses the above.

However, combining a change management component into the technical project vastly improved its outcome. Communication was placed high in the change management project and attempted to be successful in both upward and downward communication. This suited the thinking systems of PURPLE, RED and BLUE. PURPLE wants consensus and agreement through joint discussions. Unknowingly, the communication strategy fitted PURPLE. The firm deadline, controlled through non-implementation suited RED. The downward flow of communication through an authority structure suited BLUE.

The face-to-face contact further suited PURPLE. Creating a safe discussion space was essential. Such a discussion forum improved buy-in. Through the giving of timeous and correct feedback on issues raised, credibility was built.

The improved success from a communication perspective indicates the necessity to follow and adapt approaches to suit different human niches while highlighting the importance of different strategies for different world views. Applying one strategy as a fit for all is inappropriate and will invariably result in organisational change failure.

### 7.2.2 In-depth interviews

Codes were derived from the in-depth interviews. The common codes are described below.

Crisis and survival were presented as the main change drivers, whether through changing market conditions, union demands, competition, achieving business goals or technology. Organisations have been subject to various changes in the past two years, and they tend not to follow any change models or change methodology.

There is little change preparation in organisations. Numerous processes, procedures and schedules regulate organisations and change. This typically reflects the BLUE human niche. It was admitted that such regulation is not conducive to change. In the same conversation, the strong BLUE internal communication stood out, but experienced difficulties in translating this into understandable business actions for different human niches. This confirms the findings of Werkman (2009).

A general difficulty perceived in organisations, is that strategy must encompass change. However, this is not always the case. Organisations are not always effective in translating the vision into a change vision and obtaining buy-in into shared values. This problem could again relate to the different viewpoints held by various human niches.

Rosenberg and Mosca (2011) attribute resistance to poor execution of change strategies and poor communications. The data confirmed that there were no processes in place in the organisation to understand the impact and context of business changes. The difficulty in translating the vision could again indicate the different viewpoints of different human niches, contributing to the poor execution of change strategies.

Examination of critical success factors, indicated communication, leadership, trust and ethics as vital success factors. Failure ensues when success factors are ignored. However, a general concern is that organisations do not possess much strength relating to organisational change.

When analysing all the interviews, the theme of fear cropped up continually. Although different reasons were given, everybody agreed that fear is a prominent emotion when change is discussed. Employees perceive change with fear. Organisational change is first perceived as negative and resistance is common. The data from all the in-depth interviews indicated that organisational change was extremely stressful, that stress and even trauma played a huge role and that the organisation struggled to handle stress properly. BLUE interventions such as employee assistance, the doctor or the minister were offered as solutions, but it was again acknowledged that these programmes had been ineffective. This could again be the result of poor translation of BLUE into PURPLE and RED, again affirming the need to understand change from the perspective of those impacted by the change.

GREEN stated that everybody must be given a chance to participate. According to GREEN, we all want the same, again underscoring the question of equality. Again, GREEN mentioned personality, arguing in defence of people who struggled with change.

Another common theme throughout the interviews was communication. All participants perceived communication as crucially important. Through the discussion on communication, different human niches or thinking systems were displayed. BLUE struggled to understand why employees perceived that there was no change, because the organisation communicated constantly. BLUE again, felt that traditional education was important to ensure common understanding. The concern of confrontational behaviour as depicted in section 5.2.1.1 could display BLUE's concern for RED's aggression. GREEN asked for constant communication, without which people would struggle with change. However, all the respondents agreed that poor and/or ineffective communication largely contributed to change failure and they agreed that they did not understand why communication was not understood.

Research indicates that many change initiatives fail because of shortcomings in internal communication (Barrett, 2002; Elving, 2005; Lewis, 2000). Various authors have emphasised the importance of communication in change processes (Elving, 2005; Ford and Ford, 1995; Daly, *et al.*, 2003). Saruhan (2014) found that



communication has a positive impact on employee resistance to change. However, Christensen (2014) reported that communication is part of an organisation's everyday life, but is difficult to uphold as management easily forget the importance of communication during a change situation.

There is no doubt that organisations struggle to ensure effective communication. This could be attributed to different human niches. Typically, communication would speak from a BLUE human niche – memos, procedures and processes – which does not translate well for PURPLE and RED individuals.

The significance of leadership in the change process was another common theme which was agreed by all. Again, different human niches were evident. One respondent spoke about the mutuality of the trust relationship where people must trust leadership, but equally, leadership must trust the people. This could depict GREEN behaviour which begs for equal treatment of all. GREEN was again displayed through acknowledging the importance of people and the shared approach in this organisation.

ORANGE was displayed when leadership was discussed as not being afraid of risk. Equally, when the change process was seen as being similar to a war situation, this could have displayed the calculated risk of ORANGE. An analysis of the research indicates that leadership and change go hand in hand. Leaders must effect change to avert crises and ensure organisational survival. However, leadership remains a complex, multifaceted task.

One respondent emphasised the importance of changing the way in which organisations build and develop trust. The same respondent said that a shared approach seems meaningful and acknowledged that not everybody sees the same vision. This respondent also perceived resistance to grow out of mistrust. This again displays GREEN thinking which encompasses equality and collectivism.

Empowerment was seen as similar to communication. It was perceived that empowerment had occurred, but had not been regarded as such by employees. This

again indicates different viewpoints of different human niches. Although it was agreed that involvement was required to ensure buy-in and minimise resistance, again the BLUE organisational methods of ensuring involvement seemed to translate poorly for RED and PURPLE specifically.

### **7.2.3 Focus group sessions**

According to the focus group sessions, there was a high prevalence of change in the organisation. Such changes included radical, structural, technological, project and leadership changes. In two focus group sessions, the respondents stated that there were continuous changes. Hence change was no longer perceived as a discrete event with a clear beginning and end, but rather as a state of continuous flux. Employees found it difficult to align their actions and perceptions with the change expectations owing to an organisational state of constant disruption.

Organisations generally, do not follow any change models or change methodology. In two focus group sessions, one respondent mentioned that schedules and documents had been drawn up. This is a typical BLUE human niche response. In both instances, this had been challenged by RED or ORANGE, stating that the deadlines had been missed and that plans had generally not been shared. The small amount of time spent on change preparation was generally stated as a concern. However, in the second focus group session, participants were not able to relate documents, schedules and deadlines to change preparation. This could possibly indicate PURPLE human niches, who in direct contrast to mechanistic processes such as schedules, are inclined to experience sharing and discussion as preparation for change.

It was agreed in focus group session one, two and three that there were processes in place to deal with change, such as plans and schedules - again a typical BLUE human niche response. However, everybody agreed that there were no processes in place in the organisation to understand the impact and context of business changes. Individuals admitted to struggling with change, not wanting to come to work, having no outlet within the organisation that could help them deal with the increased stress they were experiencing during change and even struggling to function. Despite such

schedules and plans, most participants felt that change was messy and “all over the show”.

Critical success factors were given as the involvement and participation of all, the importance of people and the necessity to cause no harm. This emphasises a need on the part of PURPLE and GREEN human niches. In addition, the necessity for understandable communication, leadership and transparency was emphasised as being critical to successful change. PURPLE and RED human niches struggle to understand BLUE communication.

Successful organisational change at an individual level requires participation, involvement and empowerment. However, change is generally resisted and perceived negatively. It was argued that employees resist because of a lack of understanding. This could again indicate the poor translation of BLUE communication to PURPLE. However, this could also indicate that change is not a linear process as postulated by Kotter (1996) and that human reactions to change do not follow a linear pattern (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008), but a U-curve (Scharmer, 2007). However, given the constant state of change in organisations today, the required time-period for individuals to move through the U-curve, eight months plus, according to Viljoen-Terblanche (2008), and integrating the change initiative, is no longer viable.

At this stage, it is necessary to refer back to figure 2.3, which indicated resistance on the left-hand side of the U-movement (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008). Shock, disbelief, insecurity, blame, anxiety, depression and anger further feature on the left-hand side of the U-movement. Such feelings and emotions could be perpetuated as a result of the increased stress experienced during organisational change. This, in turn, would be likely to increase the time required to move from resistance towards exploration and commitment.

In every focus group session, communication was stated as hugely important. However, a number of respondents mentioned that the organisation did communicate through memos and e-mails. Others asserted that there was no communication. This

again indicates a BLUE response, which does not speak to PURPLE, and which perpetuates the organisation's struggle to ensure effective communication.

The respondents unanimously agreed on the importance of leadership, even though different opinions on leadership were shared. Time constraints, a lack of change knowledge and poor explanation of the changes were seen as leadership hurdles.

Everybody in focus group session one agreed that individuals struggle with heightened stress during times of organisational change. It was acknowledged and agreed that organisational change causes fear and resistance for many individuals. The lack of stability during changes was perceived to increase fear, stress and anxiety. Organisational change increases individual stress. The respondents turned to spiritual and physical methods to alleviate stress, but still reported feeling scared and anxious. This could again indicate PURPLE, which struggles to identify with the methods BLUE follows. During focus group session three, one individual failed to respond and interact in the conversation. This could indicate the PURPLE human niche, which downshifted to BEIGE as a result of increased stress.

One respondent stated that stress is merely a convenient excuse for people who are not willing to move from their comfort zones and deal with the required changes. This can be seen as a typical RED response. It seems clear that such a response to the fear and anxiety described in the above paragraph, would result in extreme disconnect owing to unawareness of human niches.

It was asserted that change should enable and empower the individual. However, someone also commented that organisations do not have change knowledge and struggle to support change internally. Further, it is only if people understand the change that they are able to participate. Without participation, enablement and empowerment become irrelevant. The BLUE perception of training as empowerment again disconnects from PURPLE's view of empowerment as only being possible once communication was been understood.

Various complaints were raised against management during change. Poor management was seen to make change even harder for individuals. Various respondents stated that time constraints, instant gratification, poor planning and/or preparation are disastrous for individuals during change.

#### **7.2.4 Integration**

Many of the behaviours and emotions prevalent in the case study, in-depth interviews and focus group sessions can be explained on the basis of Laubscher's (2013) human niche theory. If one accepts that the majority of the adult population in Africa are PURPLE, and knowing that people from Africa excel at a human niche that manifests gifts of relatedness, connectedness and spirituality, organisations should seek to find ways to apply these insights. Organisations have to acknowledge the African context in order to find the beauty in PURPLE and the constructive energy in RED. PURPLE has spirit. Spirit becomes controlled in BLUE. The world may risk the loss of spirit as a result (Laubscher, 2013).

The stress, anxiety, mistrust, disillusionment and resentment individuals experience as a result of organisational change seem pervasive. These individual feelings need to be treated with the necessary respect, consideration and workable methodologies and/or interventions. If not, such feelings could hamper the organisational change effort. It seems as though awareness and workable stress reduction guidance could lead individuals and organisations to participate more favourably in change initiatives.

At an international level, Viljoen and Laubscher (2014) found the dilemma to be that BLUE and ORANGE on PURPLE and RED cause huge stress and anxiety, which tends to result in a regression of our human niches (Laubscher, 2013). The data collected in the current study confirms this. According to Freeman (2010), stress can cause us to regress back to BEIGE. Leadership needs a keen awareness of the above in order to mitigate this negative impact.

### **7.2.5 Conclusion**

The thinking of different human niches was not understood or applied throughout the organisation investigated in this study. Hence, unintended failures, unforeseen implications and general difficulties arose. Ideas that fall outside the norms and assumptions were often rejected without consideration. As a rule, different thinking systems also look upon behaviours of other human niches and do not understand what they see. Even more pertinently, during times of organisational change, translation between different niches becomes imperative.

Human niches are at work at an individual, team and organisational level, which influences organisational outcomes as people value different things because they think in different ways. People may shift their thinking to fit the conditions at hand and will operate quite differently when under pressure or stress. Organisational change interventions should yield a multifaceted systemic approach at global level, while involving the whole person – body, mind and soul.

Organisations should not attempt to change people. Instead, they should manage people's weaknesses while capitalising on their strengths. In practical terms, this requires organisations to understand people in the worlds in which they live. This should be extended as a prerequisite for all leaders - all leaders should have a deep understanding of their people as whole and complete, multifaceted individuals comprising a body, mind and soul.

Organisational change creates ambiguity and uncertainty. PURPLE seeks group safety. The organisation remains one of the fundamental groups in which PURPLE operates. When safety and security are removed, PURPLE can no longer function optimally. Organisational change initiators need a deep awareness of PURPLE as well as relevant strategies which can address the uncertainties created by organisational change.

The struggle of individuals to move through the U-curve was displayed in the case study and in different focus group sessions. Figure 7.1 below indicates the researcher's finding that stress may cause the individual human niche to downshift.

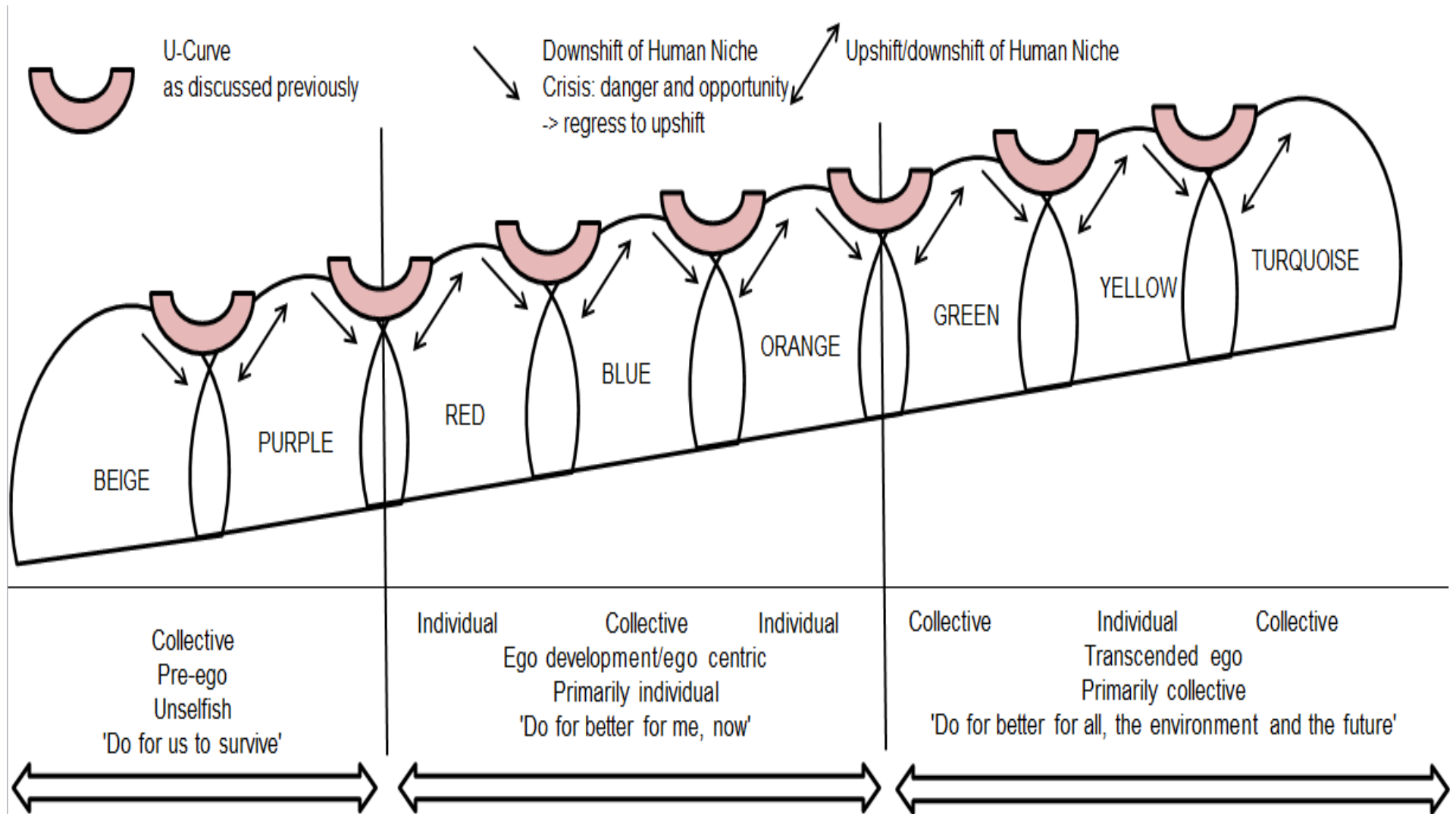


Figure 7.1: Downshift of the human niche when under stress

In figure 7.1, one should note the U-curve which is evident in every move of the spiral. Moreover, moving through the U-curve requires time. However, figure 7.1 also indicates that once downshifted, an upshift becomes possible. In the researcher's opinion, today's organisations need alternative interventions that could assist the individual to, firstly, reduce stress and anxiety, and secondly, to allow the individual to regress to the BEIGE human niche from where upshift becomes possible. This thought would serve as a further building block element in the emerging conceptual change framework.

Figure 7.1 confirms that different people excel differently. PURPLE, as being the predominant human niche in Africa, brings with it innate wisdom and goodwill. Organisational thinking systems must embrace this wisdom and goodwill. This requires organisations, which predominantly fall within the BLUE human niche, to alter their thinking system which believes that the organisation is always right. The BLUE organisation needs to alter and/or adjust its dogmatic and mechanistic thinking to embrace more humanistic methods in order to be understood by PURPLE.

### **7.3 CATEGORIES**

During the analysis of in-depth interviews and focus group sessions, the researcher became aware that the interviewees used words and phrases highlighting an issue of importance or interest to the research. These key issues were noted and short memoranda written. These notes assisted with the development of categories and codes.

Initially, close to 100 categories were generated from the data. These categories were subsequently reduced to 84. Table 7.2 below indicates a portion of the initial major categories which resulted from conceptual ordering. The predominant categories were highlighted. Identifiers prefixed with P indicate in-depth interviews. Identifiers prefixed with F indicate focus group sessions and C denotes the case study. Table 7.2 indicates a portion of the 84 categories that were created through constant comparison of the data. These categories were further broken down and integrated. The entire 84 categories are displayed in appendix I.



Table 7.2: Category extract

SUMMARY OF CATEGORIES		
No	Category	Identifier
1	Change force	P4, F6, C1, C2,C3
2	Autonomy	F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, C1, C2,C3
3	Blinkered view	P5
4	Build trust	P4, P5, C1, C2,C3
5	Business of change	P4, P5, P6
6	Capitalism/profit	P17, P1, P2, P4
7	Change	F4, F4, F5, C1, C2,C3
8	Difficulty of change	P3, P5, P6, C1, C2,C3
9	Change driver	F6, P4, P5
10	Change failure	P17, P4, P5, P20, C1, C2,C3
11	Change force	F1, F2, P20, P17, P1, P2, P4, P5
12	Change perceptions	P4, P5, P6, C1, C2,C3
13	Change process	P4, P5, C1, C2,C3
14	Change success	P1, P2, P20
15	Change trigger	F6
16	Change types	F1
17	Communication	P4, P5, P6, F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, P20, P17, P2, C1, C2,C3

A further rework of data was achieved through further data comparison and this is displayed in figure 7.2. Codes were compared to deeper understand the interrelatedness and interconnectedness of all the data collected. The further breakdown of categories revealed anxiety, increased stress, reduced autonomy, no decision making power, negativity, fear, resistance, insecurity and micro-management. Furthermore, “don’t think, just do” was mentioned by a third of the participants. The data revealed that strategy does not encompass change and that strategy does not acknowledge stress and the impact it has on the organisation.

Half of the participants reported “not having any answers”. The resultant emotions were feelings of helplessness. Employees experienced a sense of loss through

reduced decision making power. Micro-management seemed to remove the individual's autonomy and decision-making ability. These feelings were experienced where change initiatives impacted on job functions.

The working example in figure 7.2 includes emotions related to stress or indicates actions which results in stress. Employees typically feel anxious during change and experience anxiety-related emotions. Management actions during change reduce autonomy. Change reduces autonomy. This, in turn, results in individuals sensing a loss of control, which further increases anxiety.

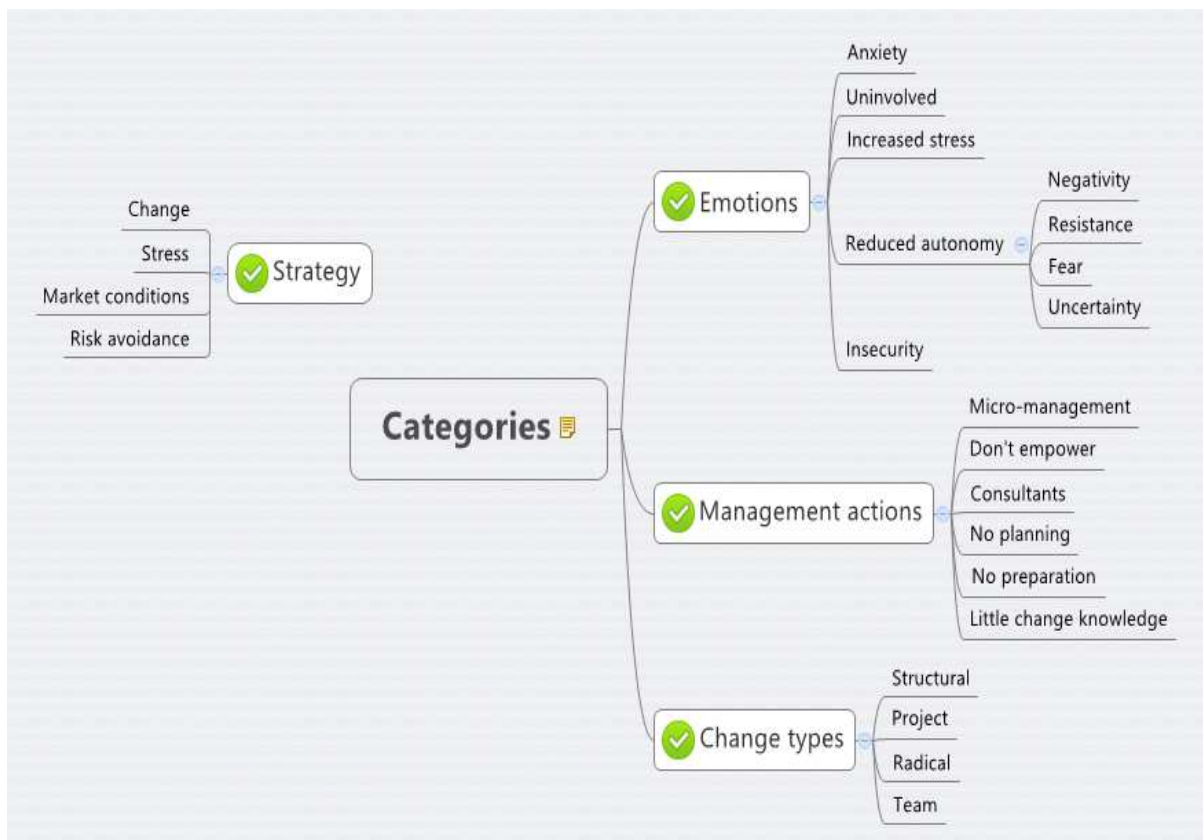


Figure 7.2 Further breakdown of data categories (working example)

According to figure 7.2, a lack of autonomy results in feelings of negativity, resistance, fear and uncertainty. Employees are not expected to think during radical, technological changes, instead, they are instructed to do as they are told during change initiatives. All participants agreed that the organisation does not have any stress reduction strategy. Management actions create or increase uncertainty. Project-based change does not include people change or change management.

Even though stress levels spiral during organisational change, individual stress is never addressed or reduced to acceptable levels.

#### **7.4 INDUSTRY'S ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE NARRATIVE**

Organisational change has become the new reality in South African organisations. However, organisations appear to be caught up and trapped in functional roles and rigid structures that do not facilitate or support rapid and fluid adaptation. All the participants agreed that change will happen. "Change is inevitable." Organisations that are not changing are stagnant. Involvement and improvement mean change. If change turns out positively, then organisations may flourish. Negative change could cause organisations to die. The challenge of leaders and organisational change is to assist with as smooth a transition as possible.

Leaders possess insufficient change skills and generally do not realise the importance and/or impact of their behaviour, be it in terms of communication, motivation, trust and/or leadership. During change initiatives, adaptability, flexibility, commitment and support from leaders and employees alike are critical success factors.

However, change is often sold in euphemistic terms. Change is extremely stressful and even traumatic. People are reluctant to change and are comfortable with what they know and are familiar with. Organisations seem to be inept at handling the stress and possible trauma that go hand in hand with organisational change. The high change frequency experienced by some individuals results in stress and confusion.

The data unequivocally indicated that the management of stress is hugely lacking in organisations. "Organisations do not handle stress correctly." The lack of knowledge in organisations to handle and mediate stress results in a further imbalance between individual feelings of obstinacy, fear and insecurity. Organisational change creates turmoil and anxiety, which, in turn, reduce individual capacity.

Successful change can happen in a trustful environment – hence the need to address the issue of trust. Employees have to trust leadership. Organisations need

to fundamentally trust employees as well. A lack of trust results in fear. It is extremely difficult to create trust in a turbulent environment.

Fear can be rational or irrational, realistic or unrealistic. What seems clear is that employees fear change and that change is firstly perceived with fear. The initial reaction to change is fear. Fear overrides all other emotions and resistance follows. Employees do not fundamentally want to resist change. However, change is perceived to lead to loss of autonomy, which results in resistance.

#### **7.4.1 Themes**

The most noticeable theme evident in the case study was the absolute lack of change management in the various projects and the impact of this on the employees' ability to adapt and participate in the change initiative. Projects are run from a purely technical and mechanistic perspective. In such a strong project perspective, there is no time or requirement for change management. Strategy is generally separated from change requirements. However, project success is generally not realised in full.

Themes that materialised during the in-depth interviews related to change methodology, change strategy, change success, change failure and emotions. The absolute, non-negotiable leadership requirement during times of organisational change featured prominently. Predominant subtopics under the leadership heading related to leadership tasks, leadership characteristics and the expectation of leadership as well as the lack of leadership during organisational change. Leadership was perceived as a non-negotiable change factor and as a considerable obstacle to change.

The most prominent themes that emerged from the focus group sessions were individual emotional experiences during and as a result of organisational change. The prevailing emotions related to stress, anxiety and resistance. When confronted with change, individual anxiety arose and/or increased. The overwhelming effect of stress on individuals can be devastating and debilitating to employees with enormous organisational costs. All participants agreed on the role and impact of stress during organisational change, but admitted that South African organisations are generally unable to (1) deal with increased individual stress levels; (2)

constructively manage emotional behaviours as a result of increased stress; (3) offer assistance to effectively reduce individual stress levels; and (4) promote or ensure a healthy work-life balance.

Management, specifically senior management, featured in the context of strategy, planning, communication and the translation of the change initiative to all. Senior management subtopics related to management and/or lack thereof during organisational change, resulting in inevitable damage control as a general practice.

Each of these important subthemes will now be discussed in detail. Useful subthemes included (1) change methodology, (2) change strategy, (3) change success, and (4) failure, emotions and stress.

#### **7.4.2 Change methodology**

The main features of change methodology pertained to a lack of model knowledge and model influence as indicated in figure 7.3. According to the participants, they were familiar with the management theory relating to change and they knew change theory. However, only one participant could name one model, and he acknowledged that his organisation did not follow any specific model. Organisations were also not influenced by any specific model.

The case study indicated that no change methodology or change management method was followed. Few tools, techniques or processes were applied to manage the people-side of change. Hardly any methods or techniques were applied to reduce and manage resistance to change. No readiness assessments were conducted to establish the scope of the change or to determine the number of people affected.

One change initiative as indicated in the case study incorporated a small portion of change management which only related to communication. Despite the improved communication, change was still approached simplistically and followed the mechanistic timings of a technical project plan. Hence, communication during the change initiative followed project milestones and were managed accordingly.

Figure 7.3 indicates that organisations are influenced by the external environment and the organisational need. No change methodology is followed.



Figure 7.3: Change methodology

According to figure 7.3, the general trend for some organisations is to establish the need and then act by following competitors or tailoring solutions to the particular need. However, all participants agreed that their organisation did not have the required skills for change management and/or organisational change in general.

Organisations require change support as change is done roughly and in a rudimentary way. Organisations do not follow solid principles as a foundation for change. No logical method or planning process is followed.

#### **7.4.3 Change strategy**

The case study indicated that strategy did not encompass change or change management. Organisational strategy relating to change did not consider the human elements of change. Change should drive the organisation's strategic intention. Strategic objectives for the year should include business changes, but more often than not, such changes are not included in strategy. "Strategy does not change around business goals."

Having a forward thinking concept is correct. Organisations require a strategic outlook. However, such forward thinking concepts are generally merely paper based and not lived. Few senior staff deeply considers the reason for their organisation's existence. Not many managing directors or CEOs are able to relate to and live the strategy. Similarly, managing directors and/or CEOs often struggle to communicate the strategy and do not know what failed in the past.

According to the data collected, strategy should have encompassed change, but did not. Generally, the organisation does not have a change strategy. The process and impact of business change are generally not considered in strategic plans. Strategic plans on change are non-existent.

#### **7.4.4 Change success**

Figure 7.4 indicates the main success factors related to successful change. Successful change requires autonomy, communication, decision making, empowerment, engagement and inclusivity, which ensure a common understanding, change enablement and leadership.



Figure 7.4: Success factors

The case study also reported that resistance resulted because of a lack of understanding and involvement. Individuals perceived that improved communication, early participation and involvement would have improved the implementation of change. These sentiments are depicted in figure 7.4.

A further breakdown of successful change indicated the importance of preparation, planning and communication. Respect for customs, language ability and a deep understanding of the need to change drives change success. Having the right people in the right jobs is imperative because change starts at an individual level. The correct change attitude relates to openness towards change, willingness to change, enthusiasm and an understanding of why these changes are required.

The need for a clear end picture featured in all conversations. Engagement, communication throughout the process, honest conversations when things are going wrong and the correct leadership level were highlighted as the key drivers of successful change.

The ability of the individual and the organisation to handle change, supported by trust and leadership, seems to be required during change. It was generally acknowledged that change starts at an individual level. Engagement and communication throughout the process are necessary to assist with individual change. Ensuring that the correct people are in the correct jobs helps to clarify roles and responsibilities. Once every individual knows his or her role and is able to see



the bigger picture, then individual buy-in can happen. Thereafter change can happen in the heart of the individual.

Most importantly, proper leadership is imperative. Leadership must be united and aligned and share a unified vision and point in the same direction. If leaders construct change in an understandable way, success is possible. However, leadership must also engage in honest autopsies to determine the causes for failure which might require leadership to make unpopular decisions.

#### **7.4.5 Change failure**

The data attributed change failure to reactive and poor leadership, poor or vague communication and out of touch management. An overemphasis of profit above people and the need to do change quickly with little or no money hampers change success.

The case study indicated elevated frustration levels due to a lack of management and/or guidance as well as poor understanding of the reasoning behind the change. It was also reported that the lack of a clear endpoint or end result of the change, made it increasingly difficult for individuals to engage in the change process.

Participants of in-depth interviews and focus group sessions stated that organisations have no strengths relating to organisational change. Management is reactive, without strength or knowledge of change. This results in a mess that consultants are subsequently called in to fix. Consultants are expensive, but management do not want to spend any money on change. This is a change paradox which often repeats as organisations struggle to manage change. HR's lack of knowledge of change and a lack of organisational strength in leading change are further concerns.

Another theme that emerged after studying the gathered data was poor management and leadership. Both of these were highlighted as contributors towards change failure. No accountability, expecting change without involvement and participation, the wrong people in the wrong jobs and poor treatment of employees will not promote successful change. Leaders and/or managers who treat employees

belligerently, punish and force change and create fear through punishment and discipline, will not be able to ensure successful change.

Reactive leadership, lack of change control and lack of planning result in change failure. Poor communication, vague explanations and organisational difficulties in managing change further contribute towards change failure. These reasons for change failure are depicted in figure 7.5 below.



Figure 7.5: Change failure

All the participants stressed the importance of communication. Ineffective communication results in misunderstanding. Selective communication causes a breakdown in trust. Poor communication left the participants feeling unengaged. This is indicated in figure 7.5.

#### **7.4.6 Emotions**

The case study indicated heightened negative emotions - stress, anxiety, fear, resistance and uncertainty. Because employees expect a level of certainty, a lack of clarity on future roles and responsibilities, inevitably increases anxiety.

Many emotions, feelings, sentiments and reactions to change were raised by participants. However, the emotions which featured in every conversation related to stress, guilt, expectation, fear, anxiety and reduced autonomy. Increased individual stress was interwoven into all topics.

Employees admitted to resorting to destructive behaviour when stressed as well as not having any outlet in the organisational context to deal with and/or minimise their stress levels. Many participants acknowledged that their work performance was negatively affected by stress. However, other than going to the gym and/or praying, they were not aware of any other, possible workable interventions. This is indicated in figure 7.6 below.

Figure 7.6 depicts the raw data relevant to emotions. These emotions were predominantly negative, no authenticity, no acceptance, no autonomy, disempowerment, confusion, total shutdown, stressful, despondent and anxious were cited as examples. Following participation in the research discussion, various individuals admitted to resorting to medicine during times of organisational change. Individuals also admitted in confidence that they had sought counselling or assistance from their pastor during periods of heightened stress. Five respondents from the focus group session stated that they had gone to gym to relax. Further, feelings of being uninformed, lacking understanding, misunderstanding, increased stress, not wanting to come to work, resistance and feelings of exclusion were reported.



Figure 7.6: Emotions

Figure 7.6 indicates that employees also reported feeling confused, despondent, tired, unstable, unhappy and uninvolved. Experiencing high levels of stress, feeling unimportant, praying a lot, scepticism and total shutdown described some of the emotions and feelings relating to the individual stress emanating from organisational change.

Guilt related to how change might affect colleagues. Expectations related to the perception that all employees require similar things, namely growth, benefits, career development, having an opinion and being included in discussions. The main

emotion relating to change was fear. Fear pertained to survival - does this change include me, and will I still be needed?

Conflict, confusion and unhappiness were repeatedly mentioned. Participants in all the focus group sessions admitted to feeling as if the organisation had no interest in them as people. "I feel unimportant." "My job has been reduced." Four participants reported that they were completely unable to function during a period of organisational change.

#### **7.4.6.1 Stress**

The case study discussed in chapter five indicated hugely increased stress levels as a result of the organisational change initiatives. Stress also featured prominently during every interview and focus group session. The first reaction to change was stated as fear - "change brings fear". Stress was not always perceived to be problematic by management. However, employees admitted to praying, exercising and experiencing total shutdown as coping mechanisms during turbulent times. Many employees reported increased stress levels which they attributed to increased levels of uncertainty in their department and admitted that this had negatively influenced their work performance. Employees expressed their discomfort, worry and distress about the new tasks they were expected to perform. Management generally failed to acknowledge these expressions of fear. All senior leaders stated that organisations do not handle stress well, or not at all. However, they admitted that there was much more stress than they perceived. At an organisational level, increased stress and anxiety were not addressed by management or leadership, which seemed to further perpetuate individual stress. The senior leaders acknowledged that treating people badly in times of stress, reduces commitment and buy-in. This is depicted in figure 7.7 below.

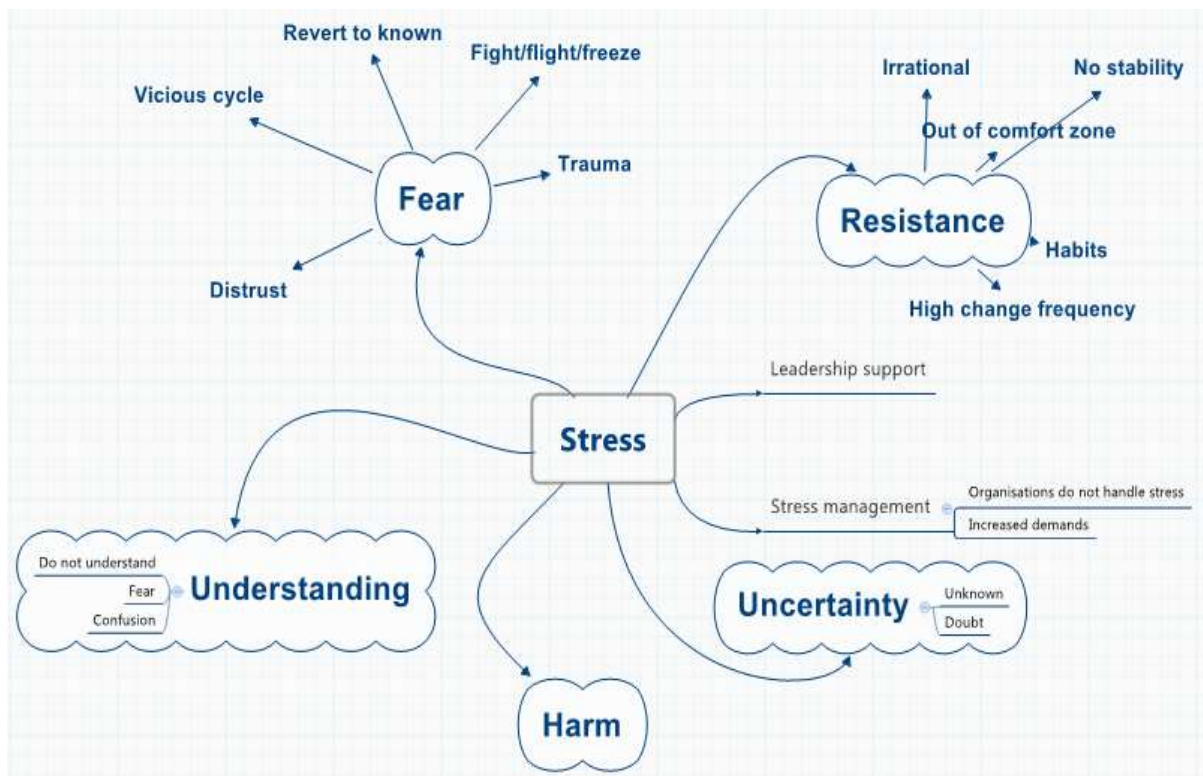


Figure 7.7: Stress

Figure 7.7 indicates that uncertainty, resistance and even trauma were regularly reported. Change was perceived as being similar to going to war - a war situation is generally accepted as extremely traumatic. The data indicated that organisations do not realise or acknowledge the severe impact of change on individuals. Simultaneously, organisations do not handle stress and/or trauma at all.

Some organisations do not handle stress well. All participants agreed that there is much more stress than is perceived and that life has become extremely busy and everybody wants immediate answers. The requirement of immediate answers is aggravated by technology. Technology does not accommodate individuals as human – instead, immediate responses are the expectation. There are huge demands on performance and pressures at work continue to increase.

Organisational change is a major cause of stress for individuals. This, in turn, has a huge impact on the individual because his or her adaptive resources are depleted as stress increases. The overwhelming effect of stress on individuals can be devastating with enormous organisational costs and detrimental consequences such

as increased absenteeism and lower morale and productivity. Stress is a vicious cycle. South African organisations do not have a cultural understanding of stress, and the management of stress is hugely lacking in organisations. Organisations struggle to handle individual stress in times of stability, and are less able to manage stress during change.

The high frequency of change increases stress levels even further. Individuals are bombarded with changes; there are always a multitude of changes happening. Punctuated equilibrium (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985) is no longer applicable to organisations and/or individuals as change has become constant, with no clear beginning and end. Again, the impact of stress increases as change becomes the new stability.

## **7.5 LEADERSHIP**

The case study indicated that a lack of leadership and guidance increased individual distress, discomfort and distrust. A lack of management and leadership further increased stress owing to a combination of poor planning and preparation and not sharing the vision or the end point. Employees constantly complained about a lack of guidance, leadership and shared understanding.

The case study further indicated that a lack of leadership, guidance, effective and efficient communication perpetuated the inefficiencies. A lack of firm decision making further exacerbated the difficulties experienced. Leadership failed to lead in areas relating to workable solutions, employee capacity, driving process improvements and ensuring valid and reliable data. Such failures resulted in noncredible information, demotivated staff, despondency, directionlessness, inconsistencies and indifferent individuals.

All the participants indicated that leadership is pivotal to any change process. Everybody interviewed commented that an organisation should not embark upon change without leadership as the impact of leadership directly influences change success or failure. Proactive leadership which does no harm and solves real problems is essential during times of organisational change. Such leadership is able to mobilise individual willingness to embark upon the change journey.



Leadership implies trust. Explaining the change, helping people to understand change and making sense of the change were perceived as a leadership struggle. The leadership role requires a good leader, not an operational manager. Employees must trust leadership. The organisation must trust employees. Knowing employees, their personalities, beliefs, feelings, aspirations and understanding one's people are important. Understanding how to communicate and showing unified direction engender trust and are a mark of true leadership.

The leadership agenda was raised as a concern. Correct communication is vital. Leadership must gather people, explain the change, lead the change and encourage people to follow. Participants were unequivocal that nowadays we require leaders more than ever. Leadership is critical for change. Organisational strength in changing rests on the shoulders of leadership.

One managing director stated that there is no difference between leadership in a stable versus a turbulent organisation. Leaders are required, regardless of the circumstances. The fundamental qualities and leadership requirements do not change during periods of organisational change. Leadership skills and virtues remain the same, although some parameters may differ during change, but fundamentally, the requirement to lead people stays the same.

The difference between leadership and management was mentioned. Appointing managers is easy. However, not all managers are leaders. A burning issue is what makes people willing to grant somebody the leadership role. Unfortunately, many organisations see operational strengths as being more important than leadership strengths.

People will decide about their leader. Followers decide if a person is a leader; the leader cannot decide this. The individual whom the people follow is the leader. Granting leadership is the essence of leadership.

However, what stood out in this study, was the difficulty leaders experienced during uncertainty. They struggled to help individuals make sense of the changes, to adequately explain the complexities and to provide satisfactory guidance. During



turbulent times especially, the leaders grappled to identify, define and support the required change. They definitely lacked the required skills to deal with employee emotions, stress, expectations and resistance.

### **7.5.1 Leadership characteristics**

Humility, servitude and the ability to listen and adapt were indicated as key leadership characteristics. Leaders serve followers. Leadership is paradoxical and counter-intuitive. The leader serves, allowing individuals to do their jobs correctly. “Leadership is humility.”

Leaders are expected to be effective communicators who are able to translate a complex message in a simple, understandable way. Communication entails sharing where employees are going, showing the required steps to follow and indicating the desired end point.

Leadership characteristics further include innovative thinking, decision making, knowing right from wrong, honesty, integrity and trust. Having a multifaceted, multidisciplinary and cross-functional viewpoint is essential in the light of South Africa’s diverse population. Leaders must be strong, people oriented and sensitive. Leadership must present a unified view to employees and be inclusive. Empowering employees, being supportive, humble and rewarding achievements are important characteristics.

“How a leader handles change will determine success or failure.” Leaders need vision and a long-term view. Only if leaders have a change plan will they be able to equip teams to adapt and change. Leadership disconnect ensues when leaders are idealistic and do not see necessary endings. Unclear roles and responsibilities and missing the people side of the business result in disengagement.

### **7.5.2 Leadership tasks**

Figure 7.8 indicates the leadership tasks as captured in the raw data. Leadership tasks include getting people to buy in, being proactive, doing no harm, sharing strong strategic vision and mobilising the willingness of employees. Leadership must

convey their intentions, drive change, explain the vision and communicate the change.



Figure 7.8: Leadership tasks

As indicated in figure 7.8, leadership must share where we are, where we are going and how we should get there. Being a role model and innovative thinker who can guide change is imperative. Solving real problems, investing in leadership development and effective communication were indicated as leadership tasks.

A primary task of leadership is to effect change. In turn, change requires strong leadership. The leadership requirement, characteristics and tasks as indicated by the participants highlighted the need for leaders to have a multifaceted, multidisciplinary and multidimensional approach. Now, the onus is on leaders to focus on communication, empowerment, trust, participation and involvement. Again, a deeper understanding of human niches could help leaders to nurture and manage individuals in the organisation in a more empathic manner.

## 7.6 MANAGEMENT

The case study discussed in chapter five indicated that management ignored the common complaints pertaining to inconsistency of messages, disorganised management, destructive behaviours and general disjointedness. No management actions were forthcoming to change incorrect perceptions. Management largely ignored the resistant behaviours. Ineffective management perpetuated the negativity relating to individual's change experience owing to lack of planning, preparation and control. Management failed to consider human constraints relating to the required change, took change lightly and reduced change to simplicity, resulting in time, effort and energy being spent reactively.

Management requirements related to costs, management of subordinates and having a long-term view. Management was expected to think solutions through and not only apply instant fixes which do not really resolve problems. Trust was repeatedly highlighted - management was expected to trust employees.

Management are expected to communicate. However, management are perceived as communicating poorly and not sharing the end point. Management must plan, but change is chaotic with little planning. Managers often request the pastor or social worker to deal with the stress relating to change. Often, wrong solutions perpetuate difficulties as "management change the wrong things".

"Productivity is always an issue, yet management always cuts costs on the employee side." Plant and equipment costs are astronomical and management pay huge amounts to overseas management contracts. "The short term view of management hurts the organisation."

Organisations seem to miss the vital role that middle managers have to play during organisational change. Middle managers are perceived as the primary source of information and communication to employees. When middle managers fail to communicate or distort information, the outcomes for individuals and the organisation are detrimental. Furthermore, this is the level where strategies should be turned into actions. When middle managers struggle, successful change remains the exception.

### 7.6.1 Senior management

The raw data painted a fairly grim picture of senior management. Senior management were accused of poor communication, micro-management, lack of planning, not understanding employees and doing damage control at the end of the change initiative. Poor planning, scheduling and feedback, slipping of deadlines and no decision-making ability increased employee frustrations. Senior management were perceived to be ineffective at change. Hence, much time, cost and effort were spent retroactively - on damage control.

During focus group session three, senior management were accused of building empires, doing harm, playing power games and following a crisis management philosophy. Members of other focus group sessions commented that upper management lacked any change knowledge, were unaware of staff challenges and were not transparent. Senior management were said to be clueless about change, but always busy changing something. Crisis management and damage control inevitably resulted. Senior management were perceived to be unaware of staff challenges and working in isolation. These elements are depicted in figure 7.9 below.

Figure 7.9 indicates the data elements relating to senior management. According to this figure, senior management allowed deadlines to slip because they did not know how to do change. Poor feedback, no support, reactivity and unethical behaviour further strained organisational change efforts. Human resources were also accused of not having any change skills.

Senior management were reluctant to discuss change with subordinates, were archaic in their approach and did not empower employees. Senior management were seen as always changing something, but unable to effectively communicate and translate the change. Haphazard changes arising from poor planning, feedback and process control resulted in unworkable solutions and increased individual stress.

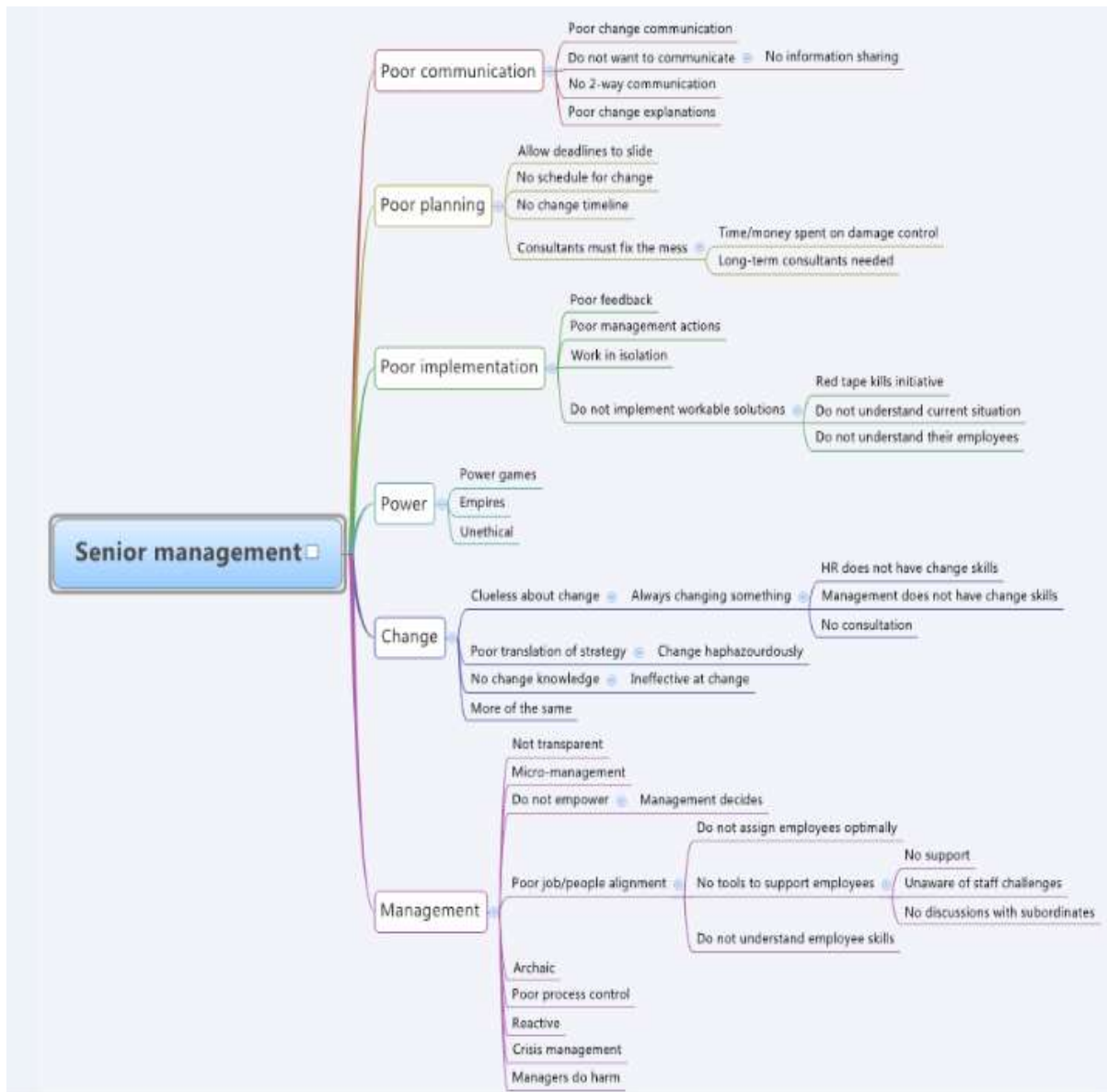


Figure 7.9: Senior management

According to the above figure, senior managers were perceived to give vague explanations with no discussions with subordinates. Red tape killed individual initiatives. Management made the decisions, but failed to empower employees. No two-way communication and nontransparency, coupled with poor change explanations, frustrated individuals who were attempting to co-operate with the change initiative.

## 7.7 INTEGRATION

The impact of emotions and stress during organisational change and the inability of leaders and managers to deal with such emotions featured prominently in the data collected. The data highlighted the increased stress levels of individuals during change as well as the inability of the organisation, leader and/or manager to deal with these elevated stress levels. The data also highlighted the lack of workable interventions in dealing with such elevated stress levels.

The researcher integrated the main themes which emerged from the data into figure 7.10, which indicates the individual, the organisation and change. The arrows indicate the interconnectedness of all themes.

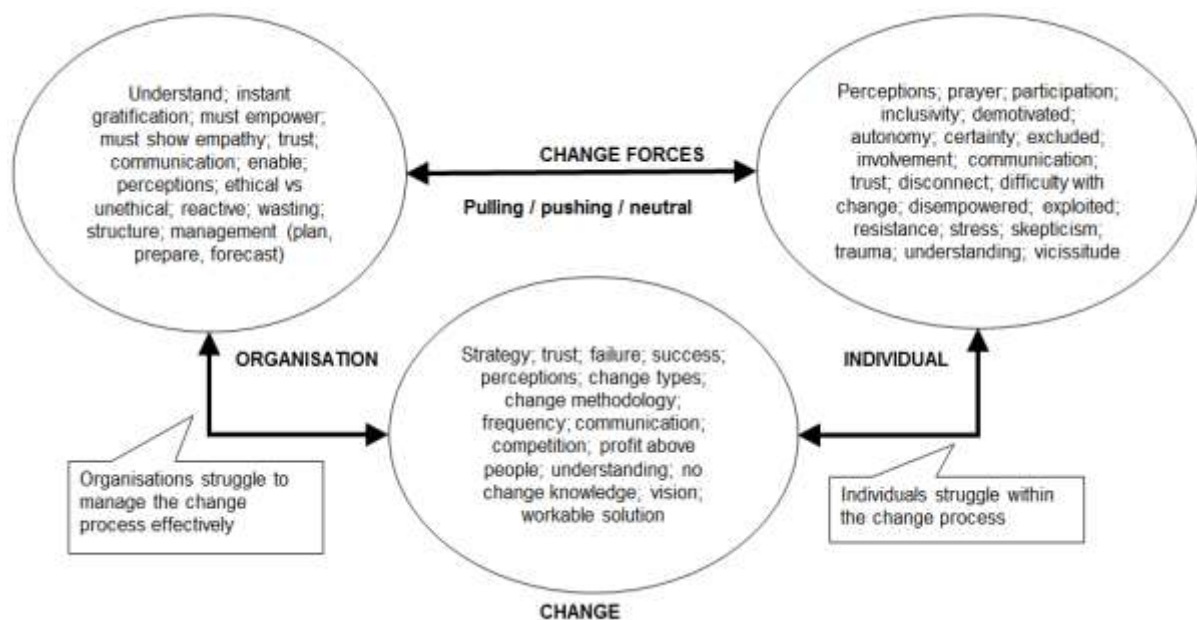


Figure 7.10: Primary themes relating to the individual, the organisation and change

As per figure 7.10, the main themes pertaining to the organisation concerned a lack of understanding, the need for instant gratification, communication and trust difficulties, the reality of perceptions relating to change and poor management abilities regarding the tasks of planning, preparation and forecasting. Furthermore, the need to empower and enable individuals, and working in an ethical environment featured prominently. The organisations was further depicted as being reactive towards change. These primary themes would form a foundational building block element in the emerging conceptual framework.

In terms of figure 7.10, change relies on trust, strategy, method and communication. A lack of change knowledge coupled with a high change frequency invariably results in change failure. Competition and placing profit above people further increase the difficulties in effecting successful change. Perceptions of change, shared vision and the implementation of workable solutions were the main themes under change. However, organisations struggle to manage the change process while individuals struggle within the change process.

Figure 7.10 indicates the main themes in the individual boundary as stress, trauma, skepticism, resistance, disconnect, disempowerment, prayer and a feeling of exclusion. Perceptions and trust as well as communication were significant themes. The need for autonomy, participation, inclusivity and involvement were expressed by all. Individuals generally experienced difficulty with change. The impression of many individuals was that anxiety became the norm during times of organisational change. The interconnectedness of the above themes, as well as the detrimental effects of change on the organisation and individuals would become a vital notion in the creation of the conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership.

## **7.8 CONCLUSION**

This chapter discussed the research analysis. The phenomena of organisational change and leadership were synthesised and presented according to the collected data. The various data collection methods were combined and compared, confirming and validating the research results. The South African organisational change narrative was discussed in terms of the emerging themes.

Stress emerged as a major, yet unexpected category. Stress was not mentioned in the title of this study. However, the data which emerged through a process of grounded theory, based on constant comparison clearly revealed the importance, the impact of and the lack of organisational knowledge and application related to the handling of stress during organisational change initiatives. The impact of stress in terms of successful or unsuccessful change can no longer be ignored.

Unfortunately, two further challenges related to stress emerged. The first was the organisation's inability to deal with employees' emotional behaviours during change.



The second was the inability of current methods to reduce stress effectively. Some participants found stress relief through exercise or prayer, but long-term relief remained elusive. The researcher thus contends that alternative theory and/or alternative methods should be explored in order to provide individuals with workable stress reduction solutions.

Various organisational problems were documented. However, the lack of leadership was concerning and seemingly the most detrimental to successful organisational change implementation. Each interview emphasised the lack of methodology followed, which was further aggravated by ineffective planning and subsequent poor execution of the change initiative.

The disconnect was evident between the manner in which management communicated, handled, executed and implemented change, versus the manner in which individuals, firstly, perceived the change, and secondly, their emotional experiences of organisational change. Employees did not understand management's actions which was exacerbated by stress and poor communication. As the human niches displayed different thinking systems, so employees and leaders struggled to understand and relate to each other. This underscores the importance of integrating human niche theory into traditional organisational change literature.

The data revealed that organisations seem to spend a lot of time on communication. Despite this, the lack of communication was a general complaint. The data exposed a major disconnect. Given the importance of communication and general time constraints in organisations it seems inconceivable to continue with communication that is continually misunderstood or not understood at all. However, this appears to be the reality - traditional organisational communication methods are not always understood. This again emphasises the need for congruence between communication methods and human niches.

The prominent topic of stress emerged, as did the organisation's inability to deal with increased stress, as well as the prevalence of different thinking systems or human niches in the organisation. Because a human niche will downshift when subjected to stress, the researcher contends that a deeper search than traditional organisational



theory would be required because traditional change models do not take these realities into account.

Chapter eight focuses on the integrated research findings and touches on the methodology applied in the study, namely grounded theory. Thereafter, coding, concepts and the development of categories will be discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the data findings.

## CHAPTER 8: INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the integration of the data findings. The development of codes, concepts and categories will be discussed and the methodology of grounded theory explicated. The primary research aim of this study was positioned around the development of a conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership to assist organisations with successful change. As such, this thesis attempted to merge organisational change and leadership through the following sub research aims: (1) exploring the role and impact of leadership on organisational change; (2) identifying non-negotiable success elements; and (3) understanding the human elements relating to change. The data findings discussed in this chapter relate directly to these research aims.

### 8.2 DEVELOPMENT OF CODES, CONCEPTS, CATEGORIES AND MEMOS

A fundamental aspect of grounded theory analysis is the development of codes, concepts and saturated categories. The major findings of this research are presented from data collected during the in-depth interviews and focus group sessions. All of this data was ultimately combined to provide an overall view of organisational change and leadership. Table 8.1 provides an example of the way in which these codes were derived.

Table 8.1: Coding

Identifier	Text of key point	Code
P20	Organisation had process in place to explain impact of business changes	No process re impact of bus change
P20	Change caused fear and uncertainty	Fear and uncertainty
P20	Greed, corruption and inefficiency will result in organisational failure	Greed, corruption, inefficiency

In table 8.1, an example of the identifiers is provided in the left column. This table indicates the text of key points as well as the code identified by the researcher.

Table 8.2 shows how concepts were developed from codes. This process involved comparison of the codes in order to identify commonalities.

Table 8.2: Summary of concepts

Identifier	Code	Concept
P20	No process re impact of bus change	No change process
P20	Fear and uncertainty	Fear and uncertainty
P20	Greed, corruption, inefficiency	Organisational failure

Table 8.2 indicates the concepts that were analysed and grouped under a higher-order commonality. These concepts were again regrouped into categories that are indicated in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3: Categories

Concepts	Categories
No change process	Strategy
Fear and uncertainty	Stress/resistance
Organisational failure	Sustainability

Table 8.3 above shows how these concepts were further compared to form broader categories through constant comparison (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Similar and/or related concepts were grouped under one category. Thereafter concepts and categories were then derived.

Once the major categories had been established, they were broken down into positive, neutral and negative categories. These categories are indicated in appendix K.

Memo writing played a key role in this study. The researcher wrote short memos after each interview, summarising the key points from the discussion. Applying open, axial and selective coding, combined with memo writing helped the researcher to create a comprehensive set of concepts. Table 8.4 provides an excerpt of one such memo, written after an in-depth interview.

Table 8.4: Example of memo writing

Identifier	Memo
P20	<p>Failure: cocktail of greed, corruption and inefficiency</p> <p>Success: leadership</p> <p>All we can do is prepare at individual level so that individual is able to better cope when change does happen</p> <p>We need to expand individual consciousness at all levels in the organisation</p> <p>We have to prepare the nation for a great change. The future is not capitalistic or material</p> <p>As long as we perpetuate the capitalistic system change will remain unsustainable</p> <p>No planning for change</p> <p>Low prediction rate for successful change</p> <p>Focus when changing should be on middle management who often sabotage change efforts</p> <p>Conformity – group conformity often sabotages change</p>

The example of memo writing, as depicted in table 8.4, assisted the researcher with summarising the key elements that emerged during the interview process.

### 8.3 GROUNDED THEORY

Through a methodology of grounded theory, theory emergence, construction and verification were facilitated (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Coding helped to fracture and reconstruct data. The collected data was reviewed and reworked several times. Deliberate steps were taken during each review and/or rework process to further interpret and analyse the data.

The entire data set collected by means of a case study, in-depth interviews, focus group sessions, and supported through solicited data, was perused to gain a sense of what the data in its entirety contained. As the process unfolded, data was categorised and recategorised. Theory generation was based on constant

comparison, theoretical sampling and theoretical saturation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987).

Relevant categories and themes were identified as they emerged. Each piece of data was classified according to the categories and themes. The data soon formed patterns and meaning emerged. The relationships between themes and categories were discovered using handwritten diagrams and relational maps. Appendix L depicts the fractured and reworked data by theme. An example of reworked data from the focus group sessions is provided in appendix M. Appendix P relates the researcher's grounded theory journey as a story behind the story.

## **8.4 DATA FINDINGS**

Following a grounded theory methodology, this section will focus on the data findings that emerged in the data. The findings will be discussed as they emerged from the case study, in-depth interviews and focus group sessions.

### **8.4.1 Case study data**

Chapter five detailed the case study relating to organisational change and leadership by presenting a summary of the experiences of three large, but totally different, organisational change initiatives. This data was subjected to grounded theory analysis together with data collected from the in-depth interviews and focus group sessions. The combination of case study and grounded theory approach allowed flexibility, while enhancing a rich harvest of the finely grained research data (McLeod, 2002). Solicited data, field notes and observations were used to contextualise and enhance the research data.

Although the nature of the Fleet, TWT and WSI change initiatives differed completely from one another, fundamental similarities stood out. The importance of participation, communication, feedback and discussions, as well as leadership was reiterated. The lack of change management methodology was also prevalent.

Stress, fear and anxiety were predominant feelings experienced during change. Participation, communication, leadership, feedback and discussion, capability, the impact of change and understanding were repeatedly mentioned. The organisation's

apparent inability to deal with the impact of stress on individuals and a lack of organisational understanding of the impact of stress on individuals were significant.

Comprehension of the rationale behind a change initiative reduces stress and anxiety, while providing clearer consideration of various complexities and increasing goodwill.

Understanding different thinking patterns (as positioned through human niches) is beneficial to successful change. At the time of the project, the organisation had no knowledge of human niche theory, hence little appreciation for and application of different worldviews. Various human niche differences were discussed in chapter three. None of these insights were applied to any change initiative discussed in the case study. It appears that an understanding of different thinking systems would have assisted successful change.

Extending this to the training strategy indicates an incorrect and incompatible training methodology. Whenever possible, metaphors should be used with PURPLE. Moreover, PURPLE has a learning system that relies on copying, and its members are passive learners who rely heavily on right-brain functions. Training should be adjusted and/or adapted to provide for different human niches. Practical experiential learning interventions could have worked much better than the training methodology followed, as reflected in the case study.

#### **8.4.1.1 Fleet**

The main themes revolved around a lack of participation, communication and leadership. Anxiety, stress, fear, uncertainty, frustration, exhaustion and ambiguity described employees' emotions. There was no organisational structure to assist individuals with these emotions. Strategy did not encompass change and no change management component existed. There was little or no planning for change. Change was generally perceived as disorganised. Misunderstanding, mistrust and fear were rife.

The data revealed a need for the participation and inclusivity of all, communication and clarity on roles and responsibilities. There was no organisational outlet to deal

with increased stress and anxiety. Resistance seemed to have been inevitable. The more entrenched a model of work is, the harder behavioural change becomes. With no change management and no forum to address the required behavioural changes and the increased stress levels, successful organisational change is almost perceived as having to be challenging.

Integrating these findings into human niche theory reveals that this organisational change initiative was used as a RED power tool. RED made the decisions, directed work and ensured a downward only flow of communication. The powerful, downward only flow of communication took control away from employees, resulting in a lack of certainty and autonomy. This, in turn, further increased employees' feelings of anxiety and stress.

Perhaps high BLUE could have directed and utilised RED energy more positively. Encompassing change within strategy, applying a comprehensive change management method and ensuring a workable stress reduction outlet in the organisational setting should have contributed towards the success of this change element.

#### **8.4.1.2 TWT**

The majority of themes highlighted in the Fleet change initiative were repeated in the TWT project as strategy did not encompass change, communication, participation, stress, fear, anxiety and uncertainty. In addition, there was no change methodology and no outlet for increased stress levels. Training and the requirement to understand various complexities relating to training emerged in addition to the common themes.

Only select individuals were involved and participated, which resulted in numerous restarts. The inherent need of PURPLE for discussion before participation was not acknowledged. Lack of training further impacted on the project results.

Effective communication seems vital. Ineffective communication does not ensure that the correct audience is reached. Without feedback, the communication loop has not been closed. Face-to-face communication is essential and can hardly be

replaced by electronic media. There appears to be a definite connection between communication and attitude towards or willingness to change.

Because the new work method required strict adherence to timekeeping, subordinates became highly emotional. Yet, no attention was given to behavioural modifications to deal with these emotions. Improved explanations pertaining to work method changes could have ensured better understanding by all. Improved organisational methods to deal with emotions and stress could have alleviated much of the behavioural difficulties and negativity.

Poor planning, little participation and lack of inclusivity hampered change. Selective consultation further excluded employees. Inadequate discussion, involvement and understanding created a platform for resistance.

The BLUE authority structure did not understand the different thinking systems. BLUE attempted a prescriptive approach, failing to understand change from the perspective of those engaged in its implementation. This workforce, led by elders, rigidly preserves the ways and culture, is safety driven and prefers circular communication. The attempt to introduce rigid rules through downward communication could partly explain why this change initiative failed. An understanding of human niches, coupled with proper translation between PURPLE and BLUE human niches, could have assisted this change initiative.

#### **8.4.1.3 WSI**

Themes in this change initiative related to participation, communication, leadership, feedback and understanding. The importance of workable cross-functional teams was an additional theme. The impact of radical change on work methods and change management featured again.

When employees were afforded the opportunity to participate, their perceptions of being involved increased. Improved communication ensured that the correct messages were transmitted, improving employees' certainty. Constructive feedback helped employees to understand their importance in the project. Working employees'



comments into training manuals further fostered feelings of participation and inclusivity.

Working in cross-functional teams remains challenging. Large bureaucratic structures negate cross-functional team workings. With no cross-functional support structures, employees tend to revert to old, unproductive, fragmented habits of working.

Through a limited understanding of human niches, a different communication approach was followed. The communication element incorporated a circular and upward communication structure and incorporated employee feedback. However, communication was the only change management element. Although employees did not report as much fear and anxiety, many of them did experience increased stress as a result of these changes. These increased stress levels were neither acknowledged nor dealt with in the organisational setting.

Continuous communication ensured that all affected employees had a clear understanding of the intention, objectives and time schedules. This reduced employees' anxiety and uncertainty levels. When employees perceive that they are receiving improved communication and/or information, the result is improved openness to change. Furthermore, the higher the perceived quality of implementation of information received about a change initiative, the lower the perceived resistance to change will be.

#### **8.4.1.4 Integration**

In the organisation involved in this study, projects are generally initiated to improve performance. A mechanistic project approach is followed to add structure to change. Unfortunately, change towards improved performance is often short-lived or not realised in full. Permanency in the new future is not included as an objective and not addressed from a change management perspective.

Lewin's (1951) three-step model confirms that change is about moving from a current state (unfreezing), through a transition state (changing) to arrive at a new future (refreezing). The goal of change or the purpose of the refreezing step is to

improve performance meaningfully. The common objective for both project and change management should be arrival at the desired future state.

The case study indicated the challenges faced when a pure project approach was followed. Projects that impact on and/or change individual's and their job roles or functions need to include a change management element. The change management and project management functions must present a unified change proposition. The earlier in the project such a unified proposition can be presented, the sooner and perhaps more easily, successful change might be achieved. Unifying and integrating people, processes and tools creates a firm foundation from which change can be launched.

Technically, this requires that project and change functions design, develop and deliver a comprehensive solution that addresses both process and human elements. Figure 5.7 illustrated this through an adaptation of Lewin's (1951) three-step model. From an individual change perspective, such a solution will manifest through behaviours, resistance, processes and daily functions. To effectively alter behaviours, reduce resistance and modify daily activities, requires that the designed solution must be widely accepted, approved and implemented by those individuals and/or groups impacted by the change and the suggested solution. This implies effective communication, participation and inclusivity.

Applying a unified change and project management approach might ensure delivery of the intended improvement through a complementary approach. Further benefits of such a unified solution include a stronger case for change management. Through a stronger change management case, early inclusion and discussion involvement can be ensured. Such joint co-operation will also contribute positively towards the change management perception. Without joint co-operation, project teams will continually perceive the change management function as unimportant. Through concrete demonstration and delivery of results through the transfer of structured change management tools and processes, the perception of change management as soft and fuzzy can be altered and aligned towards project language.

The different change initiatives mentioned in this case study failed to realise their full benefits, despite extremely well-developed and planned technical solutions. It would seem that cost and time overruns remain unless organisations include individual participation, inclusivity and behavioural change as well as effective stress reduction methods concurrently.

A holistic approach to the change process can meet and even exceed business expectations. Successful change is ultimately dependent on a solution that is holistically and inclusively designed, developed and delivered. Such a solution will more readily be embraced, adopted and utilised by individuals impacted by organisational change.

#### **8.4.2 In-depth interviews**

Eight CEOs and senior leaders were interviewed. The main themes started to repeat after the second interview. An example of verbatim responses from in-depth interviews can be seen in Appendix H (in-depth interviews).

The data consistently revealed a lack of methodology when organisations undertake change. “We are not influenced by any model.” “I don’t know any model names.” “...no model that I believe in”. In all instances, change was undertaken, and is still conducted using little or no methodology, almost to a point of being model agnostic. In addition, it was obvious that change happens regardless of whether or not a model is followed, because constant change in organisations remains a reality.

The right way will is inclusive change. “The new organisation must be designed by the people.” “Inclusivity is vital.” “Good models include the people.” The wrong way will be painful, unplanned and unpredictable. All respondents agreed that the design of the new organisation, where the new organisation represents a post-change state, should come from the people. The new organisation should be designed by the people with management participating in a supervisory capacity only.

“Wrong decisions.” “Wrong beliefs.” “Empowering wrong people.” “Non-workable solutions.” Detrimental leadership characteristics were identified as having a short-term view, making wrong decisions, empowering the wrong individuals, creating

uncertainty, not leading, splitting teams and not presenting a unified front. Such leaders do not do change successfully and are unable to pull people along on the journey.

All the respondents raised a further concern about management. The traditional management functions of planning, preparation and control are hugely lacking during normal operations, even more so when the organisation is in turmoil. Such management is identified by a lack of planning, lack of preparation, lack of control, not spending time on change or on employees, lack of awareness of employee stress and a short-term view. Furthermore, the data indicated that such a management philosophy generally embarks upon change for the wrong reasons, namely egos, own benefit and quick profits.

“Business operates on very short term cycles.” Instant gratification precludes a long term vision. There is a “... movement towards immediate gratification”. The respondents agreed that instant gratification is an increasing problem, which is amplified by the rapid advances in technology and profit fixation. However, the respondents agreed on the inevitability of change.

Trust was repeatedly highlighted. “Management must show their trust of employees.” Trust and sacrifice were presented as vital leadership characteristics. “Leadership must be trusted.” “There can be no change without trust.” “Poor communication jeopardises trust.” Leadership without trust and sacrifice equates to poor management.

Paradoxically, the data was unequivocal in stating that a leader cannot assign trust onto himself or herself, and that sacrifice implies giving something up. All respondents agreed that leaders have to discard their ego in order to be successful. Power games and ego should be replaced by empathy, ethical behaviour and honest, open conversations. Poor treatment of employees was noted as one of the main reasons for change failure.

Leadership entails ownership, tenure and leading by example. Ownership of the entire change initiative must reside with the leadership team. A crucial function of the

leadership team is to eradicate all hear-say about the changes through effective communication.

All the respondents agreed that “leadership is not management”. “Appointing a manager is easy. Appointing a leader is much harder.” Leadership emerged as a non-negotiable factor for successful change.

“Change is chaotic” and organisations are not strong in planning for change, which results in a low success rate. “If you don’t think about the future, you can’t plan for change.” Because organisations are not strong in planning, thoughts about future actions, needs, expectations and anticipations should be on the agenda more frequently. “If you don’t forecast well, forecast frequently.” Given the high frequency of change in the organisational environment, forecasting and planning should feature more prominently. “If you can’t see the future, look into the future often.”

The detailed collected data was further broken down into positive, neutral and negative categories. The details of this are provided in appendix K. The big “four-letter-word” of business was revealed as TIME. Communication, leadership, trust and ethics also featured prominently in every discussion. It became evident through this classification that there are neutralities - things that cannot be wished away.

A stable workforce was perceived as a supportive convenience. However, a stable workforce was not regarded as an essential for successful change.

Change elements were identified as strategy, organisational strengths in terms of organisational change, ethics, the ability to sell the “burning platform”, creating a change understanding, doing regular stress checks, obtaining buy-in and convening regular meetings. However, the data generally indicated that individuals and teams struggle to keep up with and make sense of the pace of change and the related stress which results.

A short-term view, survival, instant gratification and misalignment were identified as elements which will result in change failure. The data also revealed that organisations are unable to deal with the stress responses of individuals engaged in

the change process. The respondents agreed that for as long as emotions such as fear, guilt, mistrust, rejection, false expectations, scepticism and feelings of exclusions are predominant and prevalent, individuals will not be able to optimally participate in the change effort.

Some respondents agreed that many organisations have become large and impersonal and as a result, no longer understand its employees. Leaders often do not know their employees and followers, or their circumstances. Employees are painfully aware that the leader knows nothing about him or her. This results in disconnect between leader and follower.

According to the collected data, leaders lose their intuitive ability to communicate, engage and speak to their followers as a result of increased workload and time pressures. Respondents agreed that disconnect between leader and followers become the norm as unengaged and negative leaders struggle to engage in successful change.

Uncertainty creates fear which is perpetuated through different messages. When organisations embark upon change, fear becomes the standard. All the respondents acknowledged that it becomes irrelevant whether fear is rational or irrational.

The respondents concurred on the importance of acknowledging the heightened stress levels of employees. They further agreed that their organisation was unable to effectively cope with these stress levels, let alone have effective methods in place to reduce stress levels. The respondents stated that regular stress checks and a keen awareness of individual stress are required because of the modern, fast-paced business environment. Unmanaged or uncontrolled stress renders the individual unable to engage in the required change initiative.

Obtaining buy-in is essential to ensure commitment and accountability. “Committed teams are accountable.” Failing to obtain buy-in will result in resistance, noncommitment and unaccountability.

### 8.4.3 Focus group sessions

The main themes that emerged from the focus group sessions were leadership tasks, leadership characteristics, senior management, change types, change frequency, the lack of methodology and translated strategy and personal emotions. Respondents reported increased feelings of stress and anxiety whilst involved in some form of organisational change. An example of verbatim responses from focus group sessions can be seen in Appendix H (focus group sessions).

As indicated in chapter six, the respondents reported increased stress and anxiety. “There was no help available.” “I felt stressed because of the uncertainty.” “I experienced lots of confusion.” “I don’t understand the assignment of responsibilities.” “Change is difficult.” “Anxious.” “I was unable to function due to the change.” “Structural changes are highly stressful.” “I don’t want to come to work when people expect answers from me that I cannot give.”

The respondents admitted to being resistant to the change process. The loss of autonomy, uncertainty, a lack of understanding, poor past experiences, a high change frequency and scepticism were advanced as the primary reasons for resistance. “I resisted the change because I did not understand why.” “There are always changes.” The social engineering of change was often unethical as perceived by respondents.

All the emotions that were shared in relation to organisational change were negative. The main emotions were stress, resistance, anxiety and feeling despondent and unequipped. Instability, confusion, no autonomy, unsuitable training, disempowerment, noninvolvement and the difficulty of change were also mentioned. Expressing fear, unhappiness, skepticism, uncertainty, conflict, damage and prayer were reiterated.

Owing to the fact that the leaders were not calm, available and failed to display presence and sensitivity, the data related to emotions revealed an insecure attachment. “Leadership is reactive.” “Leadership does not explain.” “Leadership must show the direction.” Negative methods such as alcohol and irrationality were used to mitigate overwhelming feelings of negativity and to provide relief from stress.

The data revealed an utter lack of organisational change knowledge, coupled with the use of hardly any change principles. No change methodology was followed and change was done in a rudimentary fashion with precious little internal knowledge and support. The current change models do not resonate, resulting in no theoretical methodology being followed. No methodology influences change and change generally only becomes a key topic once the situation is already detrimental. Hence, change is generally a mess.

“I’ve never seen the bigger picture.” “You need to know where you are, where you want to go.” The change strategy is not communicated. “Poor communication worsened the process.” Strategy does not encompass change and change generally does not form part of strategy. Success factors are autonomy, communication, permissible decision making, change enablement, inclusivity, leadership, ensuring a common understanding by all and empowerment. The reasons for change failure point to reactive and ineffective leadership, inefficient management, the importance of profit above people, no strength in leading change, lack of knowledge, vague explanations, lack of communication and the implementation of solutions that fail to address the real problems.

Leadership was considered important regardless of a stable or changing business landscape. Significant leadership characteristics were identified as ethics, honesty, integrity, respect, trustworthiness, being proactive and authentic and living the organisation’s values.

Key leadership tasks were indicated as change guidance, reasoning the change, mobilising people’s willingness and ability, sharing vision, solving real problems, encouraging people to buy in and explaining the change. Employees expect leadership to communicate, value the importance of employees and convey intentions truthfully.

The data showed management styles to be inconsistent, this could result in negative output. “Management is archaic.” “Change managers are clueless and ineffective.” “Management can’t do change.” “Change is a mess.” Senior management were not perceived to empower employees, were always changing something and spent a lot



of time on damage control. Poor planning and poor translation of strategy as well as poor communication were attributed to senior management. Management were seen to be playing power games, building empires and changing haphazardly without consultation, explanation or support for employees.

Damage control results in consultants being called in to fix the resultant mess. Consultants stay on, becoming long-term advisers. Crisis management depicted the general management style. Management was also accused of not understanding employees, not being transparent and not allowing employees any decision-making power or inclusivity in the change processes.

Senior management lacks cognisance of the change frequency, employees and vicissitude. Employees felt bombarded by a too high frequency of change which contributed to failure. Employees felt their feelings and emotions were generally not taken into consideration. This situation worsened during periods of change. The main emotions employees reported during organisational change were fear, uncertainty, stress and even trauma. Employees want to and need to understand and engage in the change and expect senior management to be aware of their unique challenges. Engagement at an employee level means empowerment, participation, understanding, decision making powers and inclusivity.

Inefficient management often results in change failure. Management's need for power and empires negates their ability to interact with employees during change periods. The respondents suggested that a deep involvement on the part of management would have ensured workable solutions.

Appendix M provides the reworked data from the focus group interviews using the strategy theme as an example. All the data themes were reconstructed accordingly, resulting in figure 8.1, which displays the various components that emanated from these sessions. According to figure 8.1, the starting point is change. Change results from competitors, having to do more with less, market conditions and dynamics (mergers, acquisitions and risk avoidance), profit requirements, technology, job function changes and safety requirements.

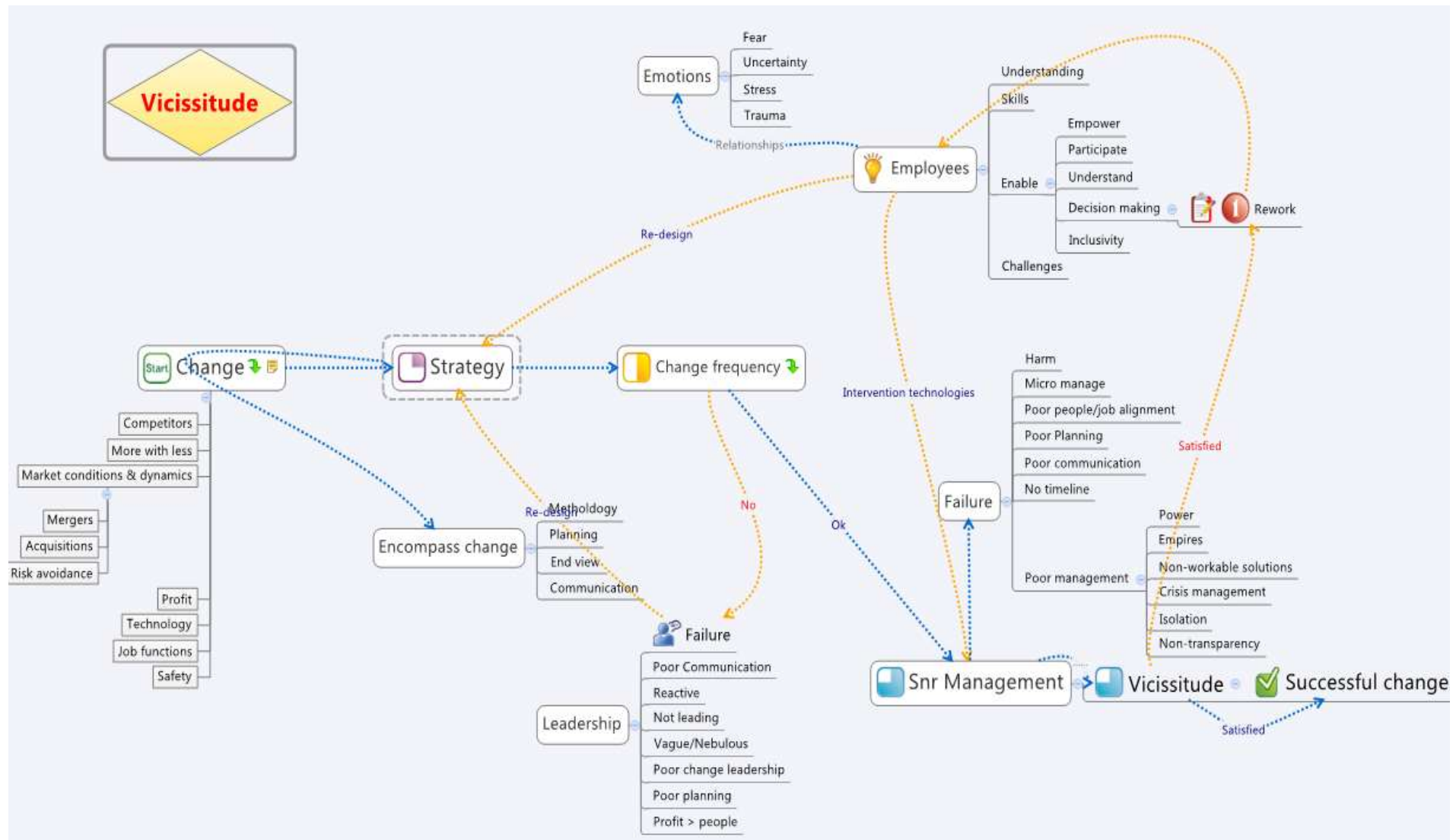


Figure 8.1: Focus group summary

Modernity requires inclusivity and participation at all organisational levels, coupled with planning, communication, control and clear schedules. Organisations require trust from employees. Modern employees require trust from their organisations. The modern organisation might be able to sustain daily practices of crisis management with inclusion and effectively dealing with individual stress.

According to figure 8.1, strategy should encompass change; if not, a re-design is required. Strategy should include leadership - followers will only respect and obey the strategy if the entire leadership team support and are committed to the strategy. Strategy which encompasses change can result in successful change.

Reactive, nebulous leadership who place profit above people will probably result in change failure. Ineffective planning and communication hamper successful change. Only if leaders are followed, can successful organisational change become a reality. Employees expect leadership and guidance throughout the change process. Displaying empathy with the various challenges experienced by employees, being mindful of employee emotions and enabling employees are all vital elements in the achievement of successful change.

#### **8.4.4 Field notes and observations**

Field notes were taken during meetings, focus group sessions and interviews. These field notes were incorporated into the various discussions.

Observations were incorporated during the focus group sessions, in-depth interviews and informal discussions. The primary observation in the focus group sessions was fear. The researcher perceived that individuals wanted to share and were actually grateful for an opportunity to do so. However, they needed strong assurance that this information would not be held against them.

Concurrent with coding, memoranda were written with observations and comments on the codes and the potential ways the data revealed patterns relating to organisational change and leadership. Observations of interactions, culture, emotional behaviour and physical reactions were also included in the various discussions.

## 8.5 INTEGRATION

Organisational change is complex with disequilibrium and instability, morphing and evolving, in unpredictable ways. Such complexity and unpredictability tax the ability of individuals, leaders and their organisations. Thoughts on complexity theory and chaos theory naturally developed alongside the data findings. Complexity is generally used to characterise something with many parts that interact in multiple ways. Complex systems investigate how the relationships between parts give rise to the collective behaviours of a system and how the system interacts and forms relationships with its environment (Bar-Yam, 2002).

Complexity theory is rooted in chaos theory which views chaos as extremely complicated information, as opposed to the absence of order. Chaos theory concerns deterministic systems whose behaviour can, in principle, be predicted. Chaotic systems are predictable for a while and then appear to become random (Hayles, 1991). Chaos theory recognises that the future is unknowable, yet allows for the possibility of an awareness of a variety of future states (Mina, 2014). Moreover, chaos theory suggests that complete and accurate information, which is necessary for rational decision --making, is unobtainable (Mina, 2014).

The unpredictability and chaos displayed during times of organisational change affirm the above. Individual behaviour becomes unpredictable owing to increased stress, while accurate information sharing is challenging because of a constantly changing future state. Both chaos and complexity theory reiterates the necessity to boldly re-evaluate traditional organisational problem-solving methods.

Organisations are complex systems. Grant (2008) describes the common features of complex systems as unpredictability, self-organisation, inertia and chaos. A by-product of organisational struggles for survival and adaptation is organisational change. Current processes and methods struggle to keep abreast of competitors while exhausting those individuals involved. Cost reductions and chasing of profit margins can no longer sustain organisations. Without effective adaptation methods, organisations may perish. With effective adaptation methods, new behaviour can emerge.

The science of complexity yielded four principles to be applied to organisational change. Firstly, complex adaptive systems are at risk when in equilibrium. Equilibrium is the precursor to death (Kauffman, 1998a; 1998b). In organisational terms, equilibrium equals stagnation. Organisational change is a direct result of the struggle to adapt and evolve in the continuous struggle for survival. The data clearly indicated that change is the new stability - organisations are in a constant state of disequilibrium.

Secondly, complex adaptive systems exhibit the capacity of self-organisation and emergent complexity (Holland, 1998). The accelerating complexity in organisations demonstrates this principle.

Thirdly, complex adaptive systems tend to move towards the edge of chaos when provoked by complexity (Kauffman, 1998a; 1998b). An important corollary to this principle is that a complex adaptive system, once it has reached a peak or a golden era, in the case of an organisation, must go down to go up. Thus, the system must be pulled far enough out of its usual arrangements before it can create substantially different forms and arrive at a more evolved basin of attraction (Kauffman, 1998a; 1998b). This principle holds true for individuals who need to regress before upshift becomes possible and relates to the regression of human niches when under stress in order to upshift. This was depicted in figure 7.1.

Fourthly, a living system cannot be directed, only disturbed (Holland, 1998). Living systems are easily disturbed. Complex adaptive systems are characterised by weak cause and effect links. Large changes may have little effect, while small changes may result in a huge effect. Many organisations have attempted large-scale change which had hardly any impact.

All of the above principles hold true for organisational change. With this knowledge we have to reframe our reference of organisational change. Organisations need to be in a constant state of adaptive equilibrium. Because change is complex, it is constantly moving towards the edge of chaos. These facts further led the researcher to believe that organisational change is a complex adaptive system whose very survival depends on adaptive equilibrium. Figure 8.2 integrates and combines these

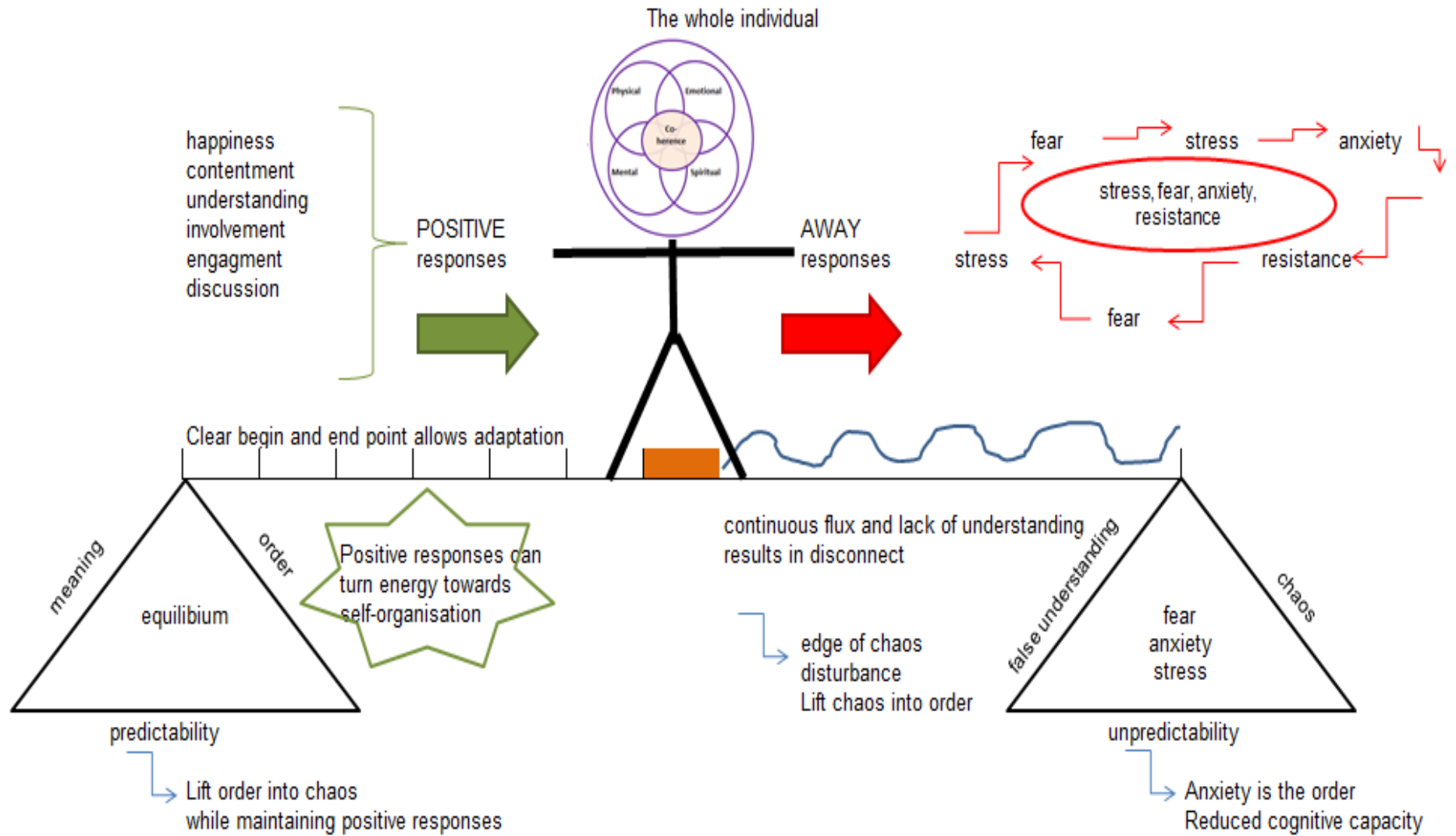


Figure 8.2 The individual and organisational change

thoughts with the individual as a further building block element in the emerging conceptual framework.

Figure 8.2 integrates the above thoughts into a further building block element in the emerging conceptual framework. This figure indicates the whole person with positive and away responses. Positive responses include understanding, engagement, discussion and involvement. Away responses comprise the negative circle of stress, fear and anxiety. Continuous flux and lack of understanding result in disconnect and reduced cognitive capacity. Clear begin and end points allow for improved adaptation and self-organisation, creating an opportunity where the individual can lift chaos into order.

## **8.6 CONCLUSION**

An analogy can be drawn between organisational change and working the land. When working the land, a team of oxen is yoked with the plough-boy in front. The plough-boy makes few, if any, decisions; instead, his only function is to follow, albeit from the front. The driver of the team of oxen is at the back or on the side of the team, sometimes sitting in the wagon from where he directs and drives the team and the plough-boy. Occasionally, the plough-boy knows where to go and leads the entire team, with the driver merely determining the tempo or pace of work.

Furthermore, each ox has its special place in the team. Generally, the two tamest oxen are at the back to stabilise the entire operation. The driver knows each ox intimately, knowing what can be expected of each and every one. Each ox is placed according to its ability, strength and skill. However, when an ox becomes ill or “stressed”, it has to be replaced by a fresh ox, and the unfit ox has to be treated or rested.

Similarly, during organisational change, the leader should be guiding from behind, allowing the leaders of teams to take up their roles. The leader should be intimately familiar with the strengths, abilities and condition of each and every employee, while ensuring role clarity for all involved in organisational change. The strengths of every employee should be aligned to job requirements where these strengths can best be



utilised in achieving organisational objectives. Leaders have to consider the replacement of unfit role players, for whatever reason.

The need for a new frame of reference when embarking upon organisational change has been highlighted. Furthermore, fear, stress and anxiety featured in every conversation. The first and often lasting emotion when discussing organisational change was fear. The respondents acknowledged that organisations are unable to deal with increased individual stress. Organisational leaders admitted that no workable methods were in operation in the organisation which effectively reduced individual stress levels. Yet, the strengths of every individual can only be utilised fully when such an individual's stress levels are in a state of homeostasis or at least reduced.

As per the stated research strategy and the emergent nature of grounded theory, a deliberate attempt was made to find evidence of themes that emerged from the data. This led the researcher to return to the literature to explore stress in depth. Stress conversations inadvertently include the brain through manifestations of fight, flight or freeze responses. In compiling chapter nine, the researcher thus returned to the literature in order to explore stress, the brain and leadership because of the importance of these in an organisational context.



## **CHAPTER 9: STRESS AND THE BRAIN**

### **9.1 INTRODUCTION**

Given the prominence of stress in the case study and the data findings, the purpose of this chapter is a deeper exploration of the literature, elucidating the concept of stress and the brain in an attempt to create higher levels of insight and shared understanding, as well a more in-depth understanding of individual behaviours displayed in the case study and focus group sessions.

Because of the large amount of change in today's organisations, employees increasingly encounter new problems. This means that employees encounter problems with no procedures to follow, no obvious answers and solutions for similar situations not working (Rock, 2009). This causes anxiety which, in turn, increases stress and becomes a vicious cycle.

The case study presented in chapter five, indicated the impact of stress during change. During the in-depth interviews, senior leaders acknowledged the high levels of stress during changes. The majority of participants in the focus group sessions reported increased stress levels and heightened anxiety. During times of organisational change, the work environment was perceived as chronically stressful. The participants further reported that there was no trusted outlet in the organisational setting where stress could be minimised.

In light of the research findings presented in chapter six, individuals experience increased stress during times of organisational change. The data reported that organisations struggle to deal with the stress responses of individuals. Participants acknowledged resorting to gym, prayer or pastoral counselling in an attempt to reduce their stress levels.

This chapter attempts to elucidate stress and anxiety through applicable brain functioning theory, exploring human reactions to change, stress, anxiety, stress and exercise as well as stress and leadership. This chapter will also touch on neuroleadership and introduce the stress barometer, which the researcher adapted using the social readjustment scale (Holmes and Rahe, 1967).

### **9.1.1 Human reaction to change**

There are currently huge changes in virtually all dimensions of the socioeconomic environment (Darling and Heller, 2011). Concerns focusing on issues such as business, government, politics, education, health and social care, religion, management, leading, investing, borrowing, buying, owning, working and innovating are permeating societies as never before (Coy, 2008). Unfortunately, the reality is that humans do not take kindly to change. Wild ideas scare people, they fill them with anxiety and doubt. Straying grotesquely from the beaten path makes humans fearful and even self-destructive (Bloom, 2010).

The data presented in chapter five and six clearly indicated that organisational change results in fear, stress and anxiety. Furthermore, human reactions to change could stem from the individual, groups, community, the organisation, leadership, management or a combination of these. Fear of the unknown, habit, self-interest and economic insecurity as well as failure to recognise the need for change, distrust, perceptions and scepticism were all identified as factors that may contribute to the individual's resistance to change.

Siegel (1999) refers to a zone of autonomic and emotional arousal that is optimal for effective functioning. Thus, when arousal falls within this window, information received from the internal and external environment can be integrated. The presented data depicted evidence of individual's emotional tolerance window oscillating between states of hyperarousal and hypoarousal where effective functioning becomes challenging. It could be suspected that as the emotional tolerance window is different for different individuals, so the emotional tolerance window may be different for different human niches.

Kobasa (1979) described a pattern of personality characteristics that distinguished managers and executives who remained healthy under life stress. Later, Maddi (2006) characterised hardiness as a combination of three attitudes (commitment, control and challenge) that provide the needed motivation to turn stressful circumstances into opportunities for growth. While it is possible that certain individuals can easily cope with change and stress, the presented research data did not display this and was far removed from commitment, control and challenge.

On an organisational level, the data presented in chapters five and six confirmed structural and cultural inertia, threats to existing power relationships, threats to expertise and resource allocation as well as scepticism about previous unsuccessful change efforts and poor planning as organisational factors standing in the way of successful organisational change.

In addition, it appears as if there was no mourning (shock, disbelief, discard and eventual realisation). The individuals who were interviewed still seemed to be in a state of shock and/or disbelief. The required processes of discarding and realisation or clarify, crystallise and change had apparently not started.

The data findings further confirmed that all of these factors are influenced by increased stress levels which, in turn, result in stress-related behaviours, coupled with decreased cognitive capacity. While certain change models, as discussed in chapter two, acknowledge emotions and their role, the impact of stress appears to be ignored. It seems possible that such elevated stress levels could hamper individual movement towards change acceptance. As such, the researcher deemed a deeper investigation into the South African stress situation imperative.

## **9.2 IMPACT OF STRESS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT**

Life has become stressful. Time pressures within time-compressed lifestyles (Fram, 1992) are stressors faced by many working individuals. Unrelieved stress becomes perpetual, and will undeniably influence organisational change efforts negatively. Dahl (2009) confirmed this, indicating that despite the long-standing focus on change management, the average organisation is unable to control the process of change without significant negative consequences. Numerous research reports have revealed that employees who experience large-scale change report higher levels of stress, more anxiety and increased feelings of uncertainty (Kiefer, 2005; Jones, *et al.*, 2008).

The data reported feelings of stress, anxiety, reduced autonomy, reduced ability and even total shutdown. One would assume that it is unlikely that an individual would be unable to function optimally, given such feelings. However, in the South African

context, poverty, migrant labour, energy supply challenges, public anger, alcohol abuse and domestic violence are added stressors. Statistics on rape, crime, violent crime, uncontrolled shootings, domestic violence, racial and political violence and road accidents are commonly available (Statistics SA, 2014).

It is unlikely that many individuals would remain unaffected by the above. Given these added stressors, coupled with organisational change, there could well be a moment when change becomes overwhelming. The additional stress caused by organisational changes therefore creates huge challenges for leadership and organisations. The sections below will explore stress and anxiety, stress and distress, trauma, exercise, violence and medication in an attempt to understand the impact of stress on individuals, society and organisations.

### **9.2.1 Stress and anxiety defined**

Levine (1997:20) quotes Spinoza (1632-1677) stating: “Whatever increases, decreases, limits or extends the body’s power of action, increases, decreases, limits, or extends the mind’s power of action”.

Stress and anxiety are close companions which often trigger each other. Stress comes from a feeling that certain circumstances should not be happening. Anxiety stems from the feeling that something should be happening, which is not. In both stress and anxiety, our inner experience is that we want to be somewhere other than where we are (Berceli, 2012).

Various definitions of stress exist and differ, depending on whether stress is being defined by psychologists, medical practitioners or management staff. Stress, as used in the literature, may refer to external influences acting on individuals (Selye’s stressors, 1956); physiological reactions to such influences (Selye’s original stress concept) (Mayer, 2000; Selye, 1956); the psychological interpretation of both the external influences and the physiological reactions (Selye, 1976, 1983; Code and Langan-Fox, 2001); and adverse behavioural reactions exhibited in work or social situations, or both (Richmond and Kehoe, 1999; Vasse, Nijhuis & Kok, 1998).

However, the most apt definition comes from the founding father of stress research, Selye, who introduced the concept of stress as a medical and scientific entity (Selye, 1956). He (1964) coined the term “stress” to describe a set of physical and psychological responses to adverse conditions or influences. Selye (1964) applied the engineering term “stress” (a force which causes deformation in bodies) to describe the stereotypical response of an organism to a wide range of chemical, biological or physical stimuli and recognised that stress included both a neurological and a physiological reaction. This concept of neurophysiology distinguished psychology (content of thoughts in the brain) from neurology (the way the brain processes that content) (Selye, 1956). He (1987:17) defined stress as “... the non-specific response of the body to any demand placed upon it” and differentiated between eustress or good stress and distress. Distress occurs when demands placed on the body exceed its capacity to expend energy in maintaining homeostasis.

### **9.2.2 Stress and the brain**

*“The more unconscious . . . a man’s ego . . . the more his experience as a whole will be projected upon the group” (Neumann, 1971:275).*

Our brains have an inherent need for predictability and order (Hogan, 2007; Rock, 2009). In response to a diverse range of challenges, organisations are increasingly engaging in change initiatives (Hansson, *et al.*, 2008; Noblet, *et al.*, 2006; van Knippenberg, *et al.*, 2006). Such organisational change necessitates that employees adapt to new circumstances which may contradict this basic need, while depleting employees’ adaptive resources (Bernerth, *et al.*, 2011).

Ambiguity activates the threat circuitry in the brain. Reduced autonomy activates threat circuitry. Stress reduces working memory. Stress also results in significant cognitive impairment, affecting basic perception as well as decision making (Ringleb, Rock & Ancona, 2013). To a large extent, organisational change implies turmoil, ambiguity, uncertainty and a loss of control. This in turn may heighten employees’ feelings of anxiousness (Jimmieson, *et al.*, 2004). However, when we feel in control, this results in an up-tweak of the brain, hormones and immune system. Control upshift our physiology (Bloom, 2010).

In times of stress, anxiety or trauma the hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA-axis) is activated, producing neurotransmitters. These hormones function as chemical messengers. When we detect a threatening situation, the body produces these chemicals to reinforce our ability to defend ourselves. Under normal circumstances, the sympathetic nervous system (SNS) and the parasympathetic nervous system (PNS) – which together make up the autonomic nervous system (ANS) – are primed. The systems that take charge during an emergency suspend all unnecessary bodily functions and activate only those ones required for survival. With the fight/flight response we can experience arousal, anxiety, panic, phobias, bracing our muscles, tremors, high blood pressure, rapid heartbeat and tachycardia, dry mouth or cold hands (Berceli, 2012).

Typically, the brain and spinal cord work together, but when in a stressful situation, the spinal cord will act before the information enters the brain for processing (Rock, 2009). The human brain is wired to make general assumptions from experience. Humans think much less than we believe we do - most of our actions are instinctive. Humans get lost in the details. Humans only react (Taleb, 2010). However, with stress, the brain will disconnect more often from the task at hand (Rock, Siegel, Poelmans & Payne, 2013). The data in chapters five and six revealed that individuals were particularly stressed by organisational change, to such an extent that many participants were not able to function optimally, disconnected from the task at hand or were unable to think of ways to improve their situation.

The concept of optimal stress arose from the Yerkes Dodson Law. This law is depicted in figure 9.1, indicating the familiar inverted U diagram (Certo, 2003). The inverted U is often drawn with stress or arousal on the horizontal axis and performance on the vertical axis. Common management practice assumes through the application of the Yerkes Dodson Law that a reasonable amount of pressure, anxiety or fear in the environment leads to higher performance than if stress is not present (Certo, 2003).

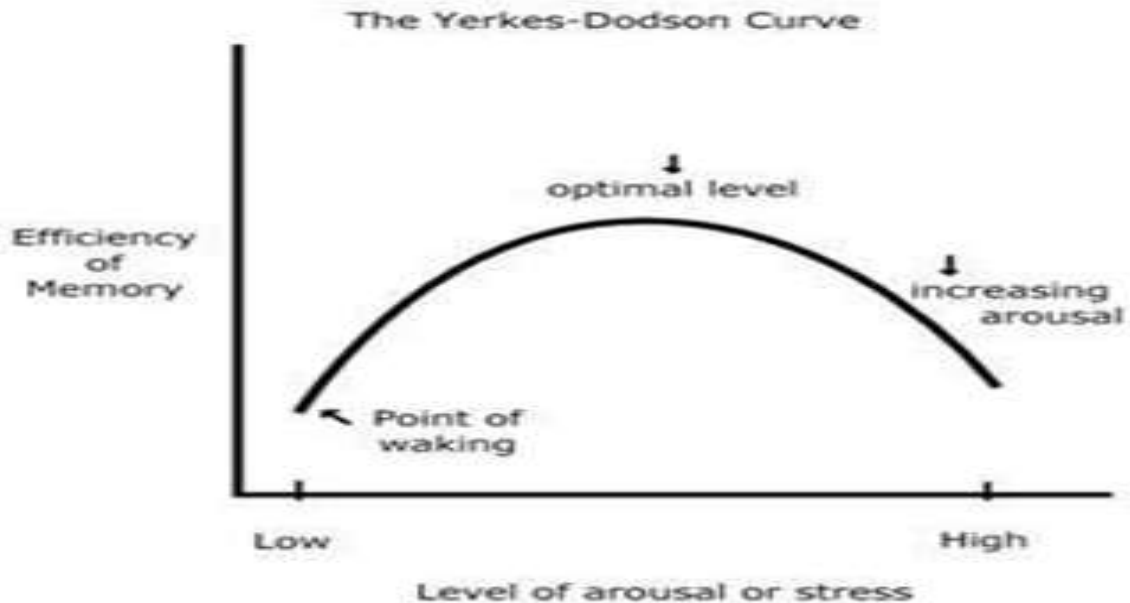


Figure 9.1: Yerkes Dodson Law (Certo, 2003)

Figure 9.1 indicates that increasing stress is beneficial to performance until an optimum level is reached, after which performance declines (Certo, 2003). However, the words "stress", "arousal" and "performance" do not appear at any time in the original paper (Yerkes and Dodson, 1908). Their work explored the relationship between the strength of stimulus (threat of electrical shock – demand) and task acquisition (choosing the right box – performance) in mice. Selye (1987) observed that the individual determines whether the stressor is to be eustress or distress. Whether a particular demand represents eustress or distress is determined not only by the amount of demand perceived by the individual, but also an individual's perceptions of the demand's other characteristics (Le Fevre, Matheny & Kolt, 2003).

It is not at all clear that the Yerkes and Dodson (1908) findings should be applied to human work environments and considered the truth regarding the beneficial effects of optimal workplace stress (Le Fevre, *et al.*, 2003). It is also unfortunate that the inverted U form, and the principles derived from it, continue to be included in contemporary management texts (Certo, 2003; Lussier, 2002; Schermerhorn, 2003), completely disregarding the potential for negative outcomes which are heightened by a too frequent rate of change (Huy, 2001).

### 9.2.3 Stress and distress

With stress and distress operating as synonyms, the distinction that Selye (1956, 1964) intended to make between distress and eustress is lost - stress and distress are used interchangeably, with eustress being a totally different entity. Continuing this line of thought, the idea of good stress can be restated as the oxymoron “good distress”. Such a semantic shift away from rigorous consideration of eustress and distress leads to popular lessons about managing stress at optimum levels and providing good distress to employees (Le Fevre, *et al.*, 2003). Chen (2011) reiterates the importance of distinguishing acceptable stress from excessive stress because this will have a significant impact on the success of an organisational change initiative.

Interestingly, the data presented in chapters five and six did not report feelings of good stress. Instead, the data reported feelings of uncertainty, ambiguity, indecisiveness, anxiety and stress. These feelings were directly attributed to some form of organisational change initiative.

### 9.2.4 Anxiety

“Anxiety is the most powerful and pervasive of all emotions” (Pearce, 2003:52). Anxiety can easily dominate all brain processes, distort experience and sharply interfere with the mind/brain. The singularly intolerable to the brain is anxiety. Anxiety is also the great enemy of intelligence and development and is peculiarly contagious (Pearce, 2003). Anxiety is a feeling of uneasiness and apprehension about a situation, typically one with an uncertain outcome (Lazarus, 1991).

Fear and anxiety are related concepts, both reflecting the high end of the arousal continuum. However, fear is a response to a specific threat, while anxiety is vague and relatively unfocused (Lazarus, 1991). Anxiety is a product of the human biological response to stressful experiences in society (Cohen, 1980, 2004; Squire, 1987; LeDoux, 1996). Fear is a form of arousal which prepares us to fight back rather than give up; driving us toward group unity (Morris, *et al.*, 1976).

The *Merriam-Webster dictionary* (2013) defines anxiety as fear or nervousness about what might happen; apprehensive uneasiness of mind over an impending or



anticipated ill; an overwhelming sense of apprehension and fear marked by physiological signs (such as sweating, tension and increased pulse), by doubt concerning the reality and nature of the threat and by self-doubt about one's capacity to cope with it. Spielberger (1972:482) defines anxiety as an "... unpleasant emotional state or condition which is characterised by subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, and worry, and by activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system". More specifically, anxiety can be defined "as a cognitive-affective response characterised by physiological arousal (indicative of the sympathetic nervous system activation) and apprehension regarding a potentially negative outcome that the individual perceives as impending" (Penn, 1991:254).

The DSM-IV-TR (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2000) categorises anxiety under a variety of different diagnoses: panic disorders (300.21); social phobias (300.23); obsessive compulsive disorder (300.30); post-traumatic stress disorder (309.89); and generalised anxiety disorder (300.02). However, anxiety is defined in more general terms by Barlow, Chorpita & Turovsky (1996) as an emotion composed primarily of high negative affect. LeDoux (1996) defines anxiety as unresolved fear, whereas Sapolsky (2004) defines it as a sense of disquiet or disease created by dread and foreboding. The sensations of anxiety are so closely related in the neural structures of the brain that Ohman and Mineka (2001) argue that panic, phobic fear and PTSD all reflect the single underlying response of anxiety. According to LeDoux (1996), all anxiety disorders reflect the operation of the fear (limbic) system of the brain. He describes this neurological process as "intense cortical arousal" (LeDoux, 1996:289). Sapolsky's (2004:35) research identified "sympathetic arousal" as the relative marker of anxiety. Scaer (2005) defines all anxiety disorders as cyclical autonomic dysregulation of the HPA.

Anxiety is a feeling of disquiet, marked by dread and foreboding. Prolonged anxiety can manifest in disorders such as panic attacks, phobias and PTSD. All of the above reflect a single underlying response of the limbic system. Where stress usually resolves itself after the stressful event has passed, in the case of prolonged anxiety, the symptoms persist (Berceli, 2012). Unfortunately, the dilemma of the human species is that we are not effective at turning the HPA-axis off. We are unable to readily extinguish anxiety after a traumatic event. "Anxiety is unresolved fear"

(Berceli, 2012:35). Interestingly, anxiety and depression are predicted to be the single major burden of disease within the next two decades (Mathers, Vos, Stevenson & Begg, 2000).

Growth hormones, reproduction hormones, digestion and the immune system are all disrupted during stress (Zautra, 2003). It has also been recognised that under stress humans do not have as much cognitive capacity for the processing of affective information (Zautra, 2003). Prolonged stress thus causes exhaustion of the adrenal glands (Selye, 1973), and has a profound inhibitory effect on the immune response (Glaser, 2005; Chrousos and Gold, 1992).

Anxiety has a worry and emotionality component. Worry is the cognitive aspect that results in troubling thoughts and beliefs about one's own ability to deal with a situation. Emotionality is the affective aspect resulting in physiological responses such as muscular tension, stomach butterflies, increased heart rate, perspiration, restlessness and pacing (Carter, Williams & Silverman, 2008). Ormrod (2014) identified state and trait anxiety. The former is a temporary condition elicited by a particular stimulus. An individual might experience state anxiety while working on a challenging problem or project. The latter is a relatively stable situation of affairs, such that an individual is chronically anxious in certain situations.

The problem with merely passing through a stressful or anxious time is that nothing has really changed; we may have left a difficult situation behind, but we have not yet changed. We have, in fact, reinforced our weakness in the face of stress or anxiety. This leaves us even more vulnerable to the next source of distress (Berceli, 2012). Furthermore, Selye (1956) demonstrated that the same neuro-physiological effects of stress were experienced irrespective of whether the stress situation was positive or negative. Hence, stress resulting from an exciting event will evoke the same neurophysiological reactions as stress from a negative event. The simplest explanation of the neuro-physiology of stress is that it is an experience that has a concomitant reaction both within the brain and the nervous system.

Penn (1991) indicated that anxiety becomes pathological when it persists and disrupts an individual's social and/or occupational functioning. The participants in the

current study reported increased anxiety, stress and fear levels, uneasiness and feelings of worthlessness. They also mentioned a loss of autonomy and relatedness during periods of organisational change. It seems clear that all the individuals interviewed experienced anxiety during organisational change. The organisational challenge seems to be how to find workable methods to reduce stress and anxiety before it becomes persistent, intense, chronic or recurring, not justified by real-life stresses, problematic and hampering individual functioning.

### **9.2.5 Trauma**

Freud (1914) defined trauma as a breach in the protective barrier against stimuli leading to overwhelming feelings of helplessness. Flashbacks, anxiety, panic attacks, insomnia, depression, psychosomatic complaints, lack of openness, violent and destructive behaviour and migraines are some of the bizarre symptoms suffered by traumatised individuals. However, trauma has become so commonplace that its presence goes unnoticed, yet it effects everyone (Levine, 1997).

In addition to stress and anxiety, many individuals experience trauma (Berceli, 2012). Trauma occurs when an event creates an unresolved impact on an organism (Levine, 1997). Trauma can be experienced physically, mentally or emotionally. Trauma is an unavoidable aspect of life and is an integral part of our human experience and evolutionary journey (Berceli, 2012). Trauma is a positive response - the body's attempt to protect itself in order to promote survival (Berceli, 2012).

Chronic stressors are on-going and long-lasting (Berceli, 2012). Chronic stressors may include conflicts associated with balancing one's work and family life, socioeconomic status and commuting to work. Acute stressors are shorter term. Acute stressors may include natural disasters, terrorist attacks and organisational restructuring. While acute stressors may be shorter in duration, they can be more psychologically devastating and have long-term effects (Beehr, Jex, Stacy & Murray, 2000).

Research on acute-extra-organisational stressors has been conducted under different labels. However, the most inclusive and extensively investigated of these are known as stressful life events. These are defined as non-work-related changes

that disrupt an individual's lifestyle and social relationships (Holmes and Rahe, 1967). While both positive and negative life events can lead to the experience of stress, negative life events are associated with more detrimental effects (Pillow, Zautra & Sandler, 1996). The stressful life events most commonly investigated in the organisational literature have been those that affect only one or a few individuals at a time, such as a family illness or divorce, as opposed to events that affect large groups of people such as the entire workforce as a result of organisational change (Bhagat, 1983). Sadly, organisations still struggle to alter the outcomes and/or alleviate some of the detrimental effects of these somewhat outdated definitions and research studies.

Another stream of research on acute extra-organisational stressors is the research tradition on traumatic events, which form a sub-set of stressful life events. Traumatic events are stressful life events that involve "violent encounters with nature, technology, or humankind . . . marked by sudden or extreme force and [involving] an external agent" (Norris, 1992:409). While traumatic events are defined objectively, individuals who are exposed to traumatic events experience strain subjectively (Byron and Peterson, 2002).

In the South African context, research found that witnessing violent events accounted for 50% of the relative PTSD burden. Such events were associated with long duration of symptoms, second in chronicity only to symptoms associated with war events. These findings contrast sharply with results from other populations where the unexpected death of a loved one (Breslau, Kessler, Chilcoat, Schultz, Davis & Andreski, 1998) and direct interpersonal violence (rape and combat) (Kessler, Sonnega, Bromet, Hughes & Nelson, 1995) are associated with the largest proportion of PTSD episodes. This may reflect the fact that political and criminal violence often occurs in public settings in South Africa, and highlights the importance of the political and social context in shaping the risk of PTSD relating to specific events (Kaminer, Grimsrud, Myer, Stein & Williams, 2008). Given the extreme political and social conflict with frequent public perpetration of violence, studies that have focused on individuals' direct experiences of violence are likely to underestimate the burden of PTSD in South Africa (Atwoli, *et al.*, 2013).

Alternatively, compared to directly experiencing a traumatic event, witnessing it may have differential effects on memory and feelings of helplessness that may be important in PTSD aetiology. It has been argued that the impact of witnessing trauma could be more distressing for individuals who have experienced multiple traumas. The witnessing experience may also have a great impact on individuals who are sensitised to trauma through enhancing memory formation - as a result, intrusive and vivid recall is more likely (Hackett, 2009). Researchers (Feinstein, Owen & Blair, 2002; Berger, *et al.*, 2012) confirm the aversive effects of watching the infliction of pain on others. Such effects might be explained through the concept of mirror neurons (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013), which are described in a later section.

The prominent role witnessing post-traumatic events play in PTSD causation in South Africa may be related to the culturally prescribed linkage of one's well-being to the well-being of one's family and community. This philosophy of Ubuntu has been described as an African world-view that emphasises group solidarity, conformity, compassion, respect, human dignity, humanistic orientation and collective unity (Mokgoro, 1998). This corresponds to the PURPLE human niche as described by Laubscher (2013).

With 60% of the adult population in PURPLE (Laubscher, 2013), organisations have to rethink the importance of individual well-being in the organisational context. Without respect, dignity, humanistic orientation and collective unity, coupled with the recognition and acknowledgement of individual stress, anxiety and even trauma, optimal organisational performance and effective change may not be achievable.

### **9.2.6 Stress and exercise**

Exercise affects overall health and brain function (Laurin, Verreault, Lindsay, MacPherson & Rockwood, 2001) and has the capacity to enhance learning and memory (Van Praag, Kempermann & Gage, 1999). Cardiovascular fitness training have been found to improve overall cognitive function (Colcombe, *et al.*, 2004).

Early research indicated that exercise has a positive effect on the reduction of depression (Craft, 1997; Franz and Hamilton, 1905; North, McCullagh & Tran, 1990).

Subsequent research confirmed that moderate aerobic exercise reduces stress, decreases anxiety and alleviates depression (Salmon, 2001) while activating mechanisms that protect the brain from damage (Cotman and Berchtold, 2002). The direct relationship between exercise and depression results as the body creates stimulants of norepinephrine, dopamine, or serotonin which are recognised as natural antidepressants (Babyak, *et al.*, 2000). According to several researchers, this effect can be detected as early as the first exercise session and can continue beyond the end of an exercise programme (Craft, 1997). Research also found exercise to be at least as effective as more traditional therapies (Landers, 2002).

Research on exercise for the improvement of mental health has been conducted for a long time. Exercise research on individual self-esteem (Spence, Poon & Dyck, 1997) and improved sleep patterns (Kubitz, Landers, Petruzzello & Han, 1996) has yielded statistically significant results. The exercises used in many of these studies fall under the definition of aerobic exercises (Berceli, 2006) which are under the direct control of the cortex (Scaer, 2001).

Sisley, Henning, Hawken & Moir (2010) adapted the work of Selye (1970), indicating that a person is conceptualised to have a reasonably normal state of arousal when awake, until some event changes it significantly. This is evident in figure 9.2, which indicates the hours of sleep as one such event and the so-called “fight or flight” response or stress reaction to an acute stressor as another. In an ideal world, individuals would have the time to recover fully from the physiological changes produced by the stress response, as the stressor is dealt with or ameliorates, and their arousal index returns in due course to its normal state.

However, in many workplace environments, the frequency of stressors is high enough not to allow this opportunity (McAllister and McKinnon, 2009). A person begins to recover from an acute stress response but has not yet completed the process and has not returned to his or her normal state, when another stressor occurs, producing a repeat stress response.

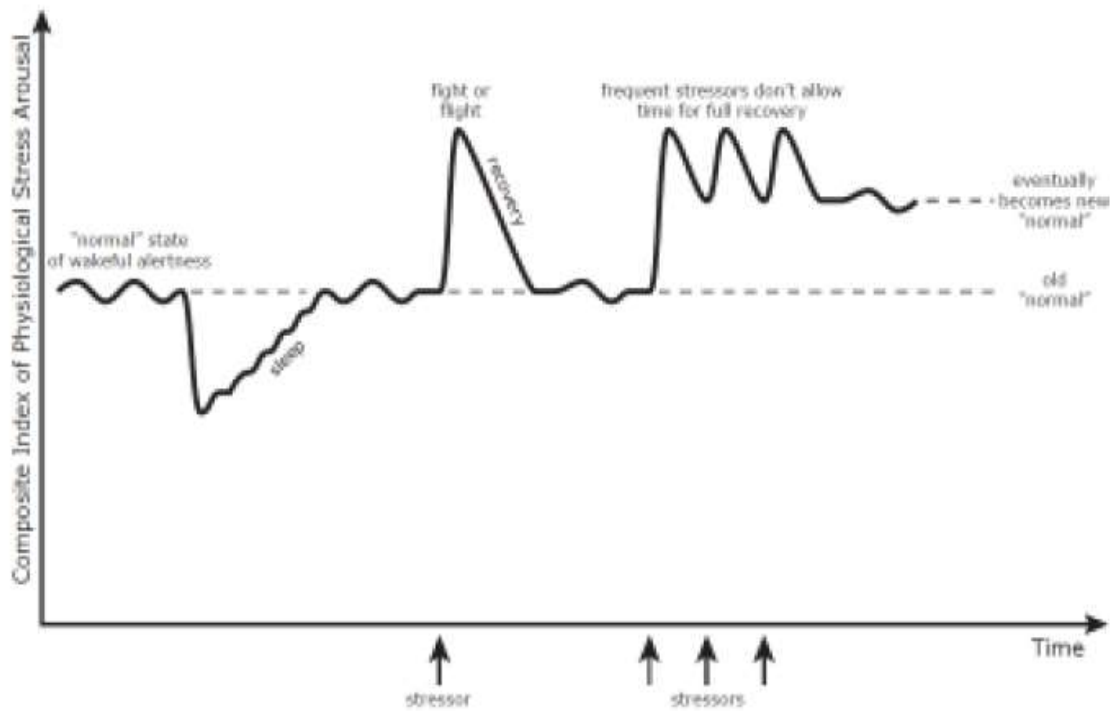


Figure 9.2: Accumulation of stress over time (Sisley, *et al.*, 2010:8) adapted from Selye, 1970).

As indicated in figure 9.2, in a high stress environment, the frequency of occurrence of stressful events can prevent the individual recovering sufficiently to return to his or her original normal state of arousal until he or she has finished work for the day. Recovery at this stage is likely to take longer than it would from a single stressful event; a notion of accumulative stress (Kasl, 1984; Benoliel, McCorkle, Georgiadu, Denton & Spitzer, 1990).

Figure 9.3 indicates how, over time, the use of an effective relaxation practice can reverse this negative process and lower a person's normal arousal state. The concept is that after a session of tai chi, progressive muscle relaxation or transcendental meditation, during which the person's arousal index will have fallen significantly, such individuals will return to their usual activities, while retaining a slightly more relaxed state than normal (Sisley, *et al.*, 2010).



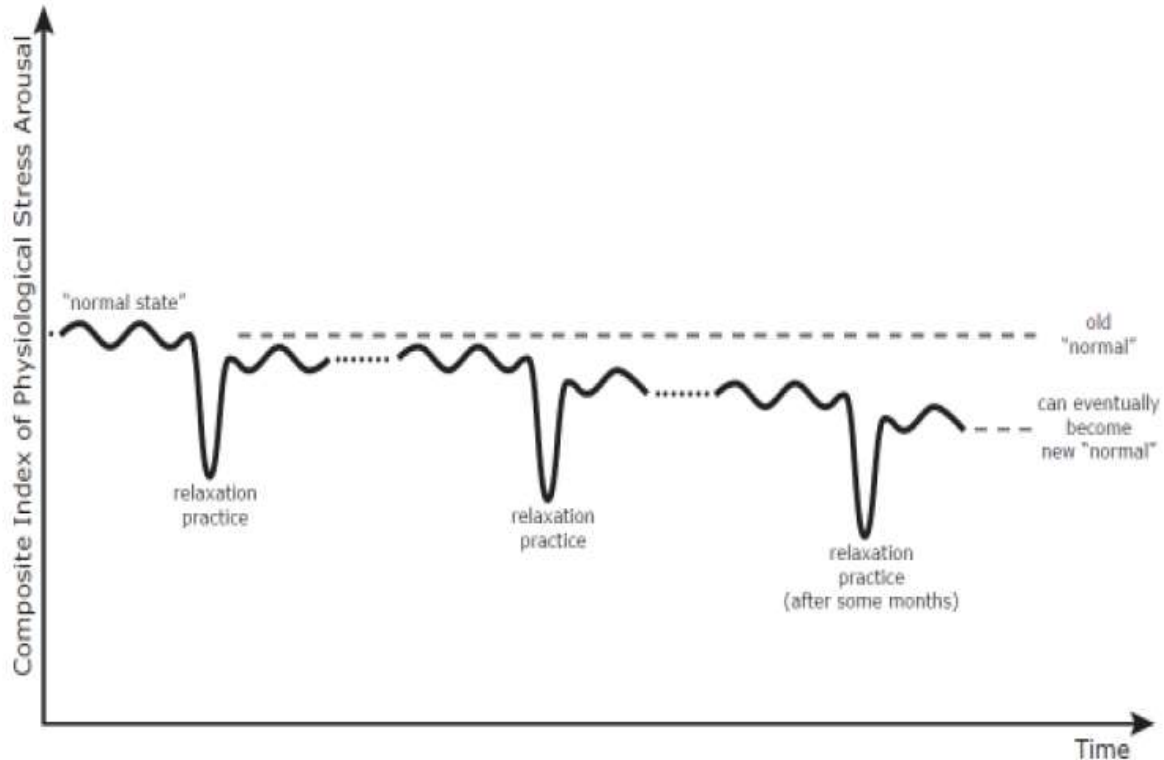


Figure 9.3: Implementation of relaxation techniques in professional life (Sisley, *et al.*, 2010:9) adapted from Selye, 1970).

Figure 9.3 indicates that over time, typically several months, this change can become lasting, resulting in a new lower normal state of arousal, almost mirroring the higher arousal produced by long-term stress. Recent studies have also reported that mindfulness meditation improves attention and self-regulation, which has the potential for stress reduction, well-being and performance improvement (Tang and Posner, 2013).

An individual will struggle to perform activities optimally until the stress response has been reduced or ideally alleviated (Benson, 2000). However, individuals are able to perform while remaining slightly less aroused than was previously typical for them (Sisley, *et al.*, 2010). This sentiment resonates with the case study and the data findings as discussed in chapters five and six, and underscores the need to find acceptable and workable stress reduction techniques which can be applied in an organisational setting in general, and specifically during times of organisational change.



### **9.2.7 Stress and violence and ways to counter them**

Organisational change is a major life stressor which impacts on individuals (Sutherland and Cooper, 2000; Jimmieson, *et al.*, 2004; Armstrong-Stassen, 2005). Various research reports reveal that employees who experience large-scale change, report higher levels of stress, anxiety and increased feelings of uncertainty (Kiefer, 2005; Jones, *et al.*, 2008). The data findings as presented in chapter six, echo the above.

South Africa has one of the highest alcohol consumption rates per capita in the world, consuming in excess of 5 billion litres of alcohol annually (Parry, 2005). These figures are likely to be even higher if sorghum beer is included. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2012), this is one the highest per capita consumption rates in the world, and the WHO thus awards South Africa a score of four (drinking five or more beers or glasses of wine at one sitting for men and more than three drinks for woman) out of five on a least risky to most risky patterns-of-drinking scale (Seggie, 2012). Research conducted by Adams, Savahl, Isaacs & Carels (2013) - on the Cape Flats in the Western Cape, South Africa, - found 20% of males and 17.80% of females were harmful or hazardous drinkers. In addition, 54.30% of males and 47.90% of females were alcohol dependent.

Globally, alcohol consumption is recognised as the third leading risk factor for poor health, causing 2.5 million deaths annually (WHO, 2010). Approximately 4% of all deaths worldwide are caused by alcohol - more than the number of deaths attributed HIV/AIDS, violence or tuberculosis (WHO, 2011). Harmful alcohol usage has been found to impact negatively on the individual, the community, organisations and the country as a whole (WHO, 2012).

Given the increase in the inflation rate, parents pay 8.6% more for primary schooling. With an inflation rate of 6% in 2014, with a 1.3% monthly increase, this is the largest monthly increase since June 2008, which was 1.4% (Statistics SA, 2014). In addition, more children in South Africa are raised by single parents than by a dual-parent structure (Statistics SA, 2014). Raising children in a modern society, without social support structures, coupled with the inflation figures above, are bound to result in stress. On an equally serious note, trolley rage (Matthews, 1995) suggests that

crowding is a primary cause of shopping stress. Even daily tasks such as shopping have become a major life stressor (Aylott and Mitchell, 1998).

South Africa is also plagued with shockingly high cases of domestic violence against woman and children (Madu, Ndom & Ramashia, 2010). Literature from international studies showed that more physically abused women are reporting depression (Rice, 2005; Ehrensaft, Moffit & Shallom, 2006). In South Africa, statistics on domestic violence are difficult to obtain, but it is estimated that every six hours a woman is killed by her intimate partner (Mathews, Abrahams, Martin, Vetten, Van der Merwe & Jewkes, 2004). Various studies indicate a high prevalence of both physical and psychological violence against women in South Africa (Jewkes, 2002; Nkuna, 2003; Smith, Thronton, De Vellis, Earp & Coker, 2002). Madu, *et al.* (2010) found physical abuse to be a major predictor of anxiety and depression. The resultant individual behaviours not only impacts on society, but on organisations as well. With no effective coping mechanism and/or support structure, optimal organisational functioning becomes impossible given these realities.

Violence against men is also a real occurrence, and even less spoken about owing to our patriarchal society and hegemonic masculinity, which creates perceptions that men should not show signs of weakness and should always dominate (Tsae, 2011). Tsae (2011) researched men's experiences of suffering at the hands of women in South Africa and found that men too are victims of domestic violence and that society is aware of the issue. Tsae (2011) also found that men who were victims of domestic violence preferred not to lay charges against their female perpetrators.

Studies in South Africa have indicated high rates of traumatisation (Fincham, Korthals Altes, Stein & Seedat, 2007; Govender and Killian, 2001) with rates of trauma exposure ranging from 82% to 100% and PTSD rates ranging from 6% to 22% (Seedat, Van Nood, Vythilingum, Stein & Kaminer, 2000; Seedat, Nyamai, Njenja, Vythilingum & Stein, 2004; Ward, Flisher Zissis, Muller & Lombard, 2001). Some researchers argue that the high rate of violent crime in South Africa could result in the high prevalence of trauma, PTSD, depression and anxiety (Suliman, Mkabile, Fincham, Ahmed, Stein & Seedat, 2009).

Chiropractors commonly refer to the stress posture (Pedlar, 2014). In this posture, an individual's shoulders are pulled up into his or her neck, with a stiff neck being a common complaint. This posture accounts for 80% of chiropractic cases. Only 20% of cases relate to legitimate sports injuries (Pedlar, 2014). Siclare (1993) argues that all musculoskeletal disciplines intentionally or unintentionally remove nerve interference by modifying the relationship of the skeletal system to the nerve system. However, this can only result in temporary relief.

South Africa participated in the world mental health survey and was found to have the seventh highest prevalence of mental disorders in the world (WHO, 2013). The predicted risk of individuals in South Africa developing one or more mental or behavioural disorder is 30% (Silverstone, McGrath & Kim, 2005). The South African Stress and Health Survey classified mental disorders under the following broad descriptions: anxiety disorders (agoraphobia, adult separation anxiety disorder, generalised anxiety disorder, panic disorder, post-traumatic stress disorder, social phobia and specific phobias); mood disorders (bipolar, dysthymia, major depressive disorder); impulse control (intermittent explosive disorder, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, conduct disorder, oppositional defiant disorder - substance abuse disorders); and alcohol or drug abuse with or without dependence (WHO, 2013). In South Africa, the severity of mental disorders was found to be higher in women than in men, mood and anxiety disorders occurring more in women, while substance abuse is more common in men. Separated, widowed or divorced individuals are at higher risk for both the presence and severity of any mental disorder (WHO, 2013).

Abnormal stress responses are seen to cause various diseases or conditions which include anxiety disorders, depression, high blood pressure (Pacák and Palkovits, 2001), and cardiovascular disease (Vale, 2010; Girod and Brotman, 2004) as well as certain gastrointestinal diseases and some cancers (Elhamdani, Palfrey & Artalejo, 2002; Meaney, O'Donnell, Rowe, Tannenbaum, Silverman & Walker, 1995). Stress also seem to increase the frequency and severity of migraine headaches, asthma and fluctuations of blood sugar in diabetics (Mead, 2004). There is also scientific evidence showing that people experiencing psychological stress are more prone to develop colds and other infections than those who are less stressed (Caplan, 1981).

Dahl (2009) postulated that organisational change increases frustration and destabilises the organisation which, in turn, increases employee stress and turnover. Broader and more extensive degrees of change, further increase employee stress and turnover. Dahl's (2009) research emphatically confirmed the above, and indicated that service departments are more negatively affected by change, probably because services are characterised by more rapidly changing, more dynamic conditions. Furthermore, if organisations change on multiple core dimensions at the same time, employees are more likely to receive stress-related medication for insomnia and depression (Dahl, 2009).

Some individuals become hostile when jostled from their comfortable routines and hit with a high-anxiety task. Chipping away at quality of life will result in a downward mobility plunge that will warp the way individuals act, hear and see (Kemper, 1984). Moreover, the stress and uncertainty arising from organisational change negatively impact on levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, psychological well-being and intentions to remain with the organisation (Paulsen, *et al.*, 2005; Dahl, 2009).

Stress in South African society is very real. Given the large percentage of PURPLE in this country and their interconnectedness, the likelihood of societal stress impacting on individuals is high. In addition, increased stressors will probably result in a downshift of human niches. Knowing that organisational change increases stress, it seems unreasonable to expect optimal performance or even enthusiasm during times of organisational change, because organisational change adds further stressors to an already stressed individual. Again, this underscores the importance of finding workable interventions to alleviate individual stress, more so, during times of organisational change.

### **9.2.8 Stress and the organisation**

Stress comes in many shapes and disguises. It can be internal or external, and can be experienced at an individual, organisational and societal level. However, the effects of stress are most likely to be detrimental and costly to the wellbeing of the individual, the organisation and larger society.

Unfortunately, if we seek security in today's organisations, counter to our instinctive foundations, it may only heighten our anxieties and further our suspicions. The security that we seek and that we inherently know was provided by early groups does not exist in the culture of the groups that support our survival today. This causes confusion and sows further seeds of mistrust while planting questions of trustworthiness (Grady and Grady, 2011).

Organisational ecologists (Hannan and Freeman, 1989) have long argued that organisational change and transformation are rarely completely positive experiences, especially when the core features and core identities of the organisation are subject to change. They (Hannan and Freeman, 1989) argue that there are substantial obstacles to fundamental structural changes in organisations because changes can fuel undesirable effects on employees such as increased uncertainty, fear, frustration and occupational stress.

Research by Lawrence and Callan (2011) explored the degree to which individuals perceive that they are specifically stressed by organisational change. During the anticipation stage of organisational change, high levels of uncertainty are prevalent (Isabella, 1990) which increases stress perceptions (Schabracq and Cooper, 1998).

Organisations are built on high levels of internal trust and reliability, where employees are loyal and committed towards the organisation and the implicit contract they have with it. Fundamental changes - shifts in core strategies or goals - threaten these values (Dahl, 2009). Organisational changes have often been viewed as a threat to organisational identity (Hsu and Hannan, 2005; Hannan, Baron, Hsu & Kořcak, 2006) and this is especially true where the identity is well-established in the organisation. Changes that deeply influence the identity erode its reliability and accountability, leading to frustration and confusion. A destabilisation process follows, which involves significant costs of reshaping operations and realigning the organisation (Péli, Pólós & Hannan, 2000). Corbitt (2005) confirms this, stating that the overwhelming effect of stress on employees can be devastating to employees, and the cost to the organisation enormous. Furthermore, a disruption in the social environment affects individual's higher-order thinking (Baumeister, Twenge & Nuss, 2002).

Extra-organisational stressors are environmental factors outside work that can lead to negative and potentially damaging reactions in individuals (Matteson and Ivancevich, 1979). Organisational stressors are concerned with aspects of employees' jobs or organisation that can lead to adverse physical and psychological reactions, or strain (Beehr, *et al.*, 2000). In addition to distinguishing between sources of stressors (extra-organisational or organisational), some researchers categorise stressors as either chronic or acute (Beehr, *et al.*, 2000).

Stressors are also associated with absenteeism (Jamal, 1985; Landeweerd and Boumans, 1994; Kemery, Bedeian, Mossholder & Touliatos, 1985). Absenteeism from work seems a likely outcome when the other effects of traumatic events are considered. People exposed to traumatic events exhibit a range of negative psychological reactions, including emotional numbing, social withdrawal, irritability, fearfulness, depression, sleep disturbances, substance abuse and marital problems (Tucker, Pfeferbaum, Nixon, & Dickson, 2000; Ursano, Fullerton, & Norwood, 2002). These people are also more likely to experience protracted medical problems (Tucker *et al.*, 2000).

Examples of internal pressures are ineffective leadership, morale problems, a high turnover of capable people, absenteeism, labour problems, increased political behaviour in the organisation and turf fights (Kets De Vries, 2001a). Instead of minimising workplace stress levels, organisations are encouraged to manage stress to optimal levels (Le Fevre, *et al.*, 2003).

The theoretical framework of Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) psychosocial model of stress and coping provides an effective basis for explaining the role of perceived available support. The data indicated that organisations are unable to handle or support increased stress levels. All the individuals interviewed indicated that they had sought support outside of the organisation.

It has been argued that once a situation has been appraised as stressful, an individual determines what coping response to enact to reduce his or her levels of stress. This judgement about what to do is evaluated, in part, in the context of available support resources (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Terry, Callan and Sartori,

1996). Chapters five and six indicated a lack of supporting resources in the organisation, which probably impacted negatively on individual coping mechanisms and strategies.

### **9.2.9 Mindfulness**

Kabat-Zinn, Lipworth & Burney (1985) described mindfulness as a state of being. Grossman, Niemann, Schmidt & Walach (2004) defined it as non-judgemental, non-evaluative and sustained in the moment awareness of perceptible mental states and processes. Hassed (2013) reiterates that our state of mind and emotions are reflected in the body and brain. Mindfulness can gently refocus attention, enabling intelligent and constructive use of awareness, allowing us to see our experiences as transitory, while offering the potential to unhook attention from unhelpful thoughts and feelings (Hassed, 2013).

Mindfulness research shows an increased achievement of therapeutic goals and a decrease in the number of therapy sessions required (Weiss, Nordlie & Siegel, 2005) as well as improved emotional regulation (Aftanas and Golosheykin, 2005). Hassed (2013) postulates that we all meditate on something or other most of the time, unfortunately, we meditate on anger, worry, depression and stress.

According to Aftanas and Golosheykin (2005), meditators seem to have better capabilities to regulate emotions and moderate intensity of emotional arousal when negative emotions are induced experimentally. Metacognitive awareness – the moment-by-moment attitude of non-judgement and acceptance helps people to see thoughts as mental events instead of fact. This allows us to stand back from our thoughts in order to view them more objectively (Hassed, 2013). Meditation teaches us a way of accepting thoughts, feelings, sensations and experiences if they arise and learning to be at peace with them (Hassed, 2013).

The above discourse indicates that improved mindfulness might reduce or alleviate some of the negative stress responses as experienced by individuals during times of organisational change. Moreover, given the deep need for spirituality which is evident in PURPLE, as well as the importance of feelings of belonging, alternative interventions should be explored which are able to fulfil this need in an organisational



setting. The application of such alternative interventions could reduce individual stress which, in turn, could enhance well-being, belonging and performance, which seems critical during times of organisational change.

### **9.3 STRESS AND LEADERSHIP**

Stresses relating to modern-day living are increasing exponentially, for both leaders and followers. The large-scale changes experienced in every dimension of life (Darling and Heller, 2011) may cause fear, panic and/or opportunity; the modern age also offers a unique period in human history where creative and concern-based leaders can function and make a difference in the personal and professional lives of individuals (Darling and Heller, 2011). Times of change require meaningful responses, quality and versatile leadership, sensitivity and creativity as well as thoughts and feelings to address the adjustments needed by individuals affected in the organisational arena (Thornton, 2009).

Global competition and tough economic challenges have converged to increase the pressures on leaders and employees to find new solutions and achieve greater productivity. For many organisations, adaptive resilience and enhanced productivity have become imperative for survival (O'Connor, Cooper, Williams, DeVarney & Gordon, 2013). Individual, team and organisational effectiveness can be improved using neuroscience principles to explore processes in the brain that underlie and influence behaviours. Understanding neuroscience has the potential to change the way effective leaders connect with their followers. Employees look for cues from managers and leaders, and mimic their behaviours, both consciously and subconsciously. For leaders, this reiterates the importance of maintaining a positive outlook and providing examples of positive, desirable behaviour (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013).

Research also articulates the deleterious consequences of stress (Ray, 2004; Dickerson and Kennedy, 2004). Because stress arouses the limbic system (LeDoux, 2002), an optimal understanding of stress and its impact on the workforce and productivity is imperative (Vijayraghavan, Wang, Birnbaum, Williams & van Arnsten, 2007). The body has the capacity to increase performance when it needs to avert danger; this is known as the fight-or-flight response. Various physiological changes



occur in the body as a result of the fight-or-flight response which include a surge of adrenaline, increased respiration, mobilisation of blood glucose, an increase in sweating and platelet adhesiveness (Hassed, 2013). This response is natural, necessary, healthy and appropriate to life-threatening situations (Hassed, 2013).

In defining work-related stress, research observed that leaders and followers are subjected to extreme conflicts, ambiguity and ineffective conflict management. Stress was understood to create a nonspecific response in the leader, which meant that certain emotional, physical and cognitive responses occurred unconsciously (Selye, 1980). More recently, Goleman (1995) emphasised the importance of emotion and emotional stability in effective leadership, suggesting that emotion, more than intellectual ability, drives a leader's thinking in decision making and interpersonal relationships (Goleman, 2006). Goleman (1995, 1998, 2003, 2006) termed this "emotional intelligence" (EQ).

Under high stress the prefrontal cortex goes off line (Sullivan and Gratton, 2002). Behaviour with the prefrontal cortex off line is like a company whose leader suddenly disappears. Under high stress, the leader begins to over-react to life experiences, thereby causing excessive wear on mind and body, and functioning in a more primitive and less reasoned way. The leader under stress would therefore be more irritable and lack the capacity to recognise problems or exploit possibilities (Harung, Travis, Blank & Heaton, 2009).

Leadership literature characterises a leader who is emotionally stable as someone who handles stress well, can manage criticism and does not take mistakes personally (Daft, 2008). Emotional intelligence has come to refer to a person's abilities to perceive, identify, understand and successfully manage his or her own emotions and the emotions of others. This implies that effective leaders harness and direct the power of emotion to build trust and improve follower satisfaction, morale and motivation, thereby improving overall organisational effectiveness (Ringleb and Rock, 2013).

Organisational change inevitably involves and requires adaptive challenges (Bartlett, Ghoshal & Beamish, 2008). During times of organisational change, stressful events

occur in many different situations that may be overly complex, demanding or unclear. Such events can generate stress for leaders and employees alike (Hughes, *et al.*, 2009). When environmental changes create the necessity for change in an organisation, these changes have the potential to create stress for the individuals affected (Darling and Heller, 2011).

Byrne (2006) emphasises that there is a fundamental basis for successful stress management in today's changing environments, and it is found in the nature of the attitudes and commensurate thoughts and feelings generated by leaders. Darling and Heller (2011) confirm this, stating that stress management should be a constant companion in the thoughts and feelings of responsible organisational leaders (Darling and Heller, 2011).

A leader's thoughts have a frequency and are magnetic (Hanson, 2004). When a leader generates a thought and thereby creates a feeling, these are communicated – vibrated – to others with whom the leader is associated. This includes customers, suppliers, investors and other stakeholders. This occurs via the law of attraction on the fundamental basis of the principle that like attracts like (Losier, 2006).

In an era of such large-scale changes, successful organisational change lies in the leader's focus on people and their meaningful concerns in the context of change. Although leaders might experience personal feelings of stress and insecurity (Goldsmith and Reiter, 2007), they need a deep understanding of people, how they feel, think and what concerns them. In potentially stressful situations, the leader's self-perception must be affected by a genuine concern for and service to others (Darling and Heller, 2011).

The leader's thoughts determine the nature of communications that are emitted (Hicks and Hicks, 2006). When a leader thinks negatively, he or she is on a frequency of typically attracting negative responses. Negative thoughts, feelings and frequencies include disappointment, anger, fear, jealousy, apathy, anxiety and regret. These negative frequencies reduce a leader's power and influence. Today's successful leaders must carry recognition that thoughts and feelings do make a

difference in an organisation faced with conditions of global change and unrest (Darling and Heller, 2011).

Self-regulation is a brain-based capacity which highly influences workplace productivity. Self-regulation relies on self-awareness and our capacity to manage the way we think and feel and proactively develop positive thoughts and feelings. Self-regulation is the means by which we manage ourselves to minimise danger and to maximise reward to achieve optimal adaptation to our changing environment (O'Connor, *et al.*, 2013).

Whatever leaders assumed to have worked in the past, under normal environmental conditions, must give way to what will work now. This requires a focus on communicating, motivating, mentoring, investing, producing and innovating as never before experienced relating to the involvement of employees and others deemed necessary for success (Engardio, 2008). Speed, transparency, simplicity and forthrightness form a hugely important credibility scenario in the face of today's turbulence. Successful leaders have to establish and maintain this foundation during times when it is necessary to institute organisational changes and developments by taking strong action, and taking it quickly, openly, straightforwardly and honestly (Welch and Welch, 2008).

Gordon, Barnett, Cooper, Tran & Williams (2008) developed the integrate model, combining self-regulation and the brain. They (2008) indicated that the most influential aspect of productivity was the emotional resilience of leaders. Emotional resilience refers to personal self-efficacy and a sense of direction that are needed to achieve optimal adaptation to the workplace. This correlates closely to EQ as described by Goleman (1995, 1998, 2003, 2006). This model is depicted in figure 9.4 below and indicates three facets, namely positivity-negativity bias, emotional resilience and social skills that can be assessed using self-report, and which correlate to the brain and heart-rate function.

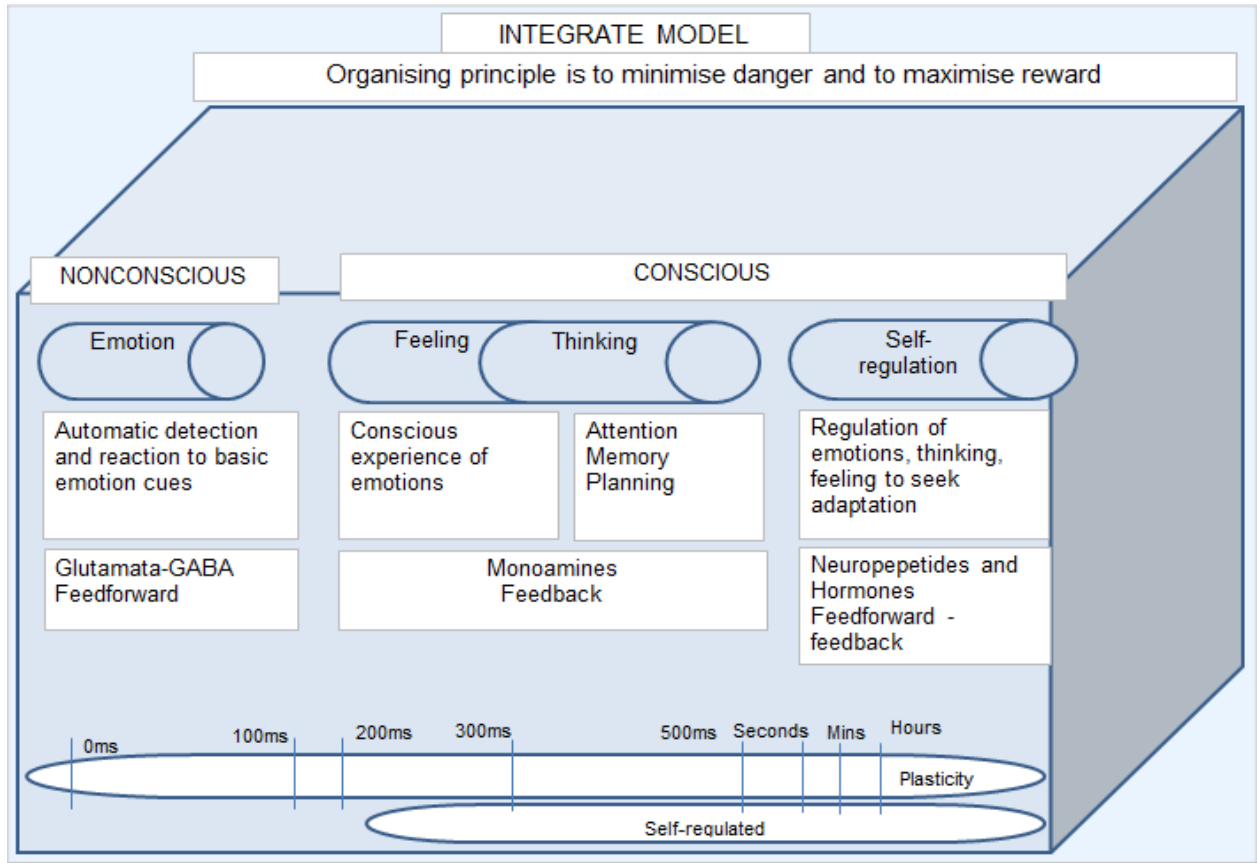


Figure 9.4: The integrate model (Gordon, *et al.*, 2008:482)

According to figure 9.4, positivity-negativity bias relates to a leader's tendency to expect the worst. Emotional resilience relates to having a thick skin as well as the capacity for self-efficacy. Social skills relate to a leader's capacity to engage with others (Gordon, *et al.*, 2008).

Early research indicated that negative or upsetting social support weighs more heavily than positive or helpful social support (Manne, Taylor, Dougherty, & Kemeny, 1997). Rafferty and Griffin (2006) confirm this, suggesting that supportive leadership has a strong impact on change perceptions. It is thus necessary to ensure that leaders understand the need to provide support and consider individuals' needs in a changing environment. Specifically, employees with supportive leaders reported less transformational change and less frequent change, and also reported that more planned change had occurred (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006).

Goldsmith and Reiter (2007) argue that leaders must remain focused regarding service and involvement with employees and others. In order to achieve

involvement, leaders must judge others less, help those who are emotionally down, focus on the future and understand personal emotions.

The case study discussed in chapter five as well as the research findings presented in chapter six reiterated the impact of negative or missing leadership during change. Fusing the topics of stress, individual stress and leadership and their impact on individuals, underscores the vital importance of leadership during times of change.

### **9.3.1 Neuroscience/neuroleadership**

Understanding empathy and being able to share, sympathise, understand and experience another person's emotional state might be explained through the concept of mirror neurons (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013). From a classical perspective, empathy has been viewed as an intellectual process where a person consciously attempts to understand someone else's situation through his or her own experiences. This approach attributed to mental states such as beliefs, desires, intentions and knowledge, to a specific individual who realised others have their own unique beliefs, desires, intentions and knowledge (Premack and Woodruff, 1978). The discovery of neurons shifted this view. It became evident that humans have a hard-wired system in the brain that reflexively facilitates interpersonal connections, and this neural system may form the basis for empathy and other mental capabilities (Rameson and Lieberman, 2009).

Research revealed that the same brain cells fired when a monkey watched humans or other monkeys eat a peanut as when it ate a peanut itself (Rizzolatti, Fadiga, Gallese & Fogassi, 1996). Rizzolatti, *et al.*, (1996) called these brain cells mirror neurons since they reflect the actions of others. Subsequent studies revealed that human brains possess far more advanced mirror neurons, adapted to understanding others' actions together with their intentions and emotional state (Iacoboni, 2008). Human brains react to other people's experiences in involuntary ways; when someone cuts a finger, those around the injured person wince (Smith, 2002a). Neuroscientists have attributed this phenomenon to a mirror neuron system (Gallese, Keysers & Rizzolatti, 2004). Thus, when a person observes an action performed by another, the observer's mirror neuron system is activated, causing a similar reaction in the observer's brain (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013).

A competent, socially aware leader generally exhibits the ability to understand others, place himself or herself in others' shoes, sense their emotions and understand their perspective (Ringleb and Rock, 2008). A leader's perceptiveness can thus be enhanced through interpreting and understanding facial expression, speech intonation, body language and a variety of other affective cues related to empathy. This allows the leader to form an impression of individuals from a social perspective that helps detect fears and problems and direct motivations (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013).

An improved understanding of mirror neurons may result in improvements in employee feedback (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013). According to Daft (2008), empathy is the leader's most powerful tool during the feedback process. Improved understanding of mirror neurons may also assist leaders to improve their use of e-mail, texting and richer forms of communications such as video conferencing (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013).

Mindsight is the capacity for insight and empathy, based on the ability of the human mind to see itself, to know its own mind and to be able to perceive the minds of others (Siegel, 2001). Increasing self-awareness also increases social awareness (Block-Lerner, Adair, Plumb, Rhatigan & Orsillo, 2007). Consistent with mirror neuron research and empathy, studies of the medial prefrontal cortex showed that similar brain circuits are used to know both oneself and others (Pfeifer, Iacoboni, Mazziotta & Dapretto, 2008).

It becomes increasingly apparent that people in the workplace are connected and interact at a basic level, with roots hard-wired in the brain. Humans have a tendency to empathise, and leadership awareness of this tendency will allow more meaningful connections to emerge in the workplace (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013). Through an understanding of mirror neurons and empathy, leadership can become more than a top-down process; it becomes an interactive exchange, some of which happens at a sub-conscious, physical level (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013). The voices of the leader's most intense private passions often echo other silent voices, the voices trying helplessly to speak in your followers. This is a secret gift of tuned empathy

(Bloom, 2010). This applies even more in stressful circumstances and during times of organisational change.

Darling and Heller (2011) suggest nine guidelines to help leaders to effectively deal with, reduce or even eliminate a potentially stressful event. According to these guidelines, leaders should recognise and continually review the primary purposes in life; constantly review the nature of thoughts and feelings; monitor potential warning signals; identify causes of potential stress; discipline and enhance self-worth and self-talk; prioritise and manage time and activities; be concerned with that which one can do something about, and eliminate worry over that which one has no control; follow a healthy lifestyle; and learn how to relax as well as strive to identify a purpose in every major event or issue that arises in and around the organisation.

It seems clear that knowledge of the above discourse could have assisted leadership behaviour during organisational change in the organisation investigated in the current study. Chapters five and six indicated a deep individual need for leaders to provide guidance, strength and direction during turbulent times. EQ, empathy, seeing and appreciating different human niches and neuroleadership guidelines appear to be significant markers in successful organisational change.

### **9.3.2 Polyvagal theory**

Polyvagal theory (Porges, 2001) introduced a new understanding of the ANS with huge implications for trauma therapies. The ANS provides an organising principle to interpret the adaptive significance of physiological responses in promoting social behaviour. The ANS is the neuro-endocrine-immune structure that enables survival and was traditionally described as having two branches, namely the parasympathetic (rest/rebuild) and sympathetic nervous system (SNS) which provides stress-response and procreation functions. The parasympathetic takes care of essential operations such as heart, lungs and digestion (Porges, 2001).

In the ANS, the parasympathetic system is the oldest, reflecting the survival needs of a primitive passive feeder through death-feigning survival tactics that guards against feelings (Porges, 2001). The SNS developed later, adding on mobility, mobilisation and a wider range of possible survival responses. The SNS prepares the body for



emergency through increased cardiac output, stimulating sweat glands and by inhibiting the metabolically costly gastrointestinal tract. The SNS has long been associated with emotion and stress (Porges, 2001).

Porges (2001) provides evidence for a third, more modern branch of ANS, with a survival value specific to sophisticated animals, especially primates - the social nervous system. As brain complexity increases, it takes much longer for new-borns to become self-sufficient. As a result, structures evolved to secure extended dependent care. The anatomy of the social nervous system consists of bonding tools such as voice, hearing, visual contact and facial expressions, which are all capable of triggering neurotransmitters that engender emotional bonding and biochemical events which we interpret as love, thereby securing protective care during the vulnerable period (Porges, 2001).

Under stress, the human system tries the newest, most sophisticated and efficient equipment first. Polyvagal theory proposes a hierarchical response strategy to environmental challenges, with the most recent modifications employed first and the most primitive last, thereby first using its social/relational tactics, then fight or flight, then immobility as survival tactics (Porges, 2001). Polyvagal theory therefore predicts that during states of mobilisation, characterised by fight or flight behaviours and sympathetic excitation, the components of the social engagement system would not be easily accessible (Porges, 2001).

The social engagement system has a control component in the cortex which regulates brainstem nuclei to control cranial nerves V, VII, IX, X and XI. These muscles are responsible for eyelid opening, middle-ear muscles, facial muscles, muscles of mastication, laryngeal and pharyngeal muscles as well as head turning. This social engagement system is intimately related to stress reactivity and the HPA-axis and collectively these muscles function as an integrated social engagement system that controls looking, listening, vocalising and facial gesturing. The social engagement system provides direct social contact with others and expects face-to-face interaction. If the neural regulation of this group of muscles is dysfunctional the face will not work (Porges, 2001). These facial features reflect common behavioural



symptoms that have been used to describe challenges or illness such as PTSD, depression, anger, grief, rage, loneliness and autism (Porges, 2001).

Polyvagal theory emphasises that the range of social behaviours is limited by physiological states and that mobilisation and immobilisation behaviours may be adaptive strategies to a challenged or frightened individual. This social engagement system also modulates physiological state to support the positive social behaviour by exerting an inhibitory effect on the SNS (Porges, 2001). Polyvagal theory proposes that the physiological state limits the range of behaviour and psychological experience. In this context, the evolution of the nervous system determines the range of emotional expression, quality of communication and the ability to regulate bodily and behavioural state. This theory also provides an explanation of stress-related responses (Porges, 2001).

Given the increased stress caused by organisational change, the adaptive strategies of some individuals appear to become challenged. Polyvagal theory (Porges, 2001) explains the inability of proper social engagement. However, the theory also raises questions about the impact of e-mail and communication. With a limited range of emotional expression, face-to-face communication seems imperative to ensure adequate transmission of information. It is perceived that applying resources such as e-mail communication could prove challenging in the face of heightened individual stress.

#### **9.4 THE STRESS BAROMETER**

With the high prevalence of stress, fear and anxiety that dominated the case study discussed in chapter five, as well as the acknowledgement of increased stress levels, fear perspectives and anxiety in chapter six, the researcher integrated the social readjustment scale (Holmes and Rahe, 1967) by combining the data findings and literature. This adapted version is provided in table 9.1.

Based on data and discussions, the researcher extended table 9.1, adding stressors relevant to South Africa. These additions are prefixed with a double asterisk (\*\*) and were assigned a conservative rating scale. Using the adjusted rating scale in table

9.1, employers and employees could benefit by asking themselves to look back at the previous three years and choose their most stressful year.

Table 9.1 indicates various stressful incidents with a corresponding rating scale from one to 100. If an event mentioned in table 9.1 occurred in the past year, or is expected to occur in the near future, copy the number in the score column. If the event has occurred or is expected to occur more than once, multiply this number by the frequency of the event.

Table 9.1: Adapted social readjustment scale (adapted from Holmes and Rahe, 1967)

Stress incident	Rating scale (out of 100)
Death of a spouse	100
Divorce	73
Marital separation	55
Imprisonment	53
Death of a close family member	53
Personal injury or illness	53
Marriage	50
Dismissal from work	47
Marital reconciliation	45
Retirement	45
Change in health of family member	44
Pregnancy	40
Sexual difficulties	39
Gain a new family member	39
Business readjustment	39
Change in financial state	38
Change in frequency of arguments	35
Major mortgage	32
Foreclosure of mortgage or loan	30
Change in responsibilities at work	29

Stress incident	Rating scale (out of 100)
Child leaving home	29
Trouble with in-laws	29
Outstanding personal achievement	28
Spouse starts or stops work	25
Beginning or end of school	25
Change in living conditions	25
Revisions of personal habits	24
Trouble with boss	23
Change in working hours or conditions	20
Change in residence	20
Change in schools	20
Change in recreation	19
Change in church activities	19
Change in social activities	18
Minor mortgage or loan	17
Change in sleeping habits	15
Change in number of family reunions	15
Change in eating habits	15
Vacation	13
Christmas	12
Minor violation of law	11
**Poverty (Parry, 2005)	70
**Dysfunctional/inadequate family or social support (Scaer, 2001)	50
**Superstition (Radin, 2013; Laubscher, 2013)	50
**Violent crime (Suliman, <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	50
**Alcohol abuse (Parry, 2005; Scaer, 2001)	50
**Traumatisation (Fincham, <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Govender and Killian, 2001)	50
**Vehicle accidents (Levine, 2010; Scaer, 2001)	50
**Large organisational change (Dahl, 2009; Jimmieson, <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	50
**Poor leadership (Paulsen, <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	50

Stress incident	Rating scale (out of 100)
**Lack of guidance in workplace (Armstrong-Stassen, 2005; Sutherland and Cooper, 2000; Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013)	50
**Mental disorders (Mayosi, Lwan, van Niekerk, Bradshaw, Karim & Coovadia, 2012)	40
**Domestic violence (Madu, <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Tsae, 2011)	30
**Hospitalisation of self/family member	30
**Time pressures (Fram, 1992)	30
**Child/close relative on methylphenidate (Sembower, Ertischek, Buchholtz, Dasgupta & Schnoll, 2013)	20
**Chronic medication (Ehrensaft, <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Rice, 2005) and/or use of methylphenidate (Sembower, <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	20
**Traffic (Fram, 1992)	20
**Grapevine/rumours as only information source (Bordia, Jones, Gallois, Callan & DiFonzo, 2006)	10

Using the social readjustment rating scale as displayed in table 9.1, a score of one to 100 can be assigned to the various stressful incidents. This enables one to create a stress barometer as displayed in Figure 9.5. The brain (and body) does not like surprises. Any sudden change stimuli which affect the body can cause stress which throws the whole physical being into turmoil (Holmes and Rahe, 1967). Hence in scoring and evaluating one's own stress, this barometer could be useful in establishing individual baseline stress levels before embarking upon an organisational change initiative.

The stress barometer in Figure 9.5 displays that individuals with a total score up to 150 points are at a slight risk (30%) of illness due to stress. Individuals scoring between 150 and 300 points are at a moderate risk (50%) of illness. Individuals scoring higher than 300 points are at risk of illness (80%) due to stress. The purpose of such a stress barometer is not to exclude individuals from change initiatives, rather to increase awareness and to apply effective stress reduction methods from the outset.

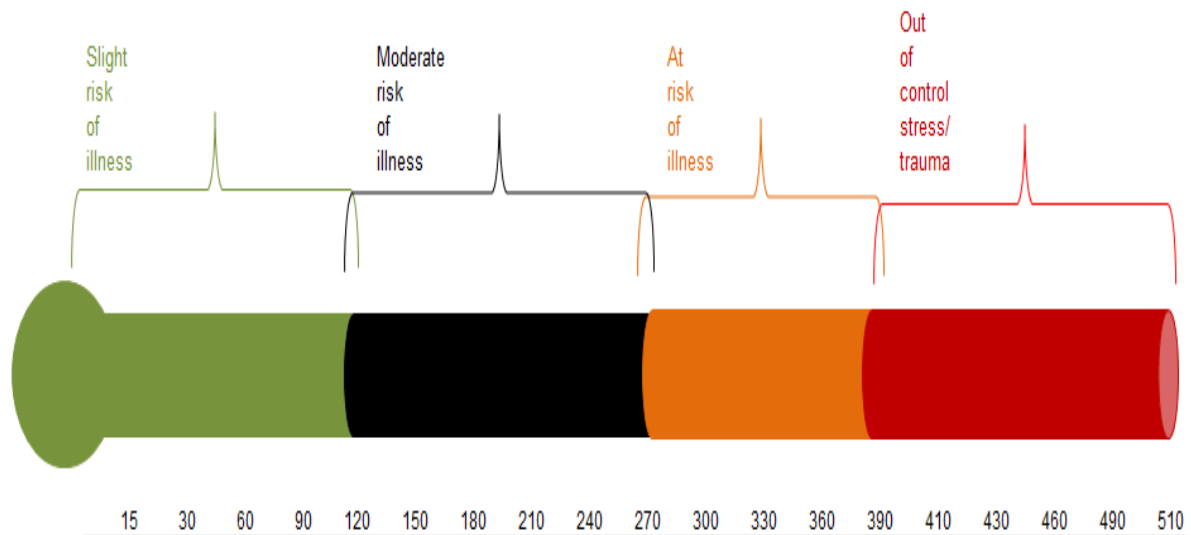


Figure 9.5: Stress barometer (adapted from Holmes and Rahe, 1967)

Application of the stress barometer (figure 9.5) allows the individual to gauge his or her personal stress levels and should be an available tool for all individuals to apply in private. Given ethical considerations, the outcome or result of the stress barometer is clearly sensitive. However, by raising awareness at an individual level, the individual can be empowered to act in a positive way to reduce high stress levels. This implies that practical and applicable stress reduction interventions are available to individuals in the organisation. In a group setting, individuals could score themselves and hand their total score (anonymously) to the group facilitator. Displaying the stress levels in the group without prejudice could further lead to increased stress awareness. The stress barometer would serve as another building block element in the emerging conceptual framework.

Figure 9.6 redisplayes Lewin's (1951) three-step model. A further rebuilding on Lewin's (1951) model now reveals that the unfreeze step relates to rigidity, the inability to learn, stress and individual trauma.

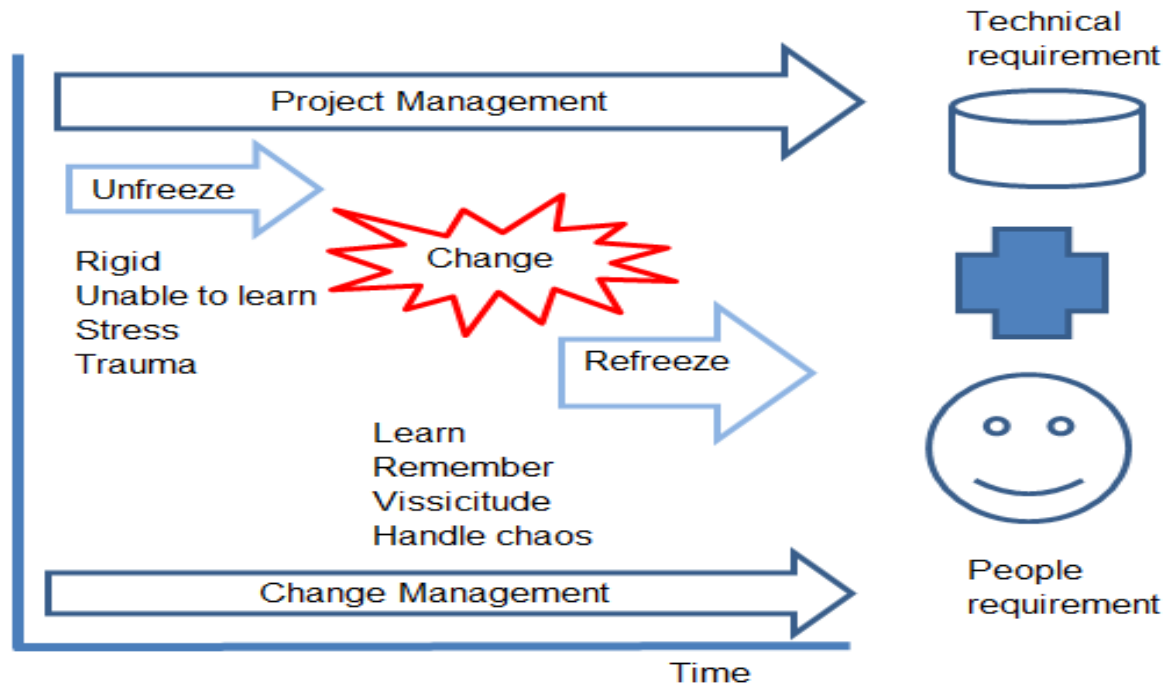


Figure 9.6: Lewin's (1951) three-step model and the adapted version

According to figure 9.6, the change step relates to the ability to learn and remember, implying released stress and increased levels of individual consciousness and mindfulness which will result in vicissitude. Body-based and spiritual intervention techniques that can help individuals to better cope with the related changes during the change step should be actively explored and implemented in an organisational context. The third step, to refreeze, then allows for the newly created consciousness to become habit.

## 9.5 STRESS CONCLUSION

The preceding section discussed the impact of stress in South Africa, organisations, teams and individuals. The detrimental effects of stress as exposed through behaviours relating to violence, alcohol and medication were emphasised. Stress has become an integral part of individuals' daily lives. Organisational change perpetuates stress through increased anxiety and distress. Leadership, as an extension of the individual, is equally faced with the reality of stress in their own lives as well as in the lives of subordinates and team members. Organisations in South Africa should no longer deny the fact that organisational change results in elevated stress levels.

Human behaviour as a result of stress was discussed. Negative behaviours include violence, alcohol and medication as outlets for heightened stress experiences. Much has been written about these negative behaviours. However, it seems as though precious little is available in traditional literature on the management of stress and negative behaviours in an organisational context.

Laubscher (2013) argues that stress results in a downshift of human niches. Organisations do not have an in-deep understanding of the different human niches. Furthermore, organisational change results in stress, but organisations are not able to handle individual stress. The importance of the human element in creating successful organisational change seems clear. Today's successful leaders require methods which can facilitate successful collaboration. Successful collaboration becomes possible if stress levels are within normal ranges. Unfortunately, traditional organisational literature fails to present applicable stress reduction methods which are congruent to the different human niches.

The organisational stress dilemma seems fourfold. Firstly, organisations and leadership require a deep awareness of stress, its impact on productivity and its effect relationships and general interactions. Secondly, organisational change will increase stress if it is not managed and implemented responsibly. Thirdly, interventions relating to stress and anxiety seem limited in their ability to provide a long-term resolution to this phenomenon. However, that does not detract from leadership's responsibility to be aware, display empathy and mitigate further stress through mindful leadership practices. Fourthly, it is necessary to find novel, applicable interventions to reduce stress to acceptable levels.

Relating stress to the data findings discussed in chapter six, figure 9.7 seems more appropriate. An optimal stress point after which distress becomes predominant could not be found in the data. Soon after stress had entered the picture, reduced performance followed. Figure 9.7 indicates the baseline as calm and restful. The dotted line indicates the threshold above which an experience overwhelms an individual. This line separates controlled arousal from overwhelm, stress and trauma. This threshold differs for every individual and depends on many factors. Some of

these factors were discussed in section 9.2.7 which dealt with stress, violence and medication.

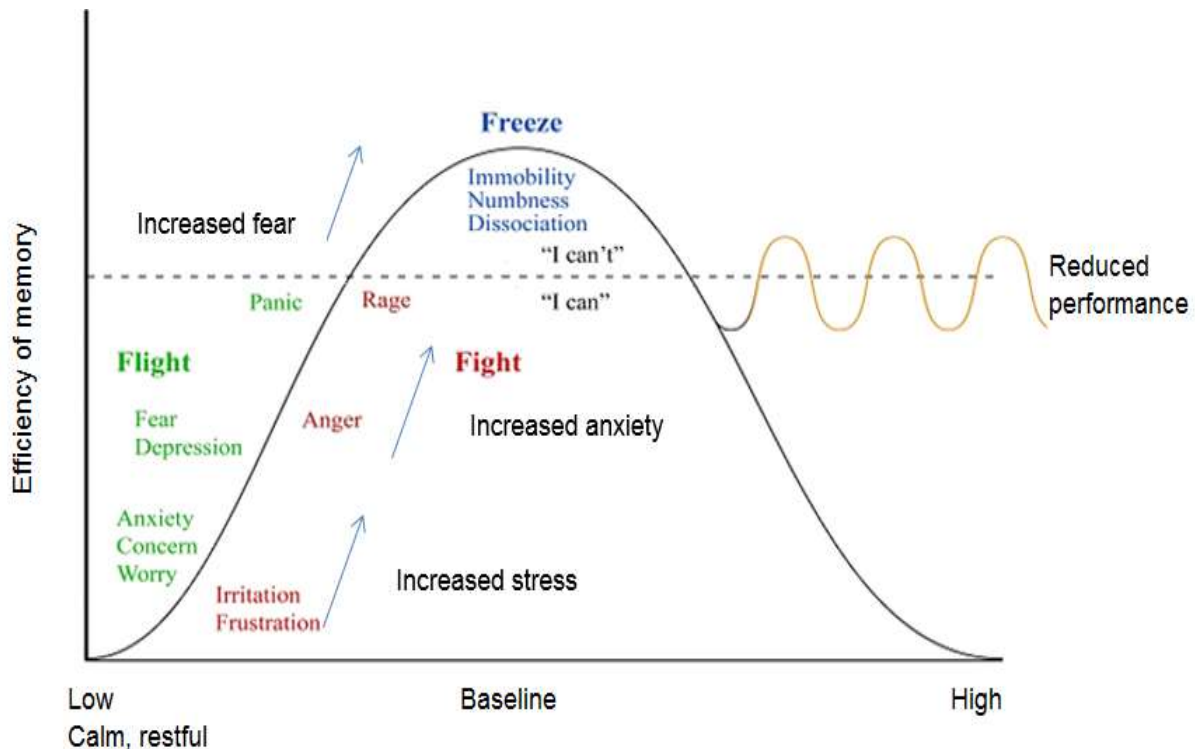


Figure 9.7: Adapting organisational stress to Yerkes Dodson Law

Figure 9.7 indicates that there is no optimal stress level after which performance will decline. The collected data clearly indicated that pressure, anxiety or fear in the environment quickly leads to shutdown, regression, demotivation and distress. Limbic responses such as fight, flight and freeze become reality as stress, anxiety and fear increase.

## 9.6 THE BRAIN

Predictability and order are two of the brain's main functions (Rock, 2009; Pearce, 2003). Furthermore, rapport, trust, openness and clarity are important brain elements in terms of learning and change (Rock, 2009; Pearce, 2003). The primary objective of the brain is to minimise danger and maximise reward (Pearce, 2003). Taleb (2010) reminds us that certainty is elusive.

By virtue of its inherent function, organisational change is the antithesis of predictability and order. Organisational change increases uncertainty with little knowledge of the possible reward. Moreover, the data findings clearly indicated that



organisational change leads to stress, anxiety and fear. It therefore seems appropriate to establish what could minimise danger and maximise reward during periods of organisational change.

Our brains, often called the triune brain, consist of three integral systems. The three parts are commonly referred to as the reptilian brain (instinctual), the mammalian or limbic brain (emotional) and the human brain or neo-cortex (rationality) (Levine, 1997). Peters (2012:7) simplifies brain complexity by combining the frontal, limbic and parietal brains into the “psychological mind”. Peters (2012) calls the frontal brain the human, the limbic brain the chimp and the parietal brain the computer, thereby effectively illustrating that you are the human, the chimp is your emotional machine and the parietal brain is the storage area for thoughts and behaviours.

Embedded deep inside the brain of every animal is the reptilian brain, the home of the instincts. Sensation is the language of the reptilian brain. Biologically and physiologically the reptilian brain is essential to all animals, including humans. The reptilian brain is encoded with the instinctual plans for the behaviours that ensure species survival (Levine, 1997).

The brain is a highly interconnected system. The core motivation underlying all brain behaviours and processing is to minimise danger and maximise reward (Gordon, 2013). Organisational change may trigger these same brain behaviours. Because stress arouses the limbic system (LeDoux, 2002), we need a better understanding of how to minimise danger and maximise reward (Klein, 2002; Naccache, *et al.*, 2005).

### **9.6.1 The psychological mind**

Conformity enforcers such as the need to flock together (Bloom, 2000) stamp cookie-cutter similarities into members of a group to give it an identity, to unify it when pelted by adversity, to make sure members speak a common language and to pull the crowd together in efforts sometimes so vast that no single contributor can see the larger scheme in its entirety. In humans, conformity enforcers lead to a myriad of cruelties and shared worldviews which both shape brain wiring and changes the way adults see - a collective perception makes one group's reality another's mass insanity. Conformity gives complex adaptive systems – social groups

– stability. Ironically, conformity is strengthened when it is shored up by its enemy - diversity (Bloom, 2000). This relates to Laubscher's (2013) human niches.

Research by Tinbergen (1961) found that hostility in social creatures is almost universal against individuals that behave in an abnormal manner. Humans who tried to stand out or who strayed from the pack roused infuriation (Hall, 1899). The brain regions involved in social pain such as humiliation or exclusion are quite similar to those involved in physical pain (Lieberman and Eisenberger, 2013). Acceptance is as crucial to social animals as oxygen and food (Bloom, 2000).

Gordon and Williams (2008) found that the brain's overarching principle is to classify the world around you into things that will either hurt you or help you stay alive. Everything you do is based on the brain's determination to minimise danger and to maximise reward. The limbic system is ultimately responsible for telling you what to pay more attention to, and in what way.

Curiosity, happiness and contentment are toward responses. Anxiety, sadness and fear are away responses (Gordon and Williams, 2008; Berceli, 2012). As an individual experiences emotions, the limbic system automatically becomes aroused - this includes the hippocampus and the amygdale. The hippocampus does not only remember facts; it also remembers feelings about facts (Gordon and Williams, 2008). The extent to which reported emotions were described in negative terms seems to indicate individuals reacting in fight, flight or freeze mode.

The physical body will reflect or express whatever is going on in the mind and will increase performance when it needs to avert danger - flight or fight (Levine, 2010; Berceli, 2012). The physiological changes associated with the fight or flight response result in the following: a surge of adrenaline; an increase in respiration; mobilisation of blood glucose; increased sweating; diversion of blood flow to muscles and away from the gut; an increase in platelet adhesiveness; and short-term mobilisation of the white blood cells as well as the activation of inflammatory hormones (Hassed, 2013). When these changes have been properly activated, based on a clearly perceived and significant threat, and allowed to switch off when no longer required – they are not damaging (Levine, 2010; Berceli, 2012). However, when activated

inappropriately and frequently, these changes cause short-term anxiety about problems and become a significant risk of chronic illness, including detrimental effects to the brain (Hassed, 2013).

The data findings indicated increased stress levels as a result of organisational change. Emotions such as fear, anxiety and the inability to function, point towards individuals reacting in either fight, flight or freeze mode. The prolonged activation of the fight or flight response leads to physiological and neurological wear and tear known as allostatic load (McEwan, 2004). Prolonged allostatic load leads to a range of effects which includes increased inflammation, impaired immunity, accelerated hardening of the arteries, increased risk of type-2 diabetes and osteoporosis, and can lead to atrophy or loss of nerve cells (Hassed, 2013).

Perceptions are reconstructions, bordering on collage artistry. Reality is the fabrication slapped together by a bumbling inner team. Individual perception, untainted by others' influence, does not exist (Bloom, 2010). Although perceptions received little attention, Asch (1956) indicated the slavish nature of perception during the early 1950s by indicating that sense had been swayed more by the views of the multitude than by the actuality.

### **9.6.2 Working memory**

*“Remembered or unremembered, the past exerts its full force on the present experience” (Smuts, 1926:254)*

Research has shown that an overemphasis on organisational change may come at the expense of other relevant organisational factors such as commitment or satisfaction (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006). However, research also points towards the detrimental effects of stress on working memory (Matthews and Campbell, 2010). The frontal cortex and reticular activating system are responsible for working memory, and anxiety leads to reduced working-memory spans (Hassed, 2013). A decrease in attention span, in turn, affects performance (Hassed, 2013).

Memory is at the core of what we call reality (Bloom, 2010). “Catharsis reinforces memory as an absolute truth” (Levine, 1997:207). Loftus (1980:45) indicated that the

group, in a powerful way, remakes our deepest certainties. Hints leaked to us by fellow humans override the scene we were sure we have “seen with our own eyes”. However, Taleb (2010) reminds us that our minds suffer from a triplet of opacity. These include, firstly, a false understanding - we believe that we understand more of what is going on in the world than we actually do. Secondly, there is retrospective distortion - we ascribe meaning to events after they have happened, thereby creating a story we call history. Thirdly, there is the matter of overvaluing facts, statistics and categories - facts, statistics and categories are neither able to predict the future, nor give us an accurate picture of reality.

The stress and organisational change literatures suggests that the duration and temporal uncertainty of an event can influence the stress experienced by an individual (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). In terms of change, such events can occur along a continuum from a discrete event to a relatively on-going dynamic process (Glick, Huber, Miller, Harold & Sutcliffe, 1990). When change is perceived as a discrete event with a beginning and end, employees are better able to predict and adjust their behaviour accordingly (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006). Alternatively, when an organisation is in a state of continuous flux, employees are unable to align their thoughts and actions with the expectations of the leaders of their organisation. Marks (2003) took this a step further and proposed a saturation effect such that employees can handle only so much disruption.

Lang (1977) formulated the concept of emotional processing to suggest how emotional information might be organised in memory. Lang (1977) argued that fear exists as an information structure in memory. The memory structure includes information about feared stimuli, responses and their meanings. This information structure is conceived of as a programme for fear behaviour, which occurs when the affective memory is accessed.

Our search for memories may engender more pain and distress while further solidifying our frozen immobility (Levine, 1997). There are two types of memory pertinent to stress and trauma - explicit or conscious memories and implicit or procedural and unconscious memory. Bergson (1941) asserted that the brain's function is not to preserve the past. The idea that you know what happened because

you remember it is produced by a human need to create meaning out of the various elements of experience (Levine, 1997). “Meaning is one of the basics we humans need” (Bloom, 2010:273). Meaning can come at the price of blood or it can come through the productivity of teams and through individual inspiration and creativity. Meaning can lower other humans or it can lift us all (Bloom, 2010).

Memory does not record a linear sequence of events (Levine, 1997), but the existence of permanent memories is etched in specific areas of the brain; memories are only activated when the electrodes simulated both sensory areas and the limbic portion of the brain simultaneously (Penfield and Boldrey, 1930). Research suggests that the realness of an image is reinforced by the intensity of the associated arousal (Gloor, 1997).

Thus emotional feelings are essential for the experience of remembering. “Any emotional activation coupled with an image generates an experience of memory” (Levine, 1997:213). We therefore need to understand memory from a relative and absolute perspective. Many individuals regard memories as a treasured possession, even if they are not consciously recognised as a basis for their very identity (Levine, 1997).

Byron and Peterson (2002) found that organisational responses in the aftermath of a traumatic event had a unique influence (even after controlling for global co-worker social support) on psychological strain. Employees in companies that took such actions as sending a compassionate company-wide e-mail or organised a fundraising for victims or a blood drive tended to be less dissatisfied with their jobs (Byron and Peterson, 2002).

### **9.6.3 Rumours**

Organisational change is enfolded in ambiguity, which is a tension provoker (Geist, 1978). Indecisive grey savage the limbic system, so that individuals desperately need the tranquiliser of a world spelled out in black and white (Smithers and Loble, 1978). When ambiguity is high, making decisions becomes agony (Bloom, 2010).

Organisational rumours are common (Michelson and Mouly, 2002) and can be understood as unverified statements about issues of topical significance (DiFonzo and Bordia, 2002a, 2002b). Rumours can be distinguished from news in that the former are unsubstantiated whereas the latter is based on verified facts. Rumours also differ from other genres of informal communication such as gossip, which tends to be about people and serves social and political agendas (Rosnow, 2001). However, rumours are typically about issues of considerable importance to people (Bordia, Jones, Gallois, Callan & DiFonzo, 2006).

Rumours are especially rampant during organisational change and often pre-empt formal announcements by management - predicting the nature of change or alleging dire consequences for employees (Isabella, 1990). The psychological precursors to rumour spreading include uncertainty, thematic importance, anxiety and beliefs (Rosnow, 1991). Uncertainty can be defined as a sense of doubt or confusion about ambiguous events and their future importance (DiFonzo and Bordia, 1998). Uncertainty is an adverse psychological state and motivates information seeking strategies in an attempt to reduce uncertainty (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois & Callan, 2004).

Rumours are a consequence of stressful circumstances and spread under conditions that create anxiety and uncertainty. However, rumours also cause stress (DiFonzo and Bordia, 2000). Given that negative rumours and stress coexist, levels of stress should be higher when negative rumours are present (Bordia, *et al.*, 2006).

#### **9.6.4 Bad is stronger than good**

Centuries of philosophies, religion and literary efforts depicted human life in terms of the struggle between good and bad forces. The relative strength of bad versus good was further documented by Carlson's (1966) survey of psychology textbooks in which he found twice as many chapters devoted to unpleasant as to pleasant emotions; a similar imbalance was found in lines of coverage as well as usage of specific words. Czapinski (1985) echoed the above, finding negative issues far exceeding positive issues across all areas of psychology.

Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer & Vohs (2001) hypothesised that those events with a negative valence will have a greater impact on the individual than events of the same type which have positive valence. Baumeister, *et al* (2001) found bad to be stronger than good in a disappointingly relentless pattern. They (2001) believed that throughout our evolutionary history, organisms that were better attuned to bad things would be more likely to survive threats. Survival requires urgent attention to possible bad outcomes, but it is less urgent about good outcomes.

Perhaps the broadest manifestation of the greater power of bad events than good to elicit lasting reactions is contained in the psychology of trauma. Many kinds of traumas produce severe and lasting effects on behaviour, but there is no corresponding concept of a positive event that can have similarly strong and lasting effects. A single traumatic experience can have long-term effects on individual's health, well-being, attitudes, self-esteem, anxiety, and behaviour, but trauma has no true opposite concept. In contrast, there is little evidence that single positive experiences can have equally influential consequences (Baumeister, *et al.*, 2001).

Neurological evidence confirms the above, suggesting that responses in the brain are stronger towards bad than good things (Bartholow, Fabiani, Gratton & Bettencourt, 1999). Quirk, Reppas & LeDoux (1995) found that fear-inducing events leave indelible memory traces in the brain. Furthermore, even after the behavioural response to a fear-inducing conditioned stimulus has been extinguished, the brain retains a changed pattern of neuronal firing in response to that stimulus and of neuronal connections between cells (Quirk, *et al.*, 1995). The existence of a specific brain mechanism to detect self-generated errors suggests that the brain is wired to react more strongly towards bad than to good. Errors and mistakes result in unintended responses and are therefore more likely to lead to bad outcomes (Luu, Collins & Tucker, 2000).

Research confirmed that negative stimuli have a greater influence on neural responses than positive stimuli (Ito, Larsen, Smith & Cacioppo, 1998). Moreover, negative traits have greater influence on the overall impression of another person (Peeters and Czapinski, 1990), and that negative trait adjectives command more



attention at a non-conscious level than positive trait adjectives (Pratto and John, 1991).

Research is starting to explore and address the behavioural, psychological-, and medical consequences of workplace stress and its impact on performance. With a growing recognition in leadership literature of emotions and emotional stability as core ingredients in the effective leadership process, it becomes essential to understand the effects and consequences of those experiences that generate strong emotions in organisational members – including experiences that create strong, negative autobiographical memories (LeDoux, 1998), uncertainty (Hedden and Gabrieli, 2006), and a lack of autonomy (Donny, Bigelow & Walsh, 2006b). Techniques of mindfulness (Farb, *et al.*, 2007), labelling (Lieberman, Eisenberger, Crockett, Tom, Pfeifer & Way, 2007) and reappraisal (Gross and John, 2003) could mitigate some of the effects of bad organisational change experiences.

#### **9.6.5 Brain functioning conclusion**

The brain is a truly complicated piece of machinery. However, taking cognisance of brain functioning and working with brain research allows organisations, leaders and individuals alike, to improve their understanding of themselves. Brain functioning also highlights the likely outcome for individuals and leaders when under stress, as opposed to functioning under normal circumstances.

Conformity creates stability, but also poses a real threat to organisational survival. Organisational change dents conformity, but during organisational change, anxiety becomes stable and permanent. The fear individuals experience during organisational change is often without a reference point, resulting in an increasingly skewed perception of reality. Organisations and leaders alike are able to mitigate such fear, anxiety and stress through increasing toward responses and decreasing away responses. By combining the research findings and literature, the researcher consolidated and compiled figure 9.8 below.



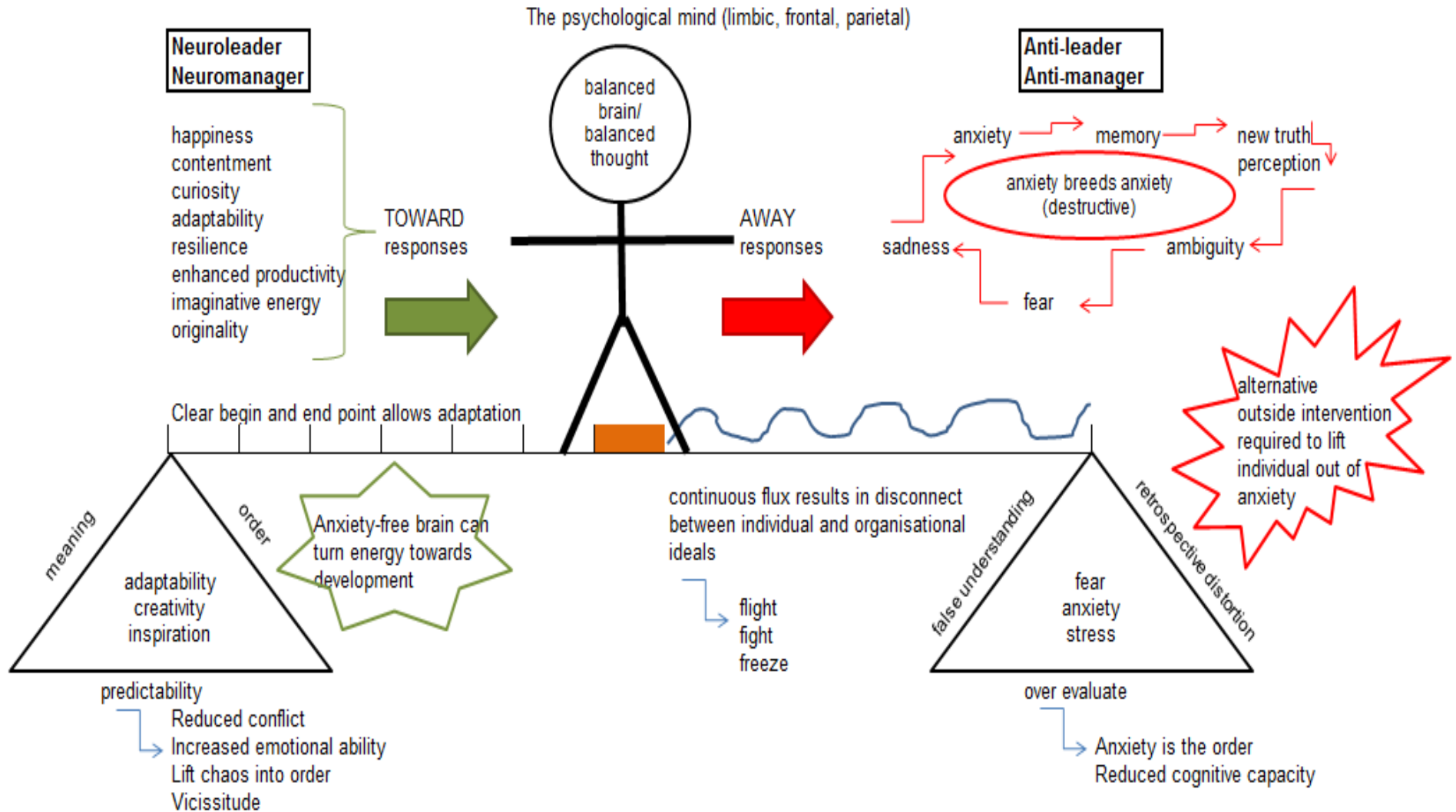


Figure 9.8: The brain, stress and the individual

The researcher developed figure 9.8, by applying the research findings on human reactions to change and stress and human niches, combined with literature on the brain. According to figure 9.8, a balanced individual is able to produce balanced thoughts. An overload of away responses increases anxiety, stress and fear. Pearce (2003) reminds us that anxiety is contagious. This is displayed through the loop of anxiety, memory, new truth (perception), ambiguity, fear, sadness only to return to anxiety. Organisational change rests on a seesaw, one end held up by a triangle of meaning, predictability and order. Here the individual experiences reduced conflict and increased emotional ability, allowing him or her to lift chaos into order, resulting in eventual vicissitude. The other end is held up by false understanding, retrospective distortion and over-evaluation. Here anxiety is the order. The neuroleader and neuromanager create toward responses. The anti-leader and the anti-manager create away responses in the individual. The anti-leader and anti-manager will be discussed in detail in chapter thirteen.

Figure 9.8 indicates toward responses as adaptability, resilience, enhanced productivity, happiness, contentment, curiosity, imaginative energy and originality. By contrast, away responses are destructive - anxiety, stress, fear. Away responses become a bounded loop from which the individual is unable to escape without outside intervention. Providing clear begin and end points can assist toward responses, where continuous flux increase away responses.

However, figure 9.8 also indicates that there are seemingly no effective, mainstream interventions which aid individuals to relief stress, anxiety and fear. As such, this figure also depicts the need for alternative interventions to lift the individual out of this destructive cycle. This thought will serve as a further building block element in the emerging conceptual framework.

The impact of stress and the importance of lowering individual stress levels are indicated in figure 9.9. Again, the researcher developed this figure taking into account the research findings and realities that emerged in the case study. With high stress levels, it becomes extremely difficult to change behaviour and create new meaning. Individuals with high stress levels will in all probability revert back to old, wrong habits because all their available capacity and energy is required for survival,

perhaps merely to function as stress reduces the individual’s window of tolerance and/or range of effective functioning. This reality came to the fore in the case study as discussed in chapter five.

Figure 9.9 illustrates the split second in which an unconscious decision is made. Change is unpredictable and uncertain, resulting in fear as the primary emotion. Instinct thus kicks in. Most often, instinct will result in impaired decision making which is then utilised as the base from which information is processed. Thoughts therefore become repetitive, falling back to known memories and perceptions. Increased stress results. A vicious circle ensues. Each individual’s emotional tolerance window will depend on the quality of choice which arises.

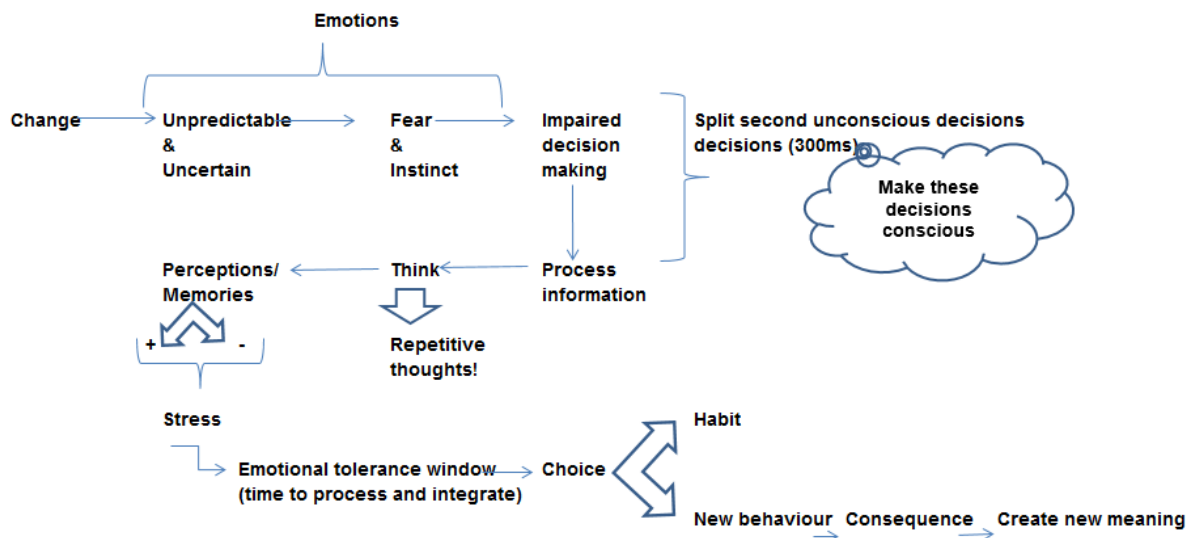


Figure 9.9: Individual reactions to change

A low emotional tolerance window will result in the individual falling back into habits which are comfortable and known. A high emotional tolerance window will allow new behaviour to be explored and actioned which in turn can result in newly created meaning. Figure 9.9 indicates the importance of lowering individual stress levels in meaningful and sustainable ways to enable organisations to achieve successful organisational change.

An awareness of the brain’s primary responses of fight or flight, as well as a deeper understanding of additional brain functioning, can provide a starting point from which diversity and inclusivity can be acknowledged. Brain research can also provide

leadership with a plethora of options and alternative leadership methods to follow, not only in situations relating to organisational change, but to any organisational situation which requires close interaction between different individuals. A comprehensive understanding of the way in which our brain functions can assist leadership in removing an obstacle of fear which is inherent to organisational change. If leadership is able to mitigate the fear response in individuals, productivity will improve in tandem with individual’s overall satisfaction levels.

### 9.7 LEADERSHIP AND THE BRAIN

Neuroleadership (Ringleb and Rock, 2013) indicates various leadership interventions which may be applicable to the modern organisation. These interventions are summarised in table 9.2. When leaders display emotional stability (Goleman, 2006), a positive outlook (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013), adaptability (Bartlett, *et al.*, 2008) and a people focus (Darling and Heller, 2011), followers will experience improved interpersonal relationships (Goleman, 2006), improved trust and morale as well as increased organisational effectiveness (Ringleb and Rock, 2013).

Leaders’ self-regulation also results in improved productivity (O’Connor, *et al.*, 2013). Empathy (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013), mindfulness (Siegel, 2001) and open, honest communication (Bordia, *et al.*, 2006) improves beliefs, desires, intentions, knowledge (Premack and Woodruff, 1978) and interaction (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013), while reducing rumours (Bordia, *et al.*, 2006). Table 9.2 below summarises these thoughts.

Table 9.2: Summary of the possible outcomes of effective leadership

Effective leadership	Effect on followers
Positive outlook (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013) and positive attitude (Darling and Heller, 2011)	Provide desirable behaviour to follow (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013) and positive followers (Losier, 2006)
Emotional stability (Goleman, 2006)	Improved interpersonal relationships (Goleman, 2006); build trust, improve follower satisfaction, morale and motivation, overall organisational effectiveness (Ringleb and Rock, 2013)

Effective leadership	Effect on followers
Adaptability (Bartlett, <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	Increased ability to handle complex, demanding or unclear situations (Bartlett, <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
People focus (Darling and Heller, 2011)	Meaningful concerns (Darling and Heller, 2011)
Self-regulation (O'Connor, <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	Increased workplace productivity (O'Connor, <i>et al.</i> , 2013)
Self-report (Gordon, <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	Improved productivity (Gordon, <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
Focus on communicating, motivating, mentoring, investing, producing and innovating (Engardio, 2008)	Improved credibility (Engardio, 2008)
Positive social support (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006)	Positive change perceptions (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006)
Empathy (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013)	Improved mental states such as beliefs, desires, intentions and knowledge (Premack and Woodruff, 1978).
Mindsight (Siegel, 2001)	Improved interaction (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013)
Open, honest communication (Bordia, <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	Negative rumours result in higher stress levels (Bordia, <i>et al.</i> , 2006)

According to table 9.2, effective leadership has the ability to reduce uncertainty, encourage desirable behaviour and improve productivity (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013). By contrast, ineffective leadership will result in conflict, ambiguity, overreaction and ineffective conflict management (Sullivan and Gratton, 2002), creating stress and uncertainty for followers (Sullivan and Gratton, 2002). Similarly, leader irritability (Harung, *et al.*, 2009) creates stress for followers (Sullivan and Gratton, 2002). A leader's negative thoughts will arouse anger, fear, jealousy, apathy, anxiety and regret in followers (Hicks and Hicks, 2006).

At this juncture, it could be appropriate to refer to neuroleaders and neuromanagers. Neuroleaders are able to apply brain research to create applicable toward responses in followers. Such responses might include a positive outlook, emotional stability, adaptability, people focus, self-regulation, empathy and mindsight. Neuromanagers are able to apply brain research to create toward responses in subordinates. Such responses might include, but are not limited to, a focus on communication, motivation, mentoring and innovating. The neuromanager's communications will be open and honest, building a pathway for mutual trust.

## **9.8 INTEGRATION**

### **9.8.1 Stress**

The benefits of exercise for stress reduction are clear. However, traditional methods such as medication and therapy will be inadequate if they do not result in a more permanent state of lowered stress. Given the high prevalence of stress in our modern organisations and societies, we have to seek alternative methods of stress relief.

The impact of stress on individuals has been reiterated throughout this study. In relating the information in this chapter to the case study and the collected data, it becomes clear that many individuals operate in fight/flight/freeze mode on a daily basis. Slumped body postures, reduced ability and skewed perceptions all indicate increased stress. Aggression, defensiveness, resistance, emotional behaviours, hostility and anger are all indicative of a stressed organism.

However, organisations struggle to acknowledge this stress and seem unable to reduce stress to manageable levels. Adding organisational change to an already stressed organism can never result in sustainable change. A stressed organism is likely to behave in highly unpredictable ways. Alternative, effective and efficient methods with the ability to return the individual to a state of homeostasis (without necessarily dredging up horrifying or traumatic memories) need to be found to deal with and reduce stress.

Laubscher (2014) highlighted the fact that when under stress, our human niches close down as the question of existence changes to cope with new life conditions.

ORANGE and BLUE human niches can become RED in times of stress. PURPLE human niches can regress to BEIGE. Graves (1978) emphasised the biosociopsychological aspect of his model. However, few authors include the bio aspect of adult functioning. The body is a part of the human entity. According to Reeves (2014), we can no longer discard the body as unimportant. In ensuring a holistic image, bio-, socio- and psychological aspects must be unified to ensure optimal organisational change.

### **9.8.2 Leadership**

Organisational change is challenging. Stress is a key element which leaders have to deal with in modern organisations. This requires self-awareness, self-regulation and knowing oneself. Given the turbulence of today's organisational environments, leaders cannot lead when they are not in control of their emotions. Deep emotional regulation is required first of the self, and then only of others. Awareness of threats to status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness and fairness can relatively easily mitigate threat responses from employees, allowing for a more productive work environment.

The impact of a lack of leadership, guidance and poor management on individuals was repeatedly underscored in this study. In hindsight, it is clear that many individual struggles with organisational change are perpetuated through poor leadership qualities. Leaders who are unable to regulate their own behaviour and emotions create further stress in an already stressed system. Lack of guidance perpetuates uncertainty which, in turn, increases fear. Leaders who fail to understand and lead according to different thinking systems, will continually fail to extract positive emotions and goodwill from employees.

It would be prudent at this stage to refer back to Stoicism, which was introduced as a philosophy in chapter one. Given human niches, stress and the knowledge gained on brain functioning, the four pillars of Stoicism, namely wisdom, courage, justice and self-control seem even more pertinent. This brings figure 9.10 to mind, which depicts the Stoic virtues of wisdom, courage, justice and self-control as pillars. Integrating these pillars into human niche theory indicates that wisdom, courage, justice and self-control will be viewed differently by the different human niches. Through an awareness of different perceptions and different human niches,



leadership can relate wisdom, courage, justice and self-control in an appropriate manner, which speaks to all human niches. However, as long as individuals function on the basis of anxiety, stress and fear, no real change can occur. Individuals must be released from such a state of anxiety and fear, if they are to engage successfully in a change initiative. Only by being in a reassured and calm state can organisational change be applied for the betterment of individuals and their teams, organisations and society at large.

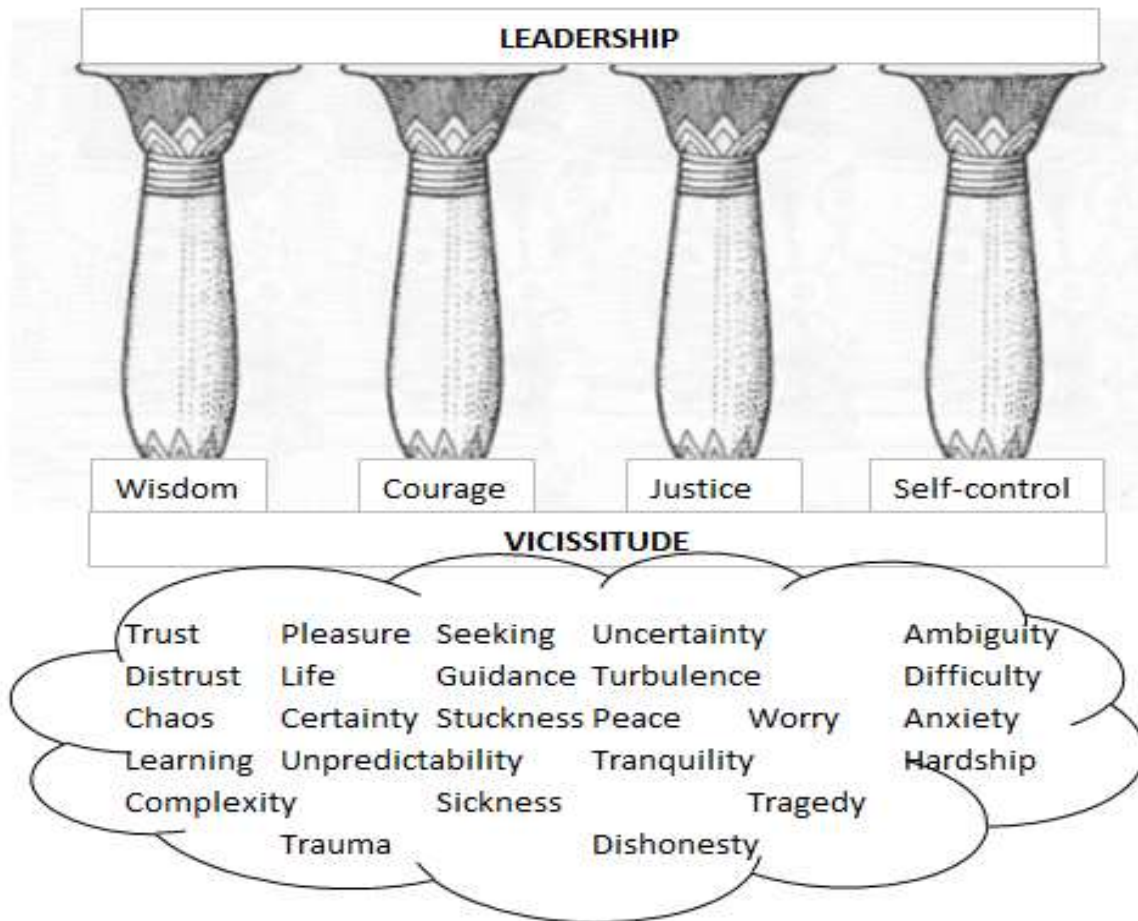


Figure 9.10: Leadership pillars

Figure 9.10 depicts some of the emotions such as trust, distrust, pleasure, certainty, uncertainty, turbulence, complexity, anxiety and being stuck and life. These are but some of the emotional manifestations which may be evident during organisational change and which should be harnessed to enable vicissitude. The Stoic pillars of wisdom, courage, justice and self-control, in turn, could guide leadership towards the positive enablement of organisational change and therefore form another building block element in the emerging conceptual framework.



## 9.9 INTEGRATION OF CONCLUSIONS OF DIFFERENT DATA FINDINGS

The case study discussed in chapter five and the research findings explained in chapter six indicated an important triad. Firstly, there is the importance of the individual in achieving successful change. Secondly, there is the imperative role of leadership to effect and guide change. Leadership and organisational change should go hand in hand. Thirdly, there is the importance of vicissitude. The preceding sections also reiterated the uncertainty inherent in organisational change. The researcher integrated these thoughts and included them in figure 9.11 below.

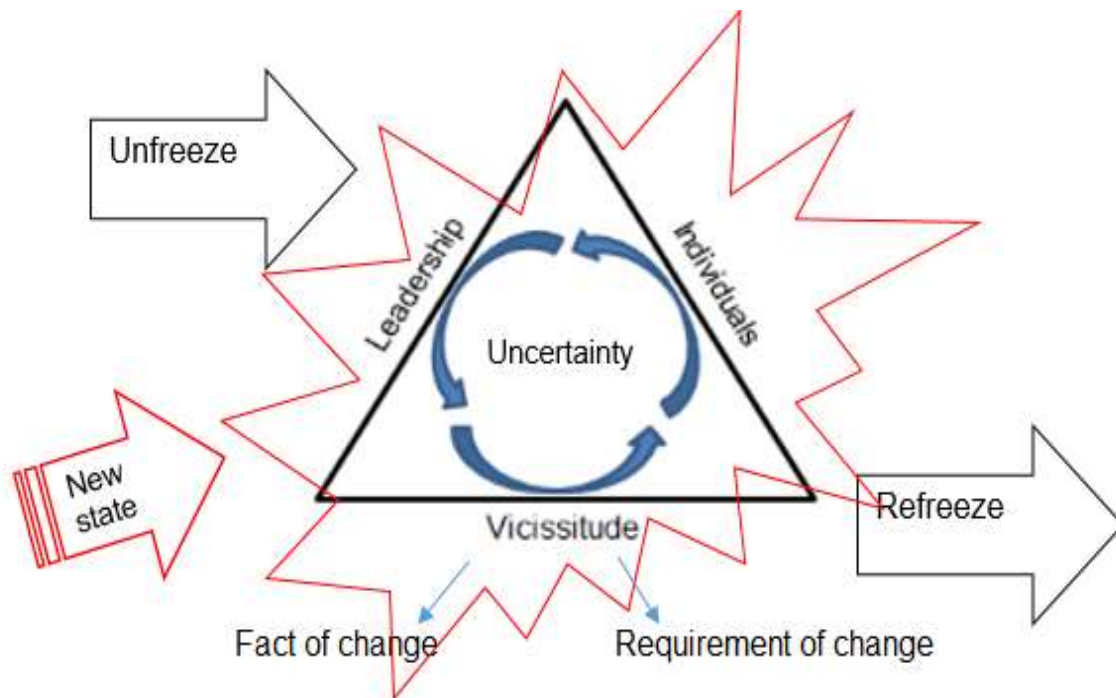


Figure 9.11: The organisational change triad

Figure 9.11 indicates the importance of vicissitude towards permanence in the new state. This new state is organisational change which is, in turn, characterised by uncertainty. Acknowledging and harnessing the significance of leadership, individuals and vicissitude, can make possible the refreeze of the new state.

At this stage, it would be apt to revisit the framework for organisational change (McGuire and Hutchings, 2006) which was discussed in section 2.3, figure 2.9. This is presented in figure 9.12 below, which indicates the drivers and factors of organisational change which will promote or inhibit the change process. The case study confirms that organisational change is driven by survival, technology,

economic-, socio-political- and legal forces as well as HR issues and process considerations. However, the researcher adapted the framework to include leadership, change management, communication, certainty, trust, leader and team shared understanding and involvement as change enablers.

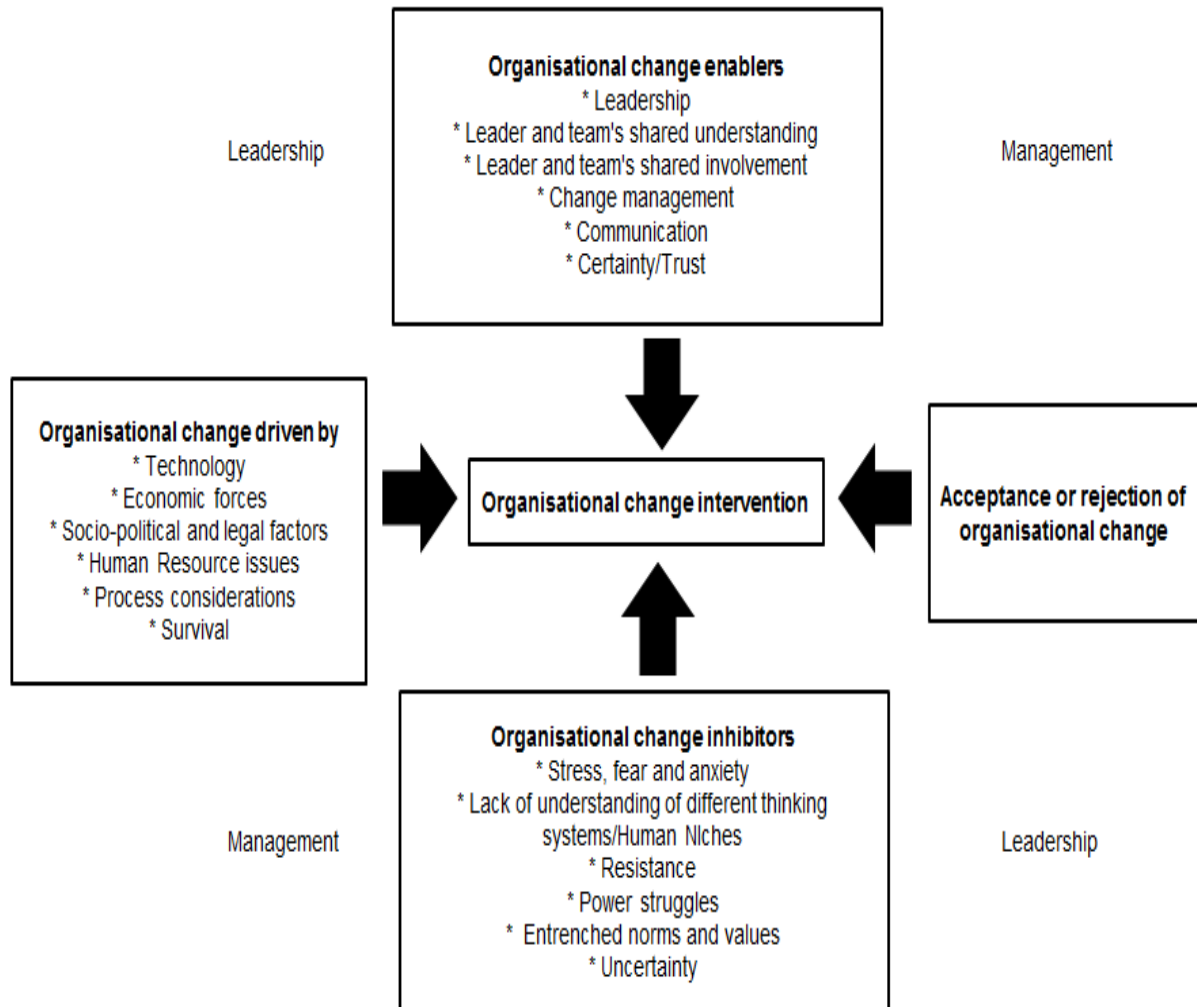


Figure 9.12: Adapted framework for organisational change (adapted from McGuire and Hutchings, 2006)

Change inhibitors were further extended to include stress, fear, anxiety, lack of understanding of different thinking systems / human niches, resistance and general uncertainty as a result of the change initiative. This is depicted in figure 9.12. Leadership and management have been placed alongside change enablers and change inhibitors. Based on the case study and research findings it would seem that leadership and/or management can either enable or inhibit organisational change.

## 9.10 CONCLUSION

Human niches, stress and the brain are interlinked topics. Equipping leaders with a deep understanding of the different thinking systems which comprise the various human niches as well as the reality of stress, coupled with the knowledge we have on brain functioning, could result in a new frame of reference to assist organisations embarking on organisational change. Unmanaged, increased stress is likely to result in a downshift of human niche. The brain's reaction to stress is to either fight, flight or freeze. Such working knowledge should equip leaders and managers alike to ensure increased security and predictability during times of change.

This might seem paradoxical. However, leaders and managers have to provide some stability and predictability, with applicable translation to the different human niches during change. This can be achieved through improved inclusivity and participation. Without this, successful change will remain difficult.

Stress results in a downshift of the human niche. Stress in South Africa is very real, as is stress in organisations. Repeated stress responses in organisations are a reality. Individual stress in organisations undergoing any form of change can no longer be ignored.

This chapter clearly indicated the brain's preference for security and predictability. However, it also appears as if traditional stress reduction therapies or treatments do not successfully address the root cause of stress. Hence these interventions at best provide alleviation of symptoms, but do not allow the individual to return to a state of homeostasis and do not facilitate individual vicissitude.

It therefore seems imperative to use what we know about brain functioning and different thinking systems, but to find novel ways to reduce stress effectively and efficiently. Individuals, who are able to effectively and sustainably reduce their stress and anxiety levels, will be better able to cope with challenges and therefore be more productive. A further by-product of effective stress reduction in individuals is improved coping in organisations and society.

Graves (1978) was correct when he proposed that all forces shaping society should be regarded from an integral perspective, namely bio-psycho-social - bio for the neurology and chemical energy of life and the organismic part of the human; psycho for the variables of personality and life experiences, human temperaments and the sense of self and relationships to others and social for the collective energy in group dynamics and culture (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014).

At this point, it would be prudent to return to literature to find acceptable methods to reduce stress. Given the data findings and the lack of current change models and organisational methods in the literature to effectively and efficiently reduce individual stress, it is the researcher's opinion that a broader exploration than traditional organisational theory would be required. The next chapter focuses on finding acceptable alternative intervention technologies that could help individuals to reduce stress in order to better engage with the relevant change initiative.

## **CHAPTER 10: DISCUSSION OF THE NEED FOR ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES**

### **10.1 INTRODUCTION**

Organisations struggle to manage the change process effectively, if at all. Increased diversity, if only in the form of different human niches, accelerates the requirement for a multifaceted organisational change approach. Different human niches, coupled with the unpredictability inherent in organisational change, require that organisations significantly modify the way they do things.

Organisational change is stressful, creates uncertainty, fear, stress, anxiety and mistrust. Individuals may react to stressful events through negative thoughts and feelings. Without an outlet for these heightened emotions, they may be perpetuated. When leaders do not assist or guide individuals to identify a purpose or at least an understanding of organisational change, and when individuals are driven by negative feelings and emotions, individuals are at risk of losing perspective. Similarly, successful organisational change is at risk.

Previous chapters highlighted the ongoing need for change. The researcher assumes individuals, society and organisations alike are living in a time of radical metamorphosis. Unfortunately, it would seem that our sole reliance on technology and science is slowly destroying humanity (Jung, 1953).

The impact of stress on individuals, organisations and society at large was highlighted in this study. The effect of emotions, stress and trauma in particular, and their high prevalence in the context of organisational change were discussed. It was also indicated that increased stress largely contributes to resistance during organisational change initiatives.

In the case study investigated, fear, uncertainty and insecurity featured in every conversation. The first and often lasting emotion when discussing organisational change was fear. Fear of any kind throws the individual into an ancient survival mode, which, when fully active, shuts down higher modes of evolutionary awareness (MacLean, 1997).

It would seem that in order to attain successful organisational change, fear, stress and insecurities must be reduced. However, organisational change remains costly, time consuming and difficult. The researcher thus concluded that the inability of organisations to harness insecurities, stress, fear, anxiety and even trauma, contributes to the high failure rate of organisational change.

Different human niches, brain research and the impact of stress indicate that if a person's perceptions are riddled with fear, his or her natural brain processing is disturbed. Fearful perceptions disturb the neural processing of information in the brain, resulting in distortion. This distorted information will always be negative. It prevents individuals from seeing and acting upon reality as it is. Actual reality then becomes a perceived, distorted reality. Individuals then react to a distorted reality, making real change extremely difficult.

Organisations undoubtedly require change. However, only if the individual is able to release and become free of anxiety, will individual change and eventual vicissitude become a reality. This led the researcher to conclude that successful organisational change can largely be achieved through positive individual change and eventual vicissitude. Unfortunately, these thoughts are not integrated into traditional organisational change literature. This compelled the researcher to return to the literature to find acceptable methods to reduce stress and anxiety, alter perceptions and increase individual awareness and consciousness. This chapter will commence with an exploration on alternative intervention technologies that could help individuals to reduce stress which, in turn, should allow individuals to better engage with the relevant change initiative.

## **10.2 STRESS REDUCTION METHODS**

Respondents from various industries recognised the impact of stress on individuals, teams and organisations. Furthermore, the respondents acknowledged that organisational change increases individual stress and admitted to their organisation's inability to deal with, diffuse and reduce stress. It was generally accepted that the current methods are inadequate to reduce individual stress levels.

There is a paucity of literature on the impact of stress during organisational change. The limited literature indicates that feelings of personal control and the ability to tolerate ambiguity are linked to improved stress levels (Ashford, 1988). Stress has been addressed from an individual perspective in terms of the related consequences of job insecurity and the resultant emotional and behavioural consequences (Van Zyl, Van Eeden & Rothman, 2013), the role of defence mechanisms (Bovey and Hede, 2001) as well as the role of individual differences in the management of stress (Taylor and Cooper, 1988). Although Kim's (1999) research is somewhat outdated, it reported that an understanding of stress as part of the fabric of organisational life remains absent. Unfortunately, this still seems to be the case today.

Darling and Heller (2011) highlighted leadership strategies that facilitate successful stress management as attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust through positioning and confidence through respect. However, these authors (2011) fail to indicate how an individual can be assisted to achieve such successful stress management facilitation. Yu (2009) confirms that when organisations introduce change efforts, they should encourage and guide employees in using stress management strategies, establish psychological support mechanisms and provide employees with methods of dealing with the stress brought on by organisational changes. However, Yu (2009) again fails to indicate what stress management strategies would be applicable.

In an organisational context, most approaches focus on the cause of stress or on methods to prevent, minimise or manage it through improved person-environment fit and job demands-control models (Pitts, 2007; Edwards, 2008). Sisley, *et al.* (2010) suggest that humans adapt to their workplace environment to survive its inherent stressors. However, adaptation may not be a functional outcome if it leads to vulnerability, stress-related illness and well-being problems.

Bernerth, *et al.* (2011) developed a measurement scale of change fatigue as a result of multiple organisational changes and concluded that management should choose their change initiatives only after careful reflection. However, once again, these authors (2011) fail to indicate possible moderating variables. Byrd (2009) found that employees with more years of experience reported greater degrees of stress during

organisational changes and suggested mechanistic methods such as skills training to ensure effective post-organisational changes. Neither Byrd (2009) nor Berneth, *et al.* (2011) explored humanistic approaches in mitigation.

Dahl (2009) concluded that organisational changes have unexpected destabilising effects on organisations and confirmed that employees who have experienced broad and fundamental changes are significantly more likely to receive stress-related medication (for insomnia and depression). Again, no methods or interventions are mentioned which can effectively reduce this stated stress, other than through medication.

According to Grady and Grady (2011), many of the reasons for a widespread sense of organisational mistrust are hidden in the unconscious realm. It would seem as if we fear the world around us, and to ease the anxiety, we separate the world into dichotomies – black or white, light or dark, good or evil. If we are to become more conscious, we need to open our mind to other possibilities. If we are to survive as a people, each of us must become more conscious in our efforts to live within different organisations that cross many national boundaries on a crowded and increasingly smaller earth. To this end, we need to develop the capacity to learn and relate to the value inherent in a genuine exchange of trust and recognise the acceptance inherent in reparation and in being trustworthy (Grady and Grady, 2011).

Laubscher (2014) asserts that stress will result in a downshift of human niches. However, no method considers the combined impact and reality of stress for different human niches, specifically not taking into account the inherent human requirement for safety, security and certainty.

According to Dahl (2009), academics, consultants and managers have focused on change management for decades. However the average organisation is still unable to control the change process without negative consequences. Organisational changes of core features are associated with a significant risk of stress for employees and the risk of increased turnover of employment. This calls for new ways of thinking about the processes of change and how to manage them.



The above argument indicates that the literature does not indicate how to improve stress levels, emotional and behavioural consequences or methods to improve individual defence mechanisms in an organisational change context. Where methods are suggested, they are mechanistic and not humanistic. As mentioned previously, mechanistic approaches largely speak to the BLUE human niche, forgetting about the other human niches. The human reactions to change as discussed in chapters five and six indicated the prevalence of stress, as well as the vital role played by the individual and his or her human niche in effecting successful change in organisations.

A lack of humanistic interventions pertaining to the reduction of individual stress levels in an organisational change context, led the researcher to conclude that current methods are either non-existent or inadequate. Individual stress, in turn, impacts negatively on the ability to achieve successful change and/or optimal performance – hence the need to address individual stress adequately. This requires organisations to look to more humanistic methods to adequately reduce individual stress levels.

This chapter explores and describes alternative intervention technologies in an attempt to find applicable, humanistic solutions to a very real stress dilemma. The proposed interventions apply largely to PURPLE, RED and BLUE. Since ORANGE, GREEN and YELLOW have already integrated PURPLE, RED and BLUE into their respective worldviews, no human niche will be excluded.

### **10.3 DESCRIPTION OF CHANGE TECHNIQUES**

According to Smuts (1925:vi), “the old concepts and formulas are no longer adequate to express our modern outlook”. He (1925) went on to argue that the narrowing of concepts and processes into hard and rigid outlines, temporarily simplified the problems of science and thought. However, we have outlived the utility of this procedure. Smuts (1925) therefore argued that we have to return to more difficult but more correct views of the natural plasticity and fluidity of natural things and processes. The physical, biological and psychical or mental worlds are all intertwined. Because of knowledge, there are large gaps between physical, biological and mental series. These gaps are a result of ignorance (Smuts, 1925).

Earlier chapters described various change models. As stated earlier, few of these models resonate with organisations today. Data collected confirmed that organisations, by and large, do not apply any model or any type of change methodology when embarking upon change. This confirms one of the fundamental dilemmas of organisational change; - the current models do not work and do not resonate. We thus need to find a different outlook and approach.

The fact that strategy exists implies change (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008). The data undeniably confirmed that strategy does not encompass change and that change does not drive strategy. Furthermore, change methodologies such as the balanced scorecard (Kaplan and Norton, 2005) and the sigmoid curve (Handy, 1995) tend to strategise in terms of the customer and financial perspective, while measuring lag indicators by maintaining reactionary behaviour. Contemporary organisations need to build an innate capacity and capability to adapt easily to change when necessary. Such change has to be generated, instilled and developed at an individual level.

Various models focus on the concept of organisational change. These include Lewin's (1951) three-step model, Tushman and Romanelli's (1985) punctuated equilibrium and Kotter's (1996) eight-step model as discussed in chapter two. However, what seems fundamentally lacking in most of these models is the human element, human reaction to change and methods of effectively managing human stress and trauma in an organisational context. Scharmer's (2007) U-curve and Viljoen-Terblanche's (2008) inclusivity model, as discussed in chapter two, include human reactions to change, but the impact and reality of stress induced as a result of organisational change are disregarded.

Figure 10.1 provides a simplified, adapted version of the U-curve (Scharmer, 2007) as discussed in earlier sections. Given the data findings, coupled with literature, the adapted version takes into account the reality of individual stress as a result of organisational change. Theoretically, given such fear, anxiety and stress, it could be deduced that individuals could remain at the bottom of the curve longer, prolonging the time period prior to exploration.

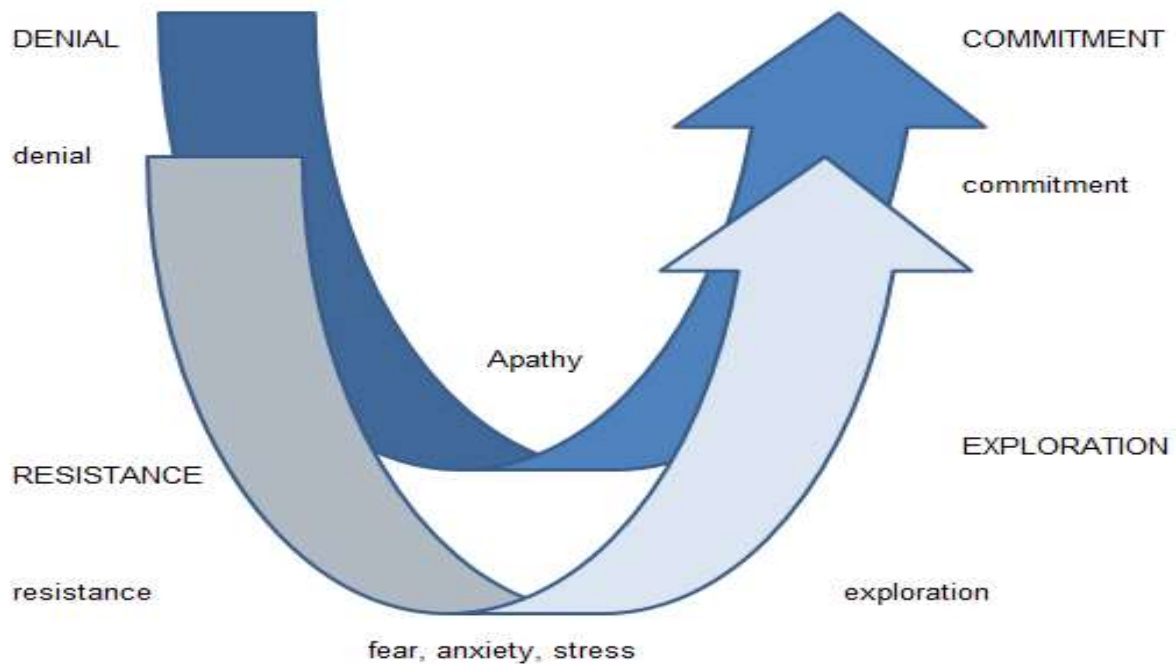


Figure 10.1: U-movement adapted to include the reality of individual stress

Figure 10.1 indicates that increased stress levels could result in deeper denial and resistance. The individual plummets into a state of fear, anxiety and stress, which makes the upward movement towards exploration and commitment that much harder. Given such increased stress levels, the time taken from denial to commitment could be exponentially larger; however, such logical deduction needs to be empirically verified.

Rapid change is the new norm for organisations. Organisations therefore have to be extremely alert, knowing what is going on around them, making sense of new realities and acting accordingly in a rapid fashion (Collins, 2001). Unfortunately, most managers struggle to deal with the resultant complexity and therefore attempt to reduce complex situations to simple ones. The data in this study confirmed and reiterated organisational and managerial inability to deal with the negative outcomes and related behaviours during periods of organisational change.

Organisational change needs to acknowledge human reaction to change as well as the underlying mental models in the organisation (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008). Organisational change is not only an intellectual journey – it is also a spiritual and emotional one (Mbigi, 2000). The emotional, physical and spiritual resources of an

organisation needs to be unlocked to ensure successful and optimal change throughout organisations. New methods thus have to be explored to guide the individual on this complex, multifaceted journey.

#### **10.4 ALTERNATIVE INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES THAT FACILITATE CHANGE**

Current approaches to issues such as anxiety, stress and depression continues to evolve while steadily growing in complexity and sophistication (Shannon, 2001). Yet, in organisations, individuals continue to struggle and suffer. Given the difficulty organisations experience when initiating change, individual's unconscious behaviour requires further attention. Alternative intervention technologies might therefore be appropriate to facilitate sustainable change.

Parallel to the above, people are more complex than any current model fully allows for. Only when we acknowledge that people function simultaneously on many different, interconnected levels (e.g. physical/biological, mental/emotional and spiritual) can we begin to find a solution to this modern dilemma (Shannon, 2001). A new model must therefore allow for the existence of our body-mind-spirit and their inherent interconnectedness. This allows individuals to improve their well-being, while opening us up to a broader vision of human nature (Shannon, 2001).

Studies conducted on plasticity during meditation have shown that the brain can change, based purely on mental training (Lazar, 2009). When relating neuroplasticity to meditation, change takes place rather suddenly in the brain. Habits can be formed in as little as seven days of repeated activity. However, they can dissipate just as quickly (Leaf, 2013). Hence change comes naturally and quickly, but learning a variety of new things as opposed to simply practicing old skills, may be most effective in terms brain structure alterations (Lazar, 2009).

In this section therefore the focus shifts to different intervention technologies that promise to create higher levels of consciousness or awareness of the self as well as insight into the behaviours of others confronted by organisational change. Alternative intervention technology strategies are needed to assist both individuals and leaders to identify and interpret their perceptions of change, which will result in an improved

personal awareness and self-understanding. These intervention technologies may lead to enhanced levels of interpersonal skill.

Personal growth for individuals and leaders alike would probably alter the individuals' and the leaders' perceptions of organisational change. This could, in turn, reduce anxiety and subsequently reduce resistance. The intended outcome is to enable individuals and leaders to take up their role in the organisation to ensure successful and sustainable change.

Given these observations, coupled with the plethora of highly destructive actions taken by business leaders, many of these incomprehensible activities reflect what really goes on in the intra-psychic and interpersonal world of the key players in organisations, below the surface of day-to-day behaviours (Kets de Vries and Engellau, 2011). These authors (2011) urge organisational leaders to recognise and plan for unconscious dynamics that have a significant impact on organisational life. The fact that the organisational individual is not simply a conscious, highly focused maximising machine of pleasures and pains, but also a person subject to many (often contradictory) wishes, fantasies, conflicts, defensive behaviour and anxieties — some conscious, others beyond consciousness — is not a popular perspective.

Also unpopular is the idea that concepts taken from such fields as psychoanalysis, psychodynamic psychotherapy, clinical psychology and dynamic psychiatry might have a place in the world of work. Such concepts are generally rejected out of hand on the grounds that they are too individualistically based, too focused on abnormal behaviour, and (in the case of the psychoanalytic method of investigation) too reliant on self-reported case studies (creating problems of verification) (Kets de Vries and Engellau, 2011).

Reminding ourselves that 60% of the adult population in Africa resides in the PURPLE human niche, our current thinking regarding stress and methods to mitigate it needs to be adapted. Moreover, superstition (Laubscher, 2013) is very real to PURPLE and most likely negatively impacted through organisational change. PURPLE is also scared (Laubscher, 2013). Fear, anxiety, uncertainty and vagueness dominated the data in this study. If current methods were efficient and

effective, these elements would not feature as prominently as they do. Organisations and individuals therefore need to reframe the thinking about interventions.

As Bloom (2010:233) reminds us: “New ways of seeing lead to new ways of being.” People of any age have the ability to learn new things and form new habits (Lazar, 2009). The next section will therefore look at alternative intervention technologies. The objective of such alternative intervention technologies is to assist individuals to alter their perspective on organisational change – to view change in a different light. Organisational change starts at an individual level. Affording individuals the opportunity to alter their perceptions and expand their levels of consciousness could aid organisations to change more successfully.

#### **10.4.1 Why look at spiritual intervention technologies?**

Our world has miraculously been transformed by science and technology, with better and worse results. Scientism consists of a dogmatic commitment to a materialistic philosophy that dismisses and explains away the spiritual, instead of actually examining it carefully while trying to understand it (Tart, 2009). The negative aspect of this transformation is that this material progress has been accompanied by a shift in our belief systems, unhealthy in many ways and often aiding the partial crushing of the human spirit by scientism (Tart, 2009).

“Richness of mind consists in mental receptivity” (Jung, 1959:120). Jung (1971) postulated that in the history of the collective, as in the history of the individual, everything depends on the development of consciousness. Historically, we looked to our religious leaders to understand the meaning of our lives; the nature of our world. Galileo Galilei changed this; as the earth goes around the sun, Galileo succeeded in believing the unbelievable himself, but also convinced almost everyone else to do the same. This was a stunning accomplishment in physics outreach and, with the subsequent work of Isaac Newton, physics joined religion in seeking to explain our place in the Universe (Henry, 2005).

Many hundreds of years ago, Pythagoras displayed a correct understanding of physics (Henry, 2005). The 1925 discovery of quantum mechanics solved the problem of the nature of the universe. Bright physicists were again led to believe the

unbelievable — this time that the universe is mental and the stream of knowledge is heading towards a non-mechanical reality; the universe begins to look more like a great thought than like a great machine. Mind no longer appears to be an accidental intruder into the realm of matter. We should hail it as the creator and governor of the realm of matter. But physicists have not yet followed Galileo's example, and convinced every-one of the wonders of quantum mechanics. According to Eddington (Henry, 2005), it is difficult for the matter-of-fact physicist to accept the view that the substratum of everything is of mental character. Unfortunately, the more recent physics revolution of the past 80 years has yet to transform general public understanding in a similar way.

Physicists shy away from the truth because the truth is alien to everyday physics. A common way to evade the mental universe is to invoke de-coherence - the notion that the physical environment is sufficient to create reality, independent of the human mind (Henry, 2005). However, precisely because civilisation must advance beyond superstition, we are obliged to carefully explore that which is beyond mere existence (Radin, 2013).

“The voice of the wind is the whisper of the spirit, the breath of life. It sings to the heart, in a language that the scientific mind is not trained to comprehend. It murmurs in inscrutable enigmas and archetypal symbols, arousing a sense of wonder and a longing for understanding” (Dunne and Jahn, 2005:703). Science attempts to measure the physical magnitude and regularity of the wind's velocity, to determine its direction or to ascertain its implications for tomorrow's weather, but generally fails to hear its sublime harmony or grasp its profound message. On rare occasions, when the analytical mind is still, the heart of the scientist may vaguely sense the wind's mystery, but the challenges of its translation and response seem insurmountable, and so the mind dismisses it as unworthy of scholarly attention. Yet, throughout human history, it is this whisper of the spirit that has moved many who have heard it to deep contemplation of their role in the creation of reality (Dunne and Jahn, 2005).

Forty thousand years ago, primitive peoples believed that destiny could be revealed by casting bones or influenced by sacrifice and prayer (Radin, 1956; Watson, 1988). It appears that astragalomancy (divination by dice) was universally employed in



ancient times, with evidence of casting lots, ranging from African tribes to the Inuit and the Mayans. The related concepts of chance and destiny play a significant role in the beliefs of early peoples, as reflected, for example, in Siva, the Hindu god of a thousand names, who is portrayed in some statues as determining the fate of humankind by throwing dice (Harvie, 1963).

Although artists have always applied their respective tools to express the subjective dimensions of human experience, there is evidence that long before the establishment of formal scientific methodology, analytical scholars recognised the essential interplay between the human mind and the mystical basis of mathematics. Socrates' Academy postulated that the road to understanding the physical world proceeded via self-knowledge. Early alchemists embraced breath as the mediating agent between that which is above and that which is below. Yet, over the past several hundred years, as science became increasingly committed to its objectification of nature, inner experiences were progressively excluded from this view. Those drawn to explore the role of consciousness in the physical world have been derided as mystics and disqualified from membership in the scientific community. Despite the extensive evidence that many of the greatest scientific minds maintained a deep interest in such matters, even their writings on this subject have often been ridiculed or dismissed as eccentric flights of fancy (Dunne and Jahn, 2005). Mainstream cognitive neuroscience typically ignores the role of quantum physical effects in the neural processes underlying cognition and consciousness. However, many unsolved problems remain, suggesting the need to consider new approaches (Hiley and Pylkkänen, 2005).

Spirits, ancestors, the family, and their interrelatedness and relationship with nature identify PURPLE. For PURPLE, everyone is part of a bigger system, and elements like the earth, plants, stars, moon and sun have spirit. The seasons of the earth are celebrated through rituals as the rhythms of nature which directly impact the living experience in PURPLE. A very sacred or magical existence is the result of this thinking system. Ritual is the order of the day (Laubscher, 2013). Here subjectivity is deeply impressed, myths refer to something psychic, knowledge of nature is essentially the language and outer dress of an unconscious psychic process (Jung, 1959).



All across Southern Africa, including South Africa, the traditional healing practices of sangomas are still used and respected. Traditional healers fulfil different roles including healing of physical, emotional and spiritual illnesses, and directing rituals, narrating history, cosmology and myths (Arden, 1996). Sangomas are also regarded as fortune tellers and herbal specialists; they prepare muthi, making extensive use of botanical, zoological or mineral products (Van Wyk, Van Oudtshoorn & Gericke, 1999). Traditional healers or sangomas summon ancestors by burning sacred plants, dancing, chanting, channelling or playing drums. Traditional healers supplement the advice from an ancestral spirit with their own knowledge, training and experience (Van Wyk, *et al.*, 1999).

African culture (as mostly PURPLE societies) differentiates clearly between a sangoma and a witch. Sangomas are keepers of the old ways and old stories. They are healers. Witches are viewed as inherently evil. Their powers are inherited, but form part of their organic constitution, and are psychic. The popular belief is that their souls fly around at night to devour people, and that they are projections of hostility along lines of tension in the social structure (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014).

To PURPLE, the belief in magic makes it easier to account for misfortune. Appropriate rituals allow people to take action of some sort in the face of uncertainty. Magic has two sides - black and white. Black magic is secret and antisocial, whereas white magic makes the unknown accessible to everyday life. There are diviners who use mechanical aids (like bones, sticks, shells, leaves, coins, birds and fatty intestines) and those who do not. Diviners typically have herbal knowledge (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014).

In the last decade, there has been a tremendous increase in scientific interest in the relations between religion/spirituality and health. This trend may be viewed as part of a larger movement to examine grass-roots medicine or what is commonly identified in the medical and scientific communities as complementary and alternative medicine (Masters and Spielmans, 2007).

All living systems straddle the consciousness-imposed divide between the realms of subjective and objective, embodying a complementary dynamic of self/not-self in

their essential exchanges of environmental information. Survival of the individual demands a degree of flexibility in the course of adaptation that is afforded by the intrinsic uncertainty in their interactions with random processes, and may even be enhanced by their exercise of some degree of volition to achieve an optimal outcome. Living systems embody the rich complexity that makes them capable of self-reference; allowing them to generate an uncertainty which limits the precision with which they can represent themselves (Dunne and Jahn, 2005).

Unfortunately group experiences occur at a lower level of consciousness than individual experiences because the total psyche which emerges from the group is below the level of the individual psyche. The larger the group, the more it becomes like the psyche of an animal. Hence the ethical attitude of large organisations is doubtful (Jung, 1959). We therefore need to consciously attempt to uplift both the individual and group consciousness, through alternative intervention technologies.

The causes of behaviours, personality and consciousness are increasingly sought in localised brain areas and genes, and nowhere else - “there is nothing more, no magic, no additional components to account for every thought, each perception and emotion, all our memories, our personality, fears, loves and curiosities” (O’Shea, 2008:12). Accompanying this is a widespread attempt to erase views of the mind that are occult or immeasurable (Dennett, 1978; Rorty 1979).

However, there is enough evidence to demonstrate that this dominant view is incomplete or even false. The central problem is the relationship between the private subjective first person inner world and the outer, objective third person world of physiological events and processes in the body and brain. A far more inclusive theory is needed to accommodate the full range of human experiences, which includes rogue phenomena like psi effects, mind-body interaction, mystic experience and others (Kelly, *et al.*, 2007). Given this knowledge, applicable, alternative intervention technologies need to be integrated into Western practices and traditional organisational literature.

#### **10.4.2 What are spiritual intervention technologies?**

The study of psychic phenomena is as old as humankind (Ebon, 1964). Mortal humans has long pondered the supernatural in one form or another. Cave drawings at Altamira, circa 20 000 BC reflect such a preoccupation and the religious sites of early societies in both East and West were heavily loaded with psychic formalisms. The classic civilisations of Egypt, Greece and Rome dealt extensively in the psychic process, the Delphic Oracle being a point in case. Virtually all religions have been laced with various forms of psychic mechanism (Jahn, 1982).

Psychic phenomena (frequently denoted by psi or  $\psi$ ) include all processes of information and/or energy exchange which involve animate consciousness in a manner not currently explicable in terms of known science. Psychic research implies any scholarly study of such phenomena employing scientific methodology, as opposed to dogmatic, ritualistic or theological approaches (Jahn, 1982).

Following Jahn's (1982) definition, the field may then be divided into two major categories, namely extrasensory perception (ESP) and psychokinesis (PK). ESP generally refers to the acquisition of information from sources blocked from ordinary perception and includes subdivisions such as telepathy, clairvoyance, precognition and retro-cognition, and animal ESP, which encompasses homing, psi-trailing, collective behaviour and communication (Jahn, 1982). PK refers to a palpable influence of consciousness on a physical or biological system. In the physical realm, PK interaction may range from microscopic disturbance of atomic-level processes, through to macroscopic distortion or levitation of objects. Psychic healing and human-plant interactions would encompass PK in biological systems (Jahn, 1982).

Other domains of psychic research would include out-of-body experiences (OBE), including astral projection, autoscopy and bilocation (Jahn, 1982). Frontier medicine has been defined as therapies for which there is no plausible biomedical explanation. Examples of such include bio-electromagnetic therapy, bio-field and energy healing, homoeopathy and therapeutic prayer (Krucoff, *et al.*, 2005), as well as kinesiology and trauma releasing. Table 9.1 summarises some of these categories.

The researcher suggested the inclusion of post-cognition because of the realness of the past to the PURPLE human niche. The categories in table 10.1 are neither unique nor exclusive; elements of one category may frequently appear in the context of another category. However, this subdivision illustrates the many alternative possibilities which may be investigated and applied to shift individual consciousness, which, in turn, could shift perceptions of change and the ability of individuals to engage fully in the change process. Noetic science involves meditation, chakra healing and noetic intervention technologies, while general intervention technologies incorporate music, chanting and juggling, which will be discussed in chapter eleven. Physical/body-based interventions will be discussed in chapter twelve.

Table 10.1: Categories of alternative possibilities (adapted from Jahn, 1982)

Major division	Subdivision
Extrasensory perception (ESP)	Telepathy
	Clairvoyance
	Precognition
	Retro-cognition
	Animal ESP
	**Post cognition
Psychokinesis (PK)	Physical and biological systems
Survival	Reincarnation
	Apparitions
	Medium-ship
Out-of-body experiences	Out-of-body experiences
Frontier medicine	Bio-electromagnetic therapy and bio field healing
	Energy healing
	Homoeopathy
	Therapeutic prayer
	Kinesiology
	Heart math
	Trauma release
Healing at a distance	Prayer
	Spiritual healing

Major division	Subdivision
Noetic science	Meditation
	Noetic interventions (music, imagery, and touch)
	Chakra healing
General	Music
	Chanting
	Juggling

Table 10.1 indicates the major division of alternative intervention technology possibilities. These possibilities include extrasensory perception, psychokinesis, survival, out-of-body experiences, frontier medicine, healing at a distance, noetic science and general intervention technologies. Extrasensory perception includes telepathy and precognition. These technologies have not yet found their way into traditional organisational theory.

### 10.5 FURTHER USE OF LITERATURE IN THIS STUDY

As discussed in chapter one, section 1.7, to ensure that the researcher entered the research area with some knowledge of the phenomenon under study, a Straussian approach to literature was adopted. Such a literature review provided for clarity of thought and discovery of the contours of the existing knowledge base, and raised awareness of possible pitfalls (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

On completion of the analysis of the research data, the researcher reverted back to the literature to validate, substantiate or refute themes as they emerged from the data. The research findings, research analysis and integration of research findings were dominated by human emotions and stress, coupled with the reality of different thinking systems or worldviews. Thus, subsequent to the research findings, research analysis and integration of research findings, the researcher still perceived something to be missing.

The researcher therefore returned to literature following the research data. The intention was to explore well-documented and well-researched alternative intervention technologies which have not found their way into traditional organisational change literature, but which could help individuals to reduce stress,

fear and anxiety, while developing consciousness, in order to improve individual engagement with a change initiative.

## **10.6 CONCLUSION**

This chapter debated the requirement of new paradigms of thought and applicability in order to improve individual consciousness while reducing individual stress levels. At an individual, team and organisational level, such new paradigms may assist individuals and leaders to make a significant contribution to organisational change. Integrating an alternative, multifaceted approach towards organisational change, applicable to different human niches, could help with individual adaptability, flexibility and eventual individual vicissitude.

The next chapter discusses spiritual intervention technologies which can be used to promote successful organisational change. The intention of these alternative intervention technologies is to help increase individual consciousness and lower individual stress levels to ensure improved organisational change.

## **CHAPTER 11: SPIRITUAL AND OTHER INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES FOR SUCCESSFUL ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE**

### **11.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter focuses on spiritual and other intervention technologies. Watson (1913) changed psychology to no longer be a science of mental life; instead it was to become the science of behaviour, never using the terms consciousness, mental states, mind, content, introspectively verifiable and imagery. According to him (1913), the task of psychology was to identify lawful relationships between stimuli and responses, largely abandoning the first-person perspective trying to understand things from within.

Popper (1935) argued that substantial scientific progress can only be obtained through the rejection of theories. Our concepts of change cry out for an upgrade and an overhaul. Hence, this chapter will discuss alternative, spiritual intervention technologies which allow us to hear different voices and opinions. Different opinions and voices should be encouraged, allowing individuals and groups a safe space where authenticity can grow and flourish. This, in turn, may assist individuals and leaders to view their own interaction with and towards organisational change from a different perspective.

The safe space created by these techniques affords individuals the opportunity to become vulnerable, to expose their development areas and to explore, reveal and adjust their defence mechanisms. These alternative intervention technologies allow individual exposure, which in itself creates a space for personal development.

The intervention technologies described below dates from the most recent global methodologies to the most ancient, and might require leaders to embark upon a quantum leap of thinking while making unpopular or nontraditional decisions. However, these intervention technologies all have the potential to contribute to sustainable organisational change.

The spiritual intervention technologies of healing at a distance, telepathy, consciousness development, precognition, mind-matter interaction, music and other

approaches will be discussed in this chapter. The objective is to explore and explain the ways in which sustainable organisational change may be created.

## **11.2 SPIRITUAL INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES**

A human being is like a mask and possesses a masklike dimension of the visible exterior that conceals an interior soul or spirit which constitutes the person's being and essence. The Yoruba metaphor of the inner spirit head (ori inu) and the outside physical head (ori ode) represent two interconnected realms in human beings (Olupona, s.a.).

Spiritual intervention techniques which can be applied during organisational change to facilitate individual vicissitude, and which may therefore aid towards improved organisational change success will thus be investigated. These intervention technologies attempt to raise levels of individual consciousness and increase awareness on the self, resulting in increased insight into the behaviours of others confronted by organisational change. These interventions may also lead to enhanced levels of interpersonal skill, while allowing the possibility of altered perceptions.

Personal growth and development are likely to alter the individual's and the leader's perception of others as well as of organisational change, thereby reducing resistance levels. The intended outcome is to promote effective leadership to create a conducive climate, which includes diversity of thought (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008) in order to enhance organisational change.

### **11.2.1 Healing at a distance**

Distant healing, including prayer, is one of the most popular alternative healing modalities and perhaps the most contentious from a scientific perspective (Wallis, 1996). Diverse cultural origins and philosophical assumptions have produced a panoply of different distant healing techniques. However, they all share the assumption that one person's mind can affect another person's body and mind at a distance (Schlitz, Radin, Malle, Schmidt, Utts & Young, 2003).



Healing at a distance does not necessarily imply any particular belief in or referral to a deity or higher power. Distant/distance healing encompasses spiritual healing, prayer and their various derivatives, and has been defined as a conscious, dedicated act of meditation which attempts to benefit another person's physical or emotional well-being at a distance (Sicher, Targ, Moore & Smith, 1998). According to Astin, Harkness & Ernst (2000), distant healing includes strategies that purport to heal through some exchange or channelling of supra-physical energy. Such approaches include therapeutic touch, Reiki healing and external qigong.

Although they do not necessitate actual physical contact, these healing techniques usually involve close physical proximity between practitioner and client. Distant healing also includes approaches commonly referred to as prayer. Prayer, whether directed towards health-related matters or other areas of life, includes several variants: intercessory prayer (asking God, the universe, or some higher power to intervene on behalf of an individual or client); supplication (asking for a particular outcome); and non-directed prayer (in which one does not request any specific outcome) (Astin, *et al.*, 2000).

Whether prayer should be conceptualised as an alternative medical intervention has become a topic of discussion. From certain vantage points, prayer clearly fits under this umbrella because it is central to the value and philosophic systems of many individuals across a variety of faiths and cultures (Masters and Spielmans, 2007). Implicit in the discussion of prayer is the concept of prayer used as a way of coping with negative or stressful life events. Several hypotheses are plausible. Perhaps individuals who turn to prayer as a way of coping could be characterised as engaging in a passive coping process. However, such a passive coping process fails to utilise more active or direct coping strategies which in many instances might prove more effective at alleviating distress. Alternatively, selective use of prayer, as a coping strategy, might suggest that prayer is effectively used for coping with relatively uncontrollable stressors. Moreover, those individuals who pray to God gain relief from the stress associated with these events and at the same time are capable of more directly addressing stressors that are amenable to amelioration (Masters and Spielmans, 2007).

There is a growing interest in the scientific community to study different forms of distant healing intentionality. Astin, *et al.*, (2000) found more than 100 clinical trials of distant healing, of which 23 studies met their inclusion criteria. The principal exclusion reasons were lack of randomisation, no adequate placebo condition, use of nonhuman experimental subjects or nonclinical populations, and not being published in peer-reviewed journals. Astin, *et al.*'s (2000) research found that 57% of the randomised, placebo-controlled trials of distant healing showed a positive treatment effect.

Achterberg, Cooke, Richards, Standish, Kozak & Lake (2005) use the term “distant intentionality” to subsume prayer, energy healing, healing at a distance, spiritual healing, therapeutic or healing touch, transpersonal imagery, remote mental healing and other practices based on putative connection in the absence of mechanisms of sensory contact. However, the weak design of many of these studies was of concern to Achterberg, *et al.*, (2005). They therefore determined whether brain changes may be measured using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) in the recipients of distant intentionality. Their research revealed significant activation in several areas of the brain, especially the anterior cingulate cortex and frontal superior areas (Achterberg, *et al.*, 2005). These findings support previous research on distant healing, suggesting that human intentions may directly affect others in ways that are not entirely understood (Achterberg, *et al.*, 2005).

In an organisational context, we know that stress is rife. Using the concept of prayer may afford individuals a way of coping with negative or stressful life events by engaging in such a passive coping process. Such engagement can improve an individual's perception of control. Through engagement, albeit passive, an individual is able to take control of a stressful situation. Using the process of prayer, individuals can more effectively cope with otherwise uncontrollable stressors. The behaviour of individuals who feel in control would most likely reflect this, resulting in improved ability and capacity during times of organisational change.

Healing by intention (HI) or bioenergy healing has been around for millennia, taking the form of spiritual healing, prayer, shamanism and ritual, using focused intention for the purpose of restoring order and for alleviating suffering and distress (Crawford,

Jonas, Nelson, Wirkus & Wirkus, 2003). Shamanism is perhaps the oldest tradition associated with the deliberate evocation of mystical experience (Radin, 2013). Barre (1979) emphasised the ancient importance of shamanism by noting that the typical interpretation of the world's oldest profession was not prostitution, but shamanism. Other methods developed by shamans included music, dancing, controlled breathing, drumming, fasting, breathing intoxicating vapours and meditation (Barre, 1979).

Healers claim to use their energy or spiritual forces to return clients to a state of homeostasis and improved health. The value of HI has not been unequivocally established, but many clients have reported to benefit from healing sessions. Furthermore, there are a handful of randomised clinical trials suggesting HI to be helpful under certain conditions (Astin, *et al.*, 2000). By contrast, praying for oneself may be regarded as a reasonable coping mechanism in the face of uncertainty and dire need (Radin, 2013).

Recent research has attempted to determine whether alterations in random events, as measured by a random event generator (REG), occur in association with a bioenergy healing practice (Crawford, *et al.*, 2003). Research has shown that REGs of various types are influenced by individual intention and during cohesive group activity. A total of 515 experiments published in 215 articles by 91 different first authors indicate that there are ways in which mind and matter directly interact to alter such random systems (Radin and Nelson, 1989). In addition, it has been shown that coherent activities of groups such as during Princess Diana's funeral or the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks were also associated with altered REG excursions (Radin and Nelson, 1989). Research by Schmidt (2012) supports the hypothesis of the positive effect of benevolent intentions.

In a database of approximately 80 independent applications, group activities categorised as resonant and characterised by deep engagement, show a significant tendency to depart from expected random number variation ( $p = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ ), compared to data taken in mundane situations, which show no significant deviation (Radin and Nelson, 1989). According to them (1989), deviations from chance in REG measurements reflect a change in entropy associated with the healer's environment.

If a decrease in entropy occurs in a healing space, this could be a mechanism for increased homeostasis. Crawford, *et al.*, (2003) found that an REG deviates from chance significantly more in the office of a bioenergy healer than in a library. This deviation is consistent, having been observed in three independent data sets each collected several months apart. This implies that alterations in entropy are occurring more often in the healing environment.

Since there are no known biological processes that can account for the significant effect of the distant healing intentionality protocol, such studies may be interpreted as being consistent with the idea of entanglement in quantum mechanics theory (Einstein, Podolsky & Rosen, 1935). Entanglement has been confirmed to occur between photons, and many have speculated that certain highly organised macroscopic systems, including the brain, exhibit the property of entanglement with other complex systems. Evidence was found for nonlocal connections between separated preparations of human neurons (Pizzi, Fantasia, Gelain, Rossetti & Vescovi, 2004). These findings do not fit the classic model of physics and can be interpreted as being consistent with entanglement at macroscopic level.

Human intentions may directly affect others in ways which are not entirely understood (Achterberg, *et al.*, 2005). PURPLE already knows this. PURPLE is acutely aware of this interconnectedness with other. This interconnectedness might refer to the concept of Ubuntu. This is important from a leadership perspective. Acknowledging this interconnectedness and working within a concept of relatedness, will improve trust, understanding and general well-being in the organisation, especially for PURPLE. The spirit of PURPLE needs this interconnectedness in order to flourish. The spirit of PURPLE needs to be engaged in the organisation. Through increased interconnectedness, stress might be reduced, coping improved and perceptions altered, all of which may contribute towards individual vicissitude.

### **11.2.2 Physiological correlations at a distance**

Our ideal is a universal one. We are not merely moving towards the fulfilment of a national ideal or international purpose, but a universal realisation. The universe is beckoning us from inside - it is not outside us. The universe is in our hearts; the

absolute is the only reality as everything is everywhere at every time (Swami Krishnananda, 2014).

In the context of organisational change and leadership, the researcher accepted the *Oxford universal dictionary illustrated* (1959:1426) definition of the prefix para to mean “by the side of, beside, alongside of, by”. In the literature, many aspects of physics, from electromagnetic radiation to neutrinos and tachyons, have been proposed as being responsible for the mediation of paranormal phenomena (Houtkooper, 2002). Since 1955, a series of studies have reported correlations between the EEGs (electroencephalogram) of spatially separated subjects. In these experiments, pairs of subjects were prevented from interacting via known physiological or physical mechanisms. Consequently, the findings have often been discussed in terms of direct brain-to-brain communication (Charman, 2006).

When two brains interact, peculiar effects are observed that closely resemble those observed in elementary particles. Interaction correlates objects, and a measurement on one component of a correlated state collapses the other component as well, even at a distance (Grinberg-Zylberbaum, Delaflor, Attie & Goswami, 1994).

The fact that the human brain may contain a quantum system in addition to its classical neuronal system is an old idea (Walker, 1970; Bass, 1984; Eccles, 1986; Goswami, 1990). Conventional theory says that the synaptic transmission must be due to a chemical change. The evidence for this is somewhat circumstantial and was challenged by Walker (1970) in favour of a quantum mechanical process. Walker (1970) believed that the synaptic cleft is so small that quantum tunnelling may play a crucial role in the transmission of nerve signals. Eccles (1986) discussed a similar mechanism for invoking the quantum in the brain.

Einstein, *et al.* (1935) criticised quantum mechanics, claiming that if it were a complete model of reality, then nonlocal interactions between particles had to exist. Since that was impossible, quantum mechanics had to be either wrong or at least incomplete. This critique is known as the EPR (Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen) paradox (Grinberg-Zylberbaum, *et al.*, 1994). For almost half a century, the EPR paradox remained without experimental tests, until Aspect, Dalibard & Roger (1982)

experimentally verified that nonlocal influences between particles indeed exist once these particles have interacted.

According to Grinberg-Zylberbaum's (1988), synergic theory, the conjugated activity of all neuronal elements of a working brain forms an interaction matrix called the neuronal field which represents the effect of quantum measurement by the measurement apparatus of the brain. The neuronal field is the manifestation upon measurement of the state of the quantum system of the brain that exists in potential before measurement. This neuronal field is indicated locally in EEG readings. There are already some indications that the EPR correlation may also occur at more complex levels (such as the human brain). Changes have been shown in the inter-hemispheric coherence of individual subjects who were located in a soundproof Faraday chamber while a meditation session was being held at a distance by a group of subjects (Bass, 1975).

Research by Grinberg-Zylberbaum, *et al.* (1994) indicated that the human brain is capable of establishing close relationships with other brains (when it interacts with them appropriately) and may sustain such an interaction even at a distance. Our results cannot be explained as due to sensory communication between subjects or as due to low frequency EEG (electroencephalogram) chance correspondence. Hence, neither sensory stimuli nor electromagnetic signals may be the means of communication. Grinberg-Zylberbaum, *et al.* (1994) added that local signals are always attenuated, and the absence of attenuation is a sure signature of nonlocality. The phenomenon we are dealing with is the action of nonlocal collapse of the wave function of a unified system and not the result of a transmission using local signals from one brain to the other. Grinberg-Zylberbaum, *et al.* (1994) coined the term “transferred potentials” for the observation of correlations between the EEGs of two spatially separated subjects of whom only one was visually stimulated.

Standish, Kozak, Johnson & Richards (2004) and Radin (2003a, 2003b, 2004) found correlations between brain electrical activities of distant human brains. Previous studies reported correlations between the EEGs of two spatially separated subjects. These correlations could not be explained by means of conventional physiological or physical mechanisms. The results (Wackermann, 2004; Wackermann, Naranjo,

Muradás & Püts, 2004) suggest such unexplained correlations, with the direction (increase or decrease of EEG power) as well as the localisation (electrode position) of the supposed effects varying between studies.

People in the workplace are connected. In times of change, these connections can act as foundations. With strong foundations, the impact of change can be altered. Sharing feelings, kindness and compassion may improve relatedness. The impact of leader empathy and thoughts is also reiterated through this connectivity. PURPLE needs to belong. Enhancing a feeling of belonging among subordinates and between leader and subordinate may have the potential to mitigate some of the negativities associated with organisational change.

Distant intentions (Braud, 2003; Radin and Schlitz, 2005; Richards, Kozak, Johnson & Standish, 2005; Schlitz, *et al.*, 2003; Achterberg, *et al.*, 2005) can be seen as the basic underlying procedures of more formal practices of distant healing (Schmidt, 2012). In the workplace, little intentional acts such as sending mentally good wishes for recovery to a suffering subordinate, keeping one's fingers crossed when an employee faces a difficult examination, or mentally cultivating a positive image of a beloved person while being separated are but a few examples of a wider group of behaviours relating to distant intentions.

A leader's thoughts have a frequency and are magnetic (Hanson, 2004) and determine the nature of communications that are emitted (Hicks and Hicks, 2006). Understanding empathy, being able to share, sympathise, understand and experience another person's emotional state have been explained through the concept of mirror neurons (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013). Our brains are connected (Charman, 2006; Radin, 2003a, 2003b, 2004).

People in the workplace are connected with roots hard-wired in the brain (Iacoboni and McHaney, 2013). Times of change require meaningful responses, quality and versatile leadership, sensitivity and creativity as well as thoughts and feelings to address the adjustments needed by individuals affected in the organisational arena (Thornton, 2009). This requires more humanistic approaches. Tapping into the possibilities of physiological correlations at a distance may improve our



interconnectedness which, in turn, may alter negative perceptions, aiding the development of trustful relationships. Altered perceptions, trust and meaningful relationships may form a strong foundation during times of organisational change.

### **11.2.3 Consciousness development**

In recent decades, mind and consciousness again became a focus of scholarly research after half a century of psychology with a more behavioural approach (Blackmore, 2004). Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) urged that improved consciousness would result in improved organisations. Remarkably, it remains difficult to define for scientific usage what these terms mean. Furthermore, we do not share a common understanding of consciousness, the mind, brain activity and whether mind can directly affect the physical world (Nelson and Bancel, 2011).

The father of quantum theory (Planck, 1931) states that consciousness is fundamental, regarding matter as deriving from consciousness. Although we cannot get behind consciousness, everything we talk about, everything we regard as existing, postulates consciousness (Planck, 1931). Contemporary science typically considers consciousness to be an implicit function of brain physiology, focusing on how consciousness arises, more than how it might impinge on or affect its environment (Broughton, 1992; Irwin and Watt, 2006).

Consciousness development offers a unique window into the nature of consciousness by proposing direct manifestations of consciousness in the physical world. Evidence of such effects has been gathered under controlled conditions and the evidence raises puzzling questions (Nelson and Bancel, 2011). Research by Radin and Nelson (1989) found it difficult to avoid drawing the conclusion that under certain circumstances, consciousness interacts with random physical systems.

Research by Nelson and Bancel (2011) suggests that some aspect of consciousness may be a source of anomalous effects in the material world. Jung used the term “collective unconscious”, inferring a collective consciousness into which all individuals everywhere can tap. Vernadsky used the term “noosphere” (Eric, 2000) to denote the sphere of human thought as a distinct realm that shapes the physical world and the life-forms that inhabit it. The noosphere is global and the vibrations of



fear and violence are powerful and mostly unconscious. The antidote is a conscious, mindful strengthening of the collective field of love, healing and transformation. Thus, individually and collectively, we have the ability to effect transformation (Eric, 2000).

According to Some (2014), the West is not trained to deal with or acknowledge the existence of psychic phenomena or the spiritual world. The West denigrates psychic abilities. Heavy doses of anti-psychotic drugs compound the problem and prevent the integration that could lead to soul development and growth in the individual who has received these energies (Some, 2014). This can be translated into Western BLUE, which does not understand PURPLE. BLUE wants to solve all problems according to its own agenda. Such methods do not always relate to PURPLE because PURPLE struggles to understand the meaning behind BLUE actions.

Hawkins (2005) developed a map of the levels of human consciousness (LOC) using a muscle-testing technique called applied kinesiology (AK) to document the nonlinear, spiritual realm. Each LOC coincides with determinable human behaviours and life perceptions; representing a corresponding attractor field of varying strength that exists beyond our three-dimensional reality. The numbers on the scale represent logarithmic calibrations (measurable vibratory frequencies on a scale which increases to the tenth power) of the levels of human consciousness and its corresponding level of reality. The numbers themselves are arbitrary, but the significance lies in the relationship of one number (or level) to another (Hawkins, 2005, 2009).

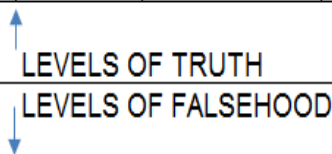
Applied Kinesiology (AK) or muscle testing (Goodheart, 2008) uncovers what is going on in the body while determining whether or not a specific remedy would be beneficial. By testing the instantaneous response of a particular muscle, AK practitioners are able to more clearly navigate the complexities of the human body; if a tested muscle stayed strong, a substance was good for the body, and if it went weak, it was not (Goodheart, 2008). This work was further extended through the discovery that different images, paintings, music, games and material affect the body which was termed “behavioural kinesiology (BK)” He (1989) discovered that classical music makes people become strong, while rap music makes everyone become weak. Similarly, synthetic clothing makes one weak and natural fibres make one

strong. The implications of BK were profound. Everything we interact with either strengthens or weakens our life energy.

According to the levels of consciousness (LOC) map, the two greatest spiritual growth barriers are at level 200 and 500. The level of courage (200) represents a profound shift from destructive and harmful behaviour to life-promoting and integral lifestyles; everything below 200 makes one become weak using kinesiology. Currently, approximately 78% of the world’s population is below this significant level. The destructive capacity of this majority drags down all of humankind without the counterbalancing effect of the 22% above 200. Because the scale of consciousness is logarithmic, each incremental point represents a giant leap in power. Thus, one person calibrated at 500 counterbalances the negativity of 10 million people below 200 (Hawkins, 2005). This is indicated in table 11.1.

Table 11.1: Map of Consciousness (Hawkins, 2005, 2009:s.a.)

God-View	Self-View	Level	Log	Emotion	Process
Self	Is	Enlightenment	700-1000	Ineffable	Pure Consciousness
All-being	Perfect	Peace	600	Bliss	Illumination
One	Complete	Joy	540	Serenity	Transfiguration
Loving	Benign	Love	500	Reverence	Revelation
Wise	Meaningful	Reason	400	Understanding	Abstraction
Merciful	Harmonious	Acceptance	350	Forgiveness	Transcendence
Inspiring	Hopeful	Willingness	310	Optimism	Intention
Enabling	Satisfactory	Neutrality	250	Trust	Release
Permitting	Feasible	Courage	200	Affirmation	Empowerment



God-View	Self-View	Level	Log	Emotion	Process
Indifferent	Demanding	Pride	175	Scorn	Inflation
Vengeful	Antagonistic	Anger	150	Hate	Aggression
Denying	Disappointing	Desire	125	Craving	Enslavement
Punitive	Frightening	Fear	100	Anxiety	Withdrawal
Uncaring	Tragic	Grief	75	Regret	Despondency
Condemning	Hopeless	Apathy	50	Despair	Abdication
Vindictive	Evil	Guilt	30	Blame	Destruction
Despising	Hateful	Shame	20	Humiliation	Elimination

Table 11.1 indicates the second great barrier as love (level 500). Love in this context is a way of being in the world and is difficult to achieve because our ego is rooted in the physical domain as opposed to the spiritual domain, which emerges at 500. The 400s represent the level of reason, guided by the linear, mechanistic world of form (our modern society which includes advancements in medicine, science and government). The 500s represent an extremely difficult hurdle with only 4% of the world's population calibrating in this region. This level denotes a shift from the linear, provable domain (classic or Newtonian physics) to the nonlinear, formless, spiritual realm (Hawkins, 2005).

For individuals subjected to organisational change, emotions such as indifference, fright, hopelessness, guilt, grief, anger, anxiety and enslavement are prominent. These feelings range from 30 (guilt), to 50 (hopeless), to 75 and 100 respectively for grief and fear. This clearly indicates that levels of falsehood are dominant during times of organisational change. The effects of organisational change render individuals weak and hamper individual ability to fully participate in the required changes. Harmful or non-behaviour results. The collected data in this research predominantly indicated levels of falsehood. According to table 11.1, these emotions all fall below 200, and confirm why the collected data revealed processes such as aggression, withdrawal, despondency and abdication.

Hawkins (2005) divides these levels into positive energy-giving levels and negative energy-taking levels, as displayed in table 11.1. The negative levels from the lowest to the highest are shame, guilt, apathy, grief, fear, desire, anger and pride (all emotions reported in the data). The positive levels are courage, neutrality, willingness, acceptance, reason, love, joy, peace and enlightenment (none of these emotions were reported in the data).

According to table 11.1, shame is one step above death, with humiliation as the primary emotion. Suicidal thoughts and sufferers of sexual abuse are found at this level. Just above shame is guilt, with overriding feelings of worthlessness and the inability to forgive oneself. Apathy follows - hopelessness and despair as found among the homeless and poor. This state is characterised by numbness to life. Then grief follows, which is characterised by constant regret and remorse where all

opportunities have passed and one feels a complete failure. Fear follows, where people involved in an abusive relationship often find themselves. There is a sense of paranoia, suspicion and defensiveness here. Desire motivates much of society, but is driven by enslavement to sex, money, prestige or power. Unfulfilled desire leads to frustration and anger, which is followed by pride (Hawkins, 2005). According to Hawkins (2005), the majority of people are below pride, which is the point most people aspire to. In comparison with shame and guilt, here people start to feel positive. However, this is a false positive which depends upon external conditions such as wealth, position or power. Pride is also the source of racism, nationalism and religious fanaticism (Hawkins, 2005). One should note here that many of these emotions are similar (if not identical) to trauma and/or stress responses.

Table 11.1 indicates courage as the first level of empowerment where life energy is not taken from those around one. Here one realises that each individual is in charge of his or her own growth and success – everyone has the potential to choose how to respond which makes each one of us inherently human. Neutrality is the level of flexibility and unattachment, satisfaction with current life conditions and a lack of motivation towards self-improvement. Willingness sees life as a possibility, and complacency disappears as self-discipline and perseverance develop. In acceptance, one is the creator of one's life experiences, awakening potential through action, achievement of goals and pro-activeness. Reason is the level of science, medicine and a desire for knowledge - an insatiable thirst for knowledge. Paradoxically, reason can become a stumbling block for further progressions of consciousness. If, in the level of reason, one sees oneself as having the potential for the greater good of humankind, one can enter love, reasoning with the heart rather than the mind. Living by intuition, this is the level of charity (Hawkins, 2005).

It seems extremely concerning that no emotions relating to levels of truth were mentioned in this study. Participants said there was no trust. Also, little or no understanding was reported. Nobody felt optimistic or inspired, and not feeling meaningful featured. No emotions in the levels of truth range were mentioned. It seems clear that optimal change and optimal organisational performance remain elusive until such time as one is able to elevate one's consciousness to higher levels.

Consciousness is like a lens through which we view reality. While the object you are viewing can remain the same, having a different consciousness level causes those outputs to be widely different (Celes, 2009). Hawkins (2005) argues that everything around us can affect our LOC. It is perceived that the manner in which organisational change is currently conducted, affects the LOC negatively for both individuals and groups.

According to Hawkins (2005), a person's LOC remains rather steady throughout their lifetime, with the average person changing approximately five points. However, through awareness, a person's LOC can jump dramatically. If organisations are able to increase individual levels of consciousness to above 200, then courage and empowerment, willingness and intention can become real possibilities. Through increased individual consciousness, individual emotions can be changed to trust, optimism and affirmation and organisational change can then enable and inspire individuals.

Fischer (1971, 2005, 2006) created a symmetrical and simple model of altered states of consciousness. According to this model, meaning is only meaningful at the level of arousal at which it is experienced, and every experience has its state-bound meaning. During the self-state of highest levels of hyper- or hypo- arousal, this meaning can no longer be expressed in dualistic terms, since the experience of unity is born from the integration of interpretive (cortical) and interpreted (subcortical) structures. Since this intense meaning is devoid of specificities, the only way to communicate its intensity is the metaphor. Only through the transformation of an objective sign into a subjective symbol in art, literature and religion can the increasing integration of cortical and subcortical activity be communicated (Fischer, 1971). Previous chapters indicated the importance of metaphor, stories, art and music to the PURPLE human niche in particular.

Fischer's model (1971) incorporates ergo-tropic and trophotropic arousal, where ergo tropic refers to sympathetic nerve system one along the perception-hallucination continuum of increasing ergo-tropic arousal. Ergo-tropic arousal includes creative, psychotic, and ecstatic experiences. Along the perception/meditation continuum of increasing trophotropic arousal, hypo-aroused



states of Zazen and Yoga Samadhi are encompassed. Ergo-tropic arousal denotes behavioural patterns preparatory to positive action and is characterised by increased activity of the sympathetic nervous system and an activated psychic state which may be induced either naturally or through hallucinogenic drugs. Trophotropic arousal results from an integration of parasympathetic with somatomotor activities to produce behavioural patterns that conserve and restore energy, a decrease in sensitivity to external stimuli and sedation (Gellhorn, 1968).

Fischer's (1971) model is depicted in figure 11.1, which attempts to combine ecstatic and mystical experiences. According to figure 11.1, the hyperaroused states are characterised by increased muscle tone, decreased skin resistance, increased body temperature, increased heart rate and the extreme dilation of pupils.

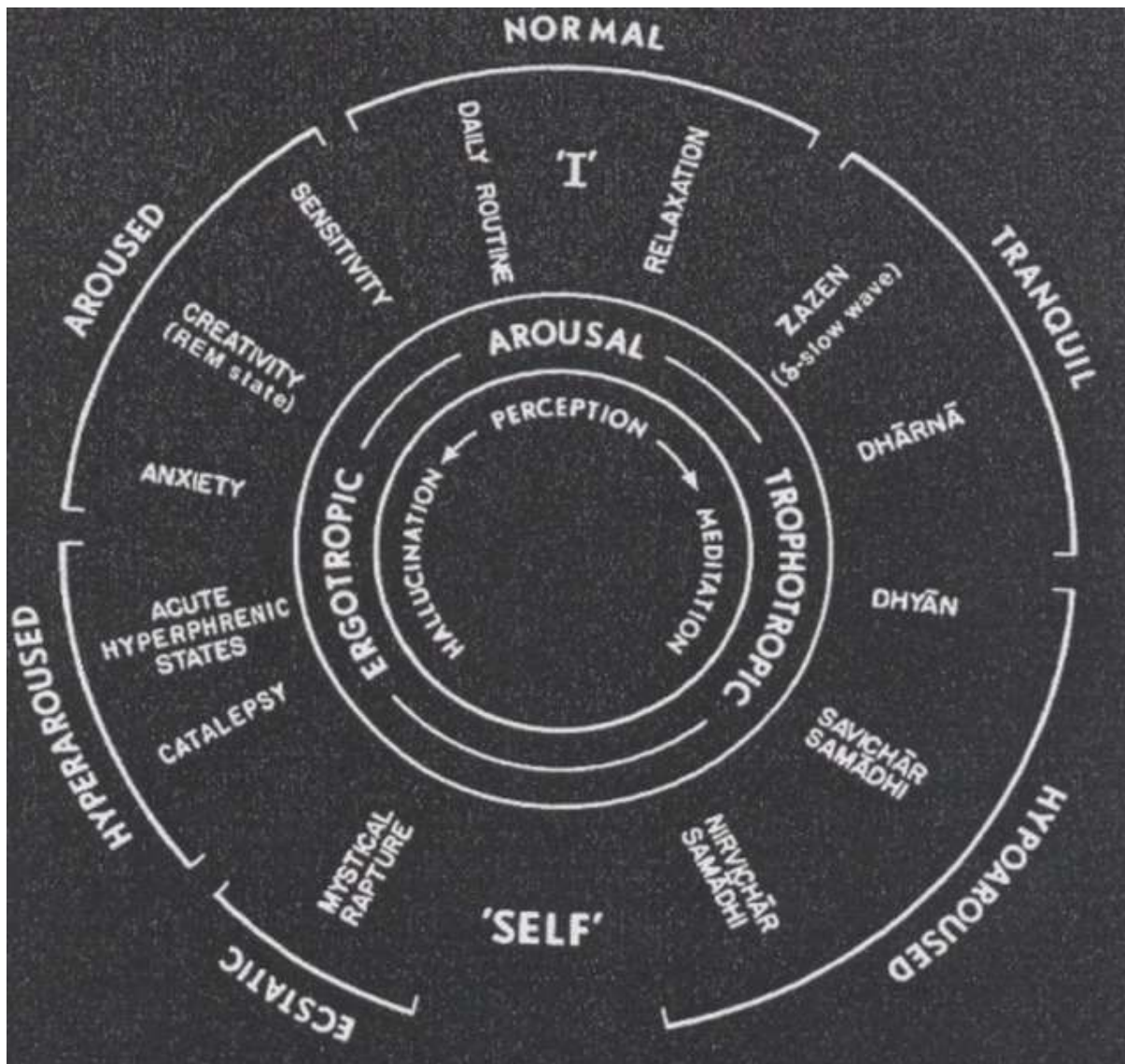


Figure 11.1: Variety of conscious states (Fischer, 1971, 2005:s.a.)

The data collected in this study reported anxiety and no creativity. This places the participants in the aroused state. Ergo-tropic arousal typifies the aroused state - sympathetic nervous system (SNS) arousal. Chapter nine indicated that the SNS controls the so-called “fight or flight” phenomenon because of its control over the necessary bodily changes needed when one is faced with a situation where one may need to defend oneself or escape. This ties in exactly with the data collected from the respondents.

According to Fischer’s (1971) model, consciousness extends between states of drunkenness or between states of sobriety. However, there is complete amnesia between the two discontinuous states of sobriety and drunkenness. These states are characteristic and different between self-to-I ratios. When linking Fischer’s (1971) model of consciousness states to the stress reported in the data in the current study, it is clear that a sense of separateness was prevalent in the organisation under investigation. Without integration between the I-and-self, optimal functioning and engagement in meaning change become impossible. Experiences are reduced to anxiety and the organisational change output reflects this.

Figure 11.1 displays the separateness of subject and object during the daily routine levels of arousal while in the I-state which discounts the interaction between observer (subject) and observed (object) (Fischer, 1971). This separateness of object and subject is a reflection of the relative independence of cortical interpretation from subcortical activity and is of survival value in the I-state, where the subject must make decisions of life and death by manipulating objects through voluntary motor activity.

As we depart along either continuum from the I toward the Self, the separateness of object and subject gradually disappears and their interaction becomes the principal content of the experience (Fischer, 1971). The interaction is a reflection of the gradually increasing integration of cortical and subcortical activity. In this state of unity, the separateness of subject and object that is implicit in dualistic, Aristotelian logic and language becomes meaningless; only a symbolic logic and language can convey the experience of intense meaning (Fischer, 1971).

It seems that through improved consciousness, individuals are better able to deal with the insecurities and instability that are inherent in organisational change. Improved consciousness can change perceptions. In the context of organisational change in this study, scepticism was repeatedly mentioned. Through increased consciousness, perceptions relating to scepticism may be altered and amended into perceptions of conviction and success.

Gaining a deeper understanding of consciousness should play a crucial role in the future of organisational change and individual vicissitude. From an organisational change perspective, gaining a deeper understanding of consciousness should allow for the expansion of individual awareness and mindfulness. This, in turn, might negate the negative impact of stress and even trauma which the individuals in this research experienced during organisational change. It further seems necessary to map human niche theory to consciousness development in order to facilitate productive, individually suited interventions.

#### **11.2.4 Intuition as an intervention technology**

Throughout history people have reported intuitive hunches, premonitions and forebodings which were later verified as accurate (Dossey, 2009; Radin, 2011), making intuition a vital resource which can no longer be overlooked (Leskowitz, 2001). Understanding the full scope of intuitive abilities, especially intuitions involving future events, is essential because a large percentage of the world's workforce is engaged in anticipating the future (Radin and Borges, 2009).

The *Concise Oxford dictionary* (1964) defines intuition as immediate apprehension by the mind without reasoning, immediate apprehension by a sense, and immediate insight. Assagioli (1961:27) observes intuition as “a synthetic function in the sense that it apprehends the totality of a given situation or psychological reality. It does not work from the part to the whole—but apprehends a totality directly in its living existence.” In these terms, intuition is defined as a process by which information normally outside the range of cognitive processes is immediately sensed and perceived in the body and mind as certainty of knowledge or feeling about the totality of a thing distant or yet to happen. The “thing” can be an object, entity, or event in the material world, or an intellectual construct, such as a thought or idea. Often the



feeling of certainty is absolute—intuition is experienced as beyond question or doubt— and the feeling can encompass positive or negative emotions. This experience of an immediate, total sense of the thing as a whole is unlike the informational processing experience of normal awareness. In normal awareness, the contents of the mind are updated incrementally, as the moment-by-moment sequences of sensory experience unfold (Radin, 2006). This closely resembles synchronicity, as postulated by Jung, as a meaningful coincidence and connecting principle (Cambray, 2009).

Predicting the future is an essential function of the nervous system. If we see dark clouds and smell a certain scent in the air, we predict that rain is likely to fall (Mossbridge, Tressoldi & Utts, 2012). These everyday predictions are based on experience, memory and perceptual cues. If even without experience and perceptual cues we could somehow prepare for important imminent events by activating the sympathetic nervous system prior to such events, this skill would be highly adaptive. More than 40 experiments published over the past 32 years examined the claims that human physiology predicts future important or arousing events, even though we do not currently understand how (Mossbridge, *et al.*, 2012). Many such impressions are explained as misinterpretations of mundane effects such as coincidence, selective memory, forgotten expertise, implicit inference, confabulation or fraud (Wiseman and Watt, 2006).

Jung (1966) postulated that because of its unconsciousness, the group has no freedom of choice, hence psychic activity runs on in it like an uncontrolled law of nature. Even civilised humans are not entirely free of the darkness of primeval times. Consciousness succumbs too easily to unconscious influences. Unconscious motives overrule conscious decisions. Intuition is perception via the unconscious (Jung, 1966).

Intuition is widely regarded as a key source of inspiration in technological innovations, business decisions, artistic achievement and scientific discovery (Harman and Rheingold, 1984; Root-Bernstein, 2002). Intuition is a powerful transforming psychosocial agent that not only reshapes the direction of individual lives, but often also changes the course of human history. Intuitive perception is

commonly acknowledged to play a significant role in business, learning, creativity, medical diagnosis, healing, spiritual growth and overall well-being (Myers, 2002). Despite its subtle presence in informing diverse aspects of individual and collective life, intuition is poorly understood and remains a scientific enigma (McCraty, Atkinson & Bradley, 2004a, 2004b).

Intuitive knowledge arises quickly, out of the blue, sometimes with correct and elegant solutions to complex problems (Bierman, 2000; Spottiswoode and May, 2003; Radin, 1956, 2003; Eysenck, 1995). Sudden insights, with no logical chain of deductive reasoning can result by merely being present and paying unhindered attention. Such sudden insights could manifest through the sudden understanding of how to solve a problem or situation. Intuition is furthermore a method to obtain answers, which otherwise elude us. Such information assessing can be interpersonal, intrapersonal or transpersonal (Leskowitz, 2001).

Because of the scientific emphasis on rational knowing, and especially of physicalism, other ways of knowing, such as intuitive knowing, have been regarded as an inferior epistemology at best, and a vestige of superstitious nonsense at worst. For half a century, this belief led academic psychology to deny the importance of subjective experience (Dennett, 2005). At the prime of behaviourism, many psychologists embraced a perplexing catch-22 in which they concluded with great confidence that there were no minds at all (Dennett, 2005). However, through the advancement of the cognitive sciences and neurosciences, the idea of an unconscious mind, once the sole province of psychoanalysis, became scientifically acceptable again. This transformed the original concept of intuition from a mysterious means of gaining unmediated knowledge of the world to the more familiar domain of computer-inspired background information processing (Dennett, 2005).

Furthermore, in the broader arena of human decision making, experiments now show that people are far more efficient at making accurate intuitive decisions than previously thought (Cosmides and Tooby, 1996). McCraty, *et al.*, (2004a) found the importance of the heart in intuitive perception - the heart and brain receive and respond to intuitive information as well as a significantly greater heart rate deceleration occurring prior to future emotional stimuli (McCraty, *et al.*, 2004a,

2004b). On the strength of these results, it appears that intuitive perception is a system-wide process in which the heart and brain, as well as other bodily systems, play a critical role. In all human cultures, both ancient and modern, the heart has long been regarded as a conduit to a source of information and wisdom beyond normal awareness. The data provided by McCraty, *et al.*, (2004a, 2004b) may provide the scientific evidence for an intuitive capacity that humankind has known and used for many millennia.

Levine (2010) believes that intuition emerges from the seamless joining of instinctual bodily reactions with thoughts, inner pictures and perceptions. Intuition is bottom-up processing, and is more potent than top-down processing in altering our perceptions of the world. Levine (2010) argues that lasting change occurs primarily through bottom-up processing where the individual learns to focus on physical and/or physiological sensations as they evolve into perceptions, cognitions and decisions. Change occurs in the mutual relationship between top-down and bottom-up where there is mindfulness. Mindfulness only occurs where there is a bodily feeling.

Although it could be argued whether intuition should be an intervention strategy, the ability to hear and listen to predictions can largely change the manner in which we perceive and prepare for important imminent events. Whether we attribute these predictions to experience or to intuition seems unbecoming. What seems relevant is the ability of such predictions to alter individual perceptions. From an organisational change perspective, such knowledge should be harnessed and not ridiculed, given the potential improved individual adaptability and decision-making ability which may result. Intuition could be the key to unlocking individual aliveness and self-determination, only to flow into and make the organisation flourish.

### **11.2.5 Precognition and presentiment**

Presentiment refers to an inner sensation or gut feeling that something strange is about to occur (Targ, 2012) and has been reported for centuries (Radin, 2013). The term “psi” denotes anomalous processes of information or energy transfer, such as telepathy or other forms of extrasensory perception that are currently unexplained in terms of known physical or biological mechanisms (Bem and Honorton, 1994). Two variants of psi are precognition (conscious cognitive awareness) and premonition

(affective apprehension) of a future event that could not otherwise be anticipated through known inferential processes. These categories are also referred to as psychokinesis (PK) and extrasensory perception (ESP). PK refers to the apparent ability of humans to affect objects solely by the power of the mind, while ESP relates to the apparent ability of humans to acquire information without the mediation of the recognised senses or inference (Pratt, 1949; Rhine, 1946).

Precognition and premonition are themselves special cases of a more general phenomenon, the anomalous retroactive influence of some future event on an individual's current responses, whether those responses are conscious or nonconscious, cognitive or affective (Bem, 2011). Precognition means knowing in advance and includes the following: aeromancy (divination by cloud shapes); electromancy (in which a bird is allowed to peck grains of corn from letters of the alphabet); apantomancy (chance meetings with animals); capnomancy (the patterns of smoke rising from a fire); causimomancy (the study of objects placed on fire); cromniomancy (finding significance in onion sprouts); hippomancy (based on the stamping of horses); onychomancy (the patterns of fingernails in the sunlight); phyllorhodomancy (the sounds made by slapping rose petals against the hand); and tiromancy (a system of divination involving cheese) (Watson, 1988). When one comes into touch with nature, and with the way in which nature works, one suddenly becomes aware of much more (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014). These phenomena speak loudly to PURPLE.

As with all methods of divination, a great deal depends on the person who interprets the results. While contextualising his theory on the phenomenon of synchronicity and the theory of coincidences, Jung (1983) suspected that the unconscious might have something to do with the way patterns manifest themselves. The power of psychokinesis has a great deal to do with the uncanny accuracy of the *I Ching* and other oracles. Even if we do not believe in the predictive ability of oracles, interesting questions can be introduced that can help one to reframe a difficulty (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014) and then cope with the difficulty, particularly in an organisational setting.

Jung (1983) postulated that if you want to move forward, you have to look back. According to Shalins (2013), death is not the end, the past is not dead, and the past has not even passed. Hollis (2013) explains that our impulses towards the world are historically contained, yet these impulses are driven by forces that transcend consciousness and individual intent. African PURPLE strongly relates to this phenomena (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014).

Precognition refers to the noninferential prediction of future events. Anecdotal claims of future telling have occurred throughout human history in virtually all cultures and periods. Today such claims are generally thought to be based on delusion, irrationality and superstitious thinking. The concept of precognition runs counter to accepted notions of causality and usually conflicts with current scientific theory (Honorton and Ferrari, 1989). Despite the above, these claims remain real to PURPLE.

Bem's (2011:407) research demonstrated the existence of precognition, as a "conscious cognitive awareness . . . of a future event that could not otherwise be anticipated through any known inferential process". Although parapsychological research is still academically taboo (Honorton and Ferrari, 1989) at a conceptual level, precognition reminds us that we understand little about the nature of time. If the mind can obtain future information through psi ability, this implies that some psychic aspect of mind is not always stuck in the present. If this aspect of mind can view into the future, it should also be able to view into the past (Tart, 2009).

Perhaps a logical category of post-cognition is apt and could be revealed as being related to the ultimate nature of time. Chapter three indicated that to PURPLE people, the past and present are not seen as opposites. They are viewed instead as remote forms of the present, which makes the ancestors very real (Laubscher, 2013). Therefore, given the realness of phenomena such as precognition (and post-cognition) to PURPLE and given the context of organisational change and leadership, leaders should be brave enough to explore the innate possibilities of any alternative which speaks to the mobilisation of individuals. Failing this, leadership should harness the possibilities of precognition to connect to individuals through the use of metaphor, stories and symbols.

### 11.2.6 Yin and Yang

A Japanese saying states that for every truth, the opposite is also true. In Chinese philosophy, yin and yang are concepts used to describe how opposite or contrary forces are complementary, interconnected and interdependent in the natural world, and how they give rise to each other as they interrelate. Yin is feminine, receptive, passive, yielding and airy. Yang is male, dominated by power, energy and strength (Foy, 1980). Stiskin (1972) describe yin as centrifugal, yang as centripetal. Many tangible dualities are thought of as physical manifestations of the duality of yin and yang.

Yin and yang are used to describe different forms of Ch'i or life force. Neither one is better or more powerful than the other, indeed, neither one can exist without the other. The objective is to balance these two qualities, to achieve harmony between the yin and the yang. This duality lies at the origins of many branches of classical Chinese science and philosophy and is a primary guideline of traditional Chinese medicine (Porkert, 1974). Such duality is also the central principle of different forms of Chinese martial arts and exercise, such as baguazhang, taijiquan (t'ai chi) and qigong (chi Kung), as well as in the pages of the I Ching.

Yin and yang are complementary (instead of opposing) forces that interact to form a dynamic system in which the whole is greater than the assembled parts. Everything has both Yin and Yang elements - shadow cannot exist without light. Either of the two major elements may manifest more strongly in a particular object, depending on the criterion of the observation. Jung (1959) concluded these syzygies are as universal as the existence of man and woman.

In Taoist metaphysics, distinctions between good and bad, along with other dichotomous moral judgements, are perceptual, not real - the duality of Yin and Yang is an indivisible whole. In Taoism, the central concept is division into two fundamental, complementary, opposite cosmic forces through which the various forms of I ("change") are symbolically represented (Liu, 1981), sometimes adding a moral dimension (Latener and Leon, 2005).

Yin is the black side with the white dot while Yang is the white side with the black dot. Yin literally translates to shady place or north slope and is the dark area occluded by the mountain's bulk, while Yang, literally translated as sunny place or south slope, is the brightly lit portion. As the sun moves across the sky, Yin and Yang gradually trade places with each other, revealing what was obscured and obscuring what was revealed.

Yin is characterised as slow, soft, yielding, diffuse, cold, wet, and passive; and is associated with water, earth, the moon, femininity and night time. Yang, by contrast, is fast, hard, solid, focused, hot, dry, and aggressive; and is associated with fire, sky, the sun, masculinity and daytime. Yin and Yang also applies to the human body. In traditional Chinese medicine good health is directly related to the balance between yin and yang qualities within oneself (Porkertt, 1974). If Yin and Yang become unbalanced, one of the qualities is considered deficient. This is closely related to Jung's feminine and masculine energies which must become balanced to ensure a whole person (Jung, 1953). The union of all opposites is embedded between Yin and Yang, heaven and earth, the state of everlasting balance and immutable duration (Jung, 1959).

When organisations are run by conceptual, intellectual Yangs, things will gradually get out of balance. Similarly, unbalance will occur when realistic, survival-oriented and pragmatic Yins are dominant. Half of the brain can cope with each kind of information, the other half cannot. Organisations need both, in moderate balance (Foy, 1980).

Symbiosis between Yin and Yang, reciprocity between the masculine and feminine forces will largely result in the redundancy of opposition. The direct outcome of this renunciation is individualism, the need for realisation of individuality, a realisation of humans are they are (Jung, 1971). The mandala symbolises by its central point, the ultimate unity of all archetypes plus the multiplicity of the phenomenal world. The mandala is the Western equivalent of the fundamental principle of classical Chinese philosophy, namely the Yin and Yang (Jung, 1953).



Kim (2006) applied the concept of Yin and Yang to corporate life and identified strategy as a Yang element owing to its driving and tangible nature to share and focus. Action and culture were identified as Yin elements because of its subtle, intangible qualities. Booyesen and Nkomo (2006) researched gender in a social context and found that both males and females suppressed femininity. Viljoen-Terblanche (2008) argues that to be the reason why leadership (male and female) deals more easily with the doing, the strategy and task related issues.

Kaje (1977) exhorted her brethren to bring in the feminine Yin (identify, acknowledge, accept and deliberately develop the feminine qualities of all things). She (1977) displayed the stereotypes as well as the ideal combination halfway between maleness and femaleness, the place where perfect balance can be obtained.

Given the stress, and often trauma, caused by organisational change, a key aspect of leadership during change is to provide meaning and increased understanding at an individual and group level. Leadership awareness of empathy allows for the emergence of meaningful connections and the awakening of individual dualities. Perhaps organisational change requires spiritual leadership. Spiritual leaders might create an environment and allow individuals to develop an increased awareness of the self and the social environment. Symbiosis between Yin and Yang can facilitate such awareness for individuals and leaders alike.

### **11.3 OTHER INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES**

The preceding section described spiritual intervention technologies. In an attempt to present an integrated solution, this section will explain other intervention technologies, which include music, chanting, speed reading, thinking skills and juggling. Chapter twelve will focus on physical, body-based intervention technologies. This combination assimilates the holistic, body-mind-spirit individual.

#### **11.3.1 Music**

Musical sounds have been a source of inspiration and delight for as long as humans have lived. Both Eastern and Western traditions have recognised the value of music for thousands of years (Epperson, 1967). Confucius (Cole, 1993) and both Plato and



Aristotle (Lippman, 1965) discussed the positive effects of music on individuals and society. Plato believed that music helped humans to attune to nature's intrinsic harmonies, being a direct bridge into the order of the universe (Sultanoff, 2001). In listening to music one might find balance and peace within oneself, by coming into harmony with the cosmic order of nature (Sultanoff, 2001), and this may be beneficial to the individual at various levels (Diamond, 2001) because the hearing-listening mechanism is the primary organ of our emerging consciousness (Tomatis, 2004). However, during the Renaissance, music became divorced from its therapeutic content (Diamond, 2001).

This near schism between music and its therapeutic component was unthinkable to early civilisations just as it is in most so-called "primitive" cultures that exist alongside our own in the world today (Schullian and Schoen, 1948). Such primitive cultures could be classified as PURPLE or BEIGE (Laubscher, 2014), but of greater relevance is that this schism is unthinkable to PURPLE. However, rhythm also speaks to the RED human niche (Laubscher, 2013).

Symbols have the power to take the human species to new heights. Symbols are vitally important to PURPLE, and PURPLE truly relates to symbols. Bloom (2010:257) claims that "songs are strings of symbols". Music can alter mood (Altschuler, 1948; Lenton and Martin, 1991; Updike and Charles, 1986; Palakanis, DeNobile, Sweeney & Blankenship, 1994; Ferguson and Sheldon, 2013; Palmer, Koopmans, Carter, Loehr & Wanderley, 2009). Listening to particularly happy or sad music can even change the way we perceive the world (Jolij and Meurs, 2011). According to Jolij and Meurs (2011), seeing things that are not there is the result of top-down brain processes. Conscious perception is based on these top-down processes and the result is what we eventually experience as reality. The brain builds up expectations on the basis of experience and mood (Jolij and Meurs, 2011). Music and mood are thus interrelated.

The famous composer, Ludwig von Beethoven, was believed to have said that music is a higher revelation than all wisdom and philosophy. Music can transform an ordinary day into something magical and even spiritual. Music can provide solace, release and strong sensations (Dean, 2013). Research by Forgeard, Winner, Norton

and Schlaug (2008) showed that the benefit of learning an instrument is musical, but extends to cognitive and visual perception. Singing improves synchronisation with one another. This, in turn, increases affiliation with the group and may even make people like each other more than before (Eerola and Eerola, 2013).

Bradt and Dileo (2009) found that listening to music reduces heart rate, blood pressure and anxiety. Tsai, Chen, Huang, Lin, Chen & Hsu (2013) found that when patients listen to their favourite music, some of their visual attention is restored.

Studies have demonstrated the effect of music on physiological measures such as the following: galvanic skin response (Peretti and Swenson, 1974; Zimny and Weidenfeller, 1963); vasoconstriction (Kibler and Rider, 1983); muscle tension (Scartelli, 1984; Reynolds, 1984); immune system function (McCraty, Atkinson, Tiller, Rein and Watkins, 1995; Rider, Achterberg, Lawlis, Goven, Toledo & Butler, 1990); respiration rate (Webster, 1973); heart rate variability (McCraty, *et al.*, 1995); and pulse rate and blood pressure (Webster, 1973). Music has been used to reduce stress and discomfort associated with medical procedures (Standley, 1986; Shapiro and Cohen, 1987; Whipple and Glynn, 1992). Mental and emotional activity can alter the ANS function (McCraty, *et al.*, 1995) and the ANS in turn can mediate emotions such as bereavement, depression or anger (McCraty, *et al.*, 1995) and the immune enhancement associated with positive emotional states (Dillon, Minchoff & Baker, 1985) such as care and compassion (Watkins and Childre, 1995).

Wilson and Brown (1996) demonstrated improved performance of spatial reasoning when listening to the patterned classical music of Mozart. Diamond (2001) found music to be therapeutic and transcendental. The core reason why music affects us is because of its tremendous potential to raise our life energy - life energy is the body's healing power (Diamond, 2001). This life energy is also called prana or chi. In order to overcome any disability or anxiety, be it mental or physical, we have to raise the life energy. According to Diamond (2001), music is the most effective, universal means of raising life energy.

Carpenter (1965) describes how many of the earth's creatures sing in some fashion. Gibbons in Thailand climb into treetops every daybreak and sing, in unison, a clearly

marked octave-scale tune. At sunrise, the climax of the morning chant is reached, the gibbons trill on their highest note, their bodies go into ecstatic quivering, and they then subside into a profound peace and quiet (Carpenter, 1965). Levine (1997) postulates that we are not as far removed from animals as we perceive. The section dealing with trauma releasing, as developed by Berceci (2012), further builds on this process of quivering or trembling in chapter twelve, section 12.2.2.

Everyone can sing but many have not done so since childhood. One effect of singing is that breath resonates through the body, resulting in a full-body massage. This vocally generated self-massage activates life energy, aiding in emotional balance. It lifts the mood, reduces stress, allays anxiety and improves focus. It vibrates organs, bones and muscles, improving circulation. Singing reduces feelings of separateness and aloneness (Sultanoff, 2001).

PURPLE can sing (Laubscher, 2013). Singing - with the lullaby as first musical genre and the voice as a most intimate instrument - is the most fundamental way of making music with physiological and neurological advantages (Diamond, 2001). Singing also encourages free and continuous breathing while utilising whole-brain activity, which involves both hemispheres simultaneously (Diamond, 2001). Using percussion instruments such as bones, castanets and drums is encouraged as it is impossible to play a wrong note on these (Diamond, 2001).

PURPLE and RED do not breath consciously (Laubscher, 2013) and therefore benefit from singing. Singing is not reserved for the vocally intelligent. Singing includes everyone (Sultanoff, 2001). Singing is a method to achieve inclusivity (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008). Furthermore, whole-brain activity helps with the processing of problems while increasing overall creativity. The use of drums will free PURPLE and RED, without the fear of making mistakes.

For organisations there should be a clear rationale for using music as a tool to reduce stress, fatigue, negative emotions and possibly even organisational resistance. Music enhances well-being, positive mood and mental clarity. Given the interrelationship between attitudes, emotions and change, music can be an inexpensive and easy method to facilitate organisational change. In addition, given

the traditional organisation, playing repetitive music which lacks complexity can facilitate learning for PURPLE and RED.

The alternative intervention methodology of music may be incorporated into an organisation's stress management programme. Different music can be used to achieve different outcomes. Playing music to PURPLE workers on a production line is likely to improve productivity. Playing classical music in a classroom environment would enhance learning. In many offices, popular radio stations are heard throughout the entire day. Changing these popular broadcasts to soft, soothing or classical music could improve mood, mental clarity and well-being. Using music and song in an organisational context, could elevate mood while reducing anxiety, simultaneously creating increased affiliation and interrelatedness.

“Sing for your health and wellbeing, for your upliftment, for the joy of creation. Sing to yourself, to your children, to whomever will listen! Most important, sing for no reason at all; just sing as the birds do. The new day has dawned. It is only natural for you to join the chorus” (Sultanoff, 2001:223).

### **11.3.2 Chanting**

Chanting is a near universal way of engaging a meditative experience (Sultanoff, 2001). Chanting is vibration. Sounds, vibrations and electromagnetic fields all have an effect on the brain (Pearce, 2003). The word “chant” probably originates from either Latin *cantus* or old French, “to sing”. Chanting refers to singing, celebration in song, to speak monotonously as well as a monotonous rhythmic call or shout as a slogan (Sultanoff, 2001). Chanting as a form of singing produces euphoria, calms the system and brings coherence (Pearce, 2003).

According to Dominguez (2012), the human voice, when used without words to make tunes, is a greatly underrated tool in the creation of sacred space. When making sounds without words, we reach deeply into the soul. Pure sound helps to minimise the impact of the ego-self; reaching into our instinctive animal nature. Pure sound with the complexity of pitch, rhythm and timbre can contain more information than what fits into words. The circle of sound is a compelling and elegantly simple method

to raise energy and adjusting consciousness with clear intention, often backed by strong emotion.

Chanting is the rhythmic speaking or singing of words or sounds, often primarily on one or two main pitches called reciting tones. Chants may range from a simple melody involving a limited set of notes to highly complex musical structures, often including a great deal of repetition of musical sub phrases, such as the offertories of Gregorian chant. Chant may be considered speech, music or a heightened form of speech. In the later Middle Ages, some religious chant evolved into song, which later formed the roots of Western music.

Traditionally, mantras were Sanskrit phrases that are repeated quietly for a specific number of times. The practice of chanting is broadly called akshara laksham, literally translated to mean as many hundreds of thousands of chants as there are syllables in the mantra (Narayan, 2014). In Hindu mythology, Om is the simplest and arguably the most powerful and profound mantra. The mantra, Om or Aum, harmonises the physical, emotional and intellectual forces. Om is the primordial sound, the sound that is said to have its origins at the time of the creation of the cosmos - also referred to as the Big Bang (Rajhans, 2013). Om is an affirmation of the Divine Presence that is the universe (Paul, 2005).

The chanting of Om in transcendental meditation has received widespread recognition. Mantras have been used to treat tension (Rajhans, 2013). Through chanting we acknowledge the hierarchy of mind and brain, bringing about harmony in place of isolation and anxiety. True mantras are of consciousness (Pearce, 2003). Om is a universal healing sound, and when one chants Om one adjusts one's own vibrational frequency to resonate with this primordial sound of creation. This facilitates the integration of the various parts of an individual's life into a more coherent whole (Sultanoff, 2001).

Advanced practitioners believe that the meaning and effects of mantras should be realised, not merely understood (Narayan, 2014). Repeating mantras on a regular basis causes profound changes in mind-body physiology and psychology as reported by Josipovic (2013), who researched Tibetan monks using fMRI machines.

According to Josipovic (2013), meditation cultivates attentional skills - chanting mantras is a holistic method of stilling and opening the mind.

Mantra sounds can lift the believer towards the higher self. In the recitation of Sanskrit mantras, sound is of paramount importance, for it can effect transformation in one, while leading one to power and strength. Different sounds have different effects on human psyche. If a soft sound of wind rustling through leaves soothes one's nerves, the musical note of running stream enchants one's heart. Thunders may cause awe and fear. The sacred utterances or chanting of Sanskrit mantras provide us with the power to attain our goals and lift ourselves from the ordinary to higher levels of consciousness. They give one the power to cure diseases, ward off evils, gain wealth, acquire supernatural powers, worship a deity for exalted communion and attaining a blissful state, and attaining liberation (Rajhans, 2013).

Tomatis (2004) speaks of discharge sounds cause fatigue and charge sounds which give peace of mind. Sound proves a major source of brain stimulus by which dynamic mental vitality is maintained. Vocal sounds directly resonate through the skull, chest and body. Most chants fall within the band width for charging the brain. Chanting enhances slow breath and absolute tranquillity (Tomatis, 2004). "Mananaat traayate iti mantrah". That which uplifts by constant repetition is a Mantra. Lokah Samastha is a chant for wholeness: "Lokah samastha sukhino bhavanthu"; May this world be established with a sense of well-being and happiness.

Perhaps the most revered of all Hindu mantras, is the Gayatri mantra. The recitation of the Gayatri mantra begins with the sacred syllable Om, followed by the utterances (the names of three of the seven mythic Hindu worlds, bhur, bhuvar, svah, which are respectively Earth, the Middle Region and Heaven). These worlds symbolise three states of consciousness, from our ordinary earth-bound consciousness to consciousness of the heavenly Self (Rajhans, 2013):

*Om bhur bhuvah svaha*  
*Thath savithur varaynyam*  
*Bhargo dheyvasya dhimahih*  
*Dhyoyonah pratchodhay-yath"*

One translation of the above reads as follows: “We worship the word that is present in the earth, the heavens, and that which is beyond. By meditating on this glorious power that gives us life, we ask that our minds and hearts be illuminated” (translated by Paul, 2005: s.a.).

The power of the mantra is said to be the power of the creative process itself. Sound is the first expression of reality formation. We can unfold power through sound (Pearce, 2003). Chanting integrates closely to chakra healing as various sounds have a profound effect on the body (Paul, 2005). However, chanting words such as peace, release or harmony, similarly raises individual awareness and consciousness.

Mantra chanting is a commonly used spiritual practice. Like prayer, chant may be a component of either personal or group practice. Diverse spiritual traditions consider chant a route to spiritual development. Chanting is common and ranges in applicability from African to Gregorian chant, Vedic chants, Buddhist chants, various mantras, Jewish cantillation, and the chanting of psalms and prayers in Roman Catholic-, Eastern Orthodox-, Lutheran- and Anglican churches. The battle cries of various sports teams, the New Zealand rugby haka, the singing done by protestors and even the practice of auctioneering, can all fit under the chant umbrella.

Rhythm, humming and repetitive chanting come naturally to PURPLE and speak strongly to PURPLE’s spirit. Chanting sounds can assist both PURPLE and RED to integrate their higher self through enhanced consciousness. This, in turn, could lead to higher levels of trust, affiliation and interrelatedness, reducing organisational resistance, negativity and distrust. Chanting is a simple and easy method with huge potential for heightened individual empowerment, compassion and individual interconnectedness. Chanting as an alternative intervention technology might form part of change management sessions or be incorporated into organisational stress management programmes.



### 11.3.3 Juggling

Juggling is a physical skill, performed by a juggler, involving the manipulation of objects for recreation, entertainment, or sport. Juggling is a complex activity, requiring accurate arm and hand movements, grasping of fast-moving objects as well as the ability to track objects in the periphery of one's vision.

The earliest record of juggling dates back to the 15<sup>th</sup> Ben Hasan tomb of an unknown prince, showing female dancers and acrobats throwing balls. While juggling has been recorded in many cultures, including Egyptian, Chinese, Indian, Greek, Roman and Aztec, what seems more important is that juggling leads to changes in the white matter of the brain (Johansen-Berg, 2009).

Research showed improved connectivity in parts of the brain involved in making movements necessary to catch the juggling balls. Furthermore, changes in grey matter have been shown following a new experience and learning. Teaching adults to do something entirely new increased white matter in the brain as well as increased periphery of vision (Johansen-Berg, 2009; France-Presse, 2009; Lazar, 2009).

Johansen-Berg's (2009) research proves that adult brains are not static or even starting to degenerate. It is possible for the brain to condition its own wiring system to operate more efficiently. Organisational change requires rewiring of individuals. A relatively simple activity such as juggling can be used effectively to rewire the brain towards improved functioning and movement. Metaphorically extending movement to organisational change seems beneficial as organisational change requires increased movement and reduced rigidity.

The benefits of humour and laughter date to early observations by Freud (1964). Humour promotes cohesiveness and creative problem-solving skills (Curtis, 2001), has the physiological and psychological ability to promote healing (Fry and Salameh, 1987), releases endorphins (Berk, 1994) and restores homeostasis, stabilises blood pressure, oxygenates the blood, massages vital organs, stimulates circulation, relaxes the system and produces feelings of well-being (Fry and Salameh, 1987). Once endorphins are released and blood starts flowing to the brain and muscles,



individuals begin to feel better, have more energy, experience improved concentration and feel less stressed (Garrick, 2006).

The clowning around while juggling could thus have further therapeutic value for the individual. A physical activity such as juggling could particularly benefit RED, while simultaneously improving brain functioning. Adding a competitive flavour to the activity would further enhance RED's learning experience. Incorporating simple activities such as juggling into organisational learning activities can rewire brains. Starting an organisational change initiative with juggling could enhance relatedness while improving brain functioning.

When one is insecure, anxious and tense or stressed, one's focus of attention becomes divided. Individuals thus think one thing, feel something else and act from impulses completely different from either of these (Pearce, 2004). However, through the intense focus required to juggle, attention may shift away from the negative experiences. Organisations should embrace any method which is able to mitigate the detrimental outcomes in organisations as a result of divided attention and incoherence between thinking, feeling and acting. Juggling as an alternative intervention technology could easily be incorporated into a change management session.

#### **11.3.4 Multiple intelligences**

Dodd (2004) found 29% of people to be visual learners, 34% to be auditory learners and 37% to be kinaesthetic learners. Kinaesthetic learners like to do things practically, move around and use touch to learn. Laubscher (2013) concluded that PURPLE individuals are kinaesthetic learners and represent close to 55% of the population in Africa (Viljoen and Laubscher, 2014).

Given the above figures, a combination of Gardner's (1985) multiple intelligence and human niche theory (Laubscher, 2013) seems relevant in an organisational context. Gardner (1985) postulates eight metacognitive modules which can be broken down into various processing systems. These metacognitive modules represent the knowledge base of the mind and are representative of the range of human knowledge and intellectual potentials. The major modules are linguistic,

logical/mathematical, visual/spatial, musical, inter-and intrapersonal and kinaesthetic, naturalist and existential domains of knowledge.

Although these domains of knowledge are generally integrated in life, they function as independent units with their own cognitive characteristics (Gardner, 1985). When these modules interact, higher order thinking is produced because the net result of the interaction between modules improves the quality of interaction in modules (Leaf, 2013). Each metacognitive domain has its own specific processing systems, represented across both brain hemispheres. Thus, the linguistic metacognitive module has different processing systems such as reading, writing, communicating and listening (Leaf, Louw & Uys, 1997). According to Gardner (1985), assuming that everyone can learn the same material in the same, universal manner is incorrect. Our current learning methods are heavily biased towards linguistic instruction modes. This closely represents Laubscher's view (2013).

The visual-spatial module thinks in terms of pictures, representing the knowledge that occurs through shapes, images, patterns, designs and textures. This module sees with our external eyes, but also includes images inside our heads. Visual-spatial thinks in images and pictures, being very aware of objects, shapes, colours, patterns and the environment around you. Drawing, painting, designing, patterns, clay, coloured markers, construction paper and fabric appeals to this intelligence. Visualising, pretending, imagining and forming mental images comes easily for this module, which fosters the ability to present the spatial world internally in one's mind (Gardner, 1985).

The bodily-kinaesthetic module uses the body effectively and has a keen sense of body awareness. They like movement, making things and touching. This module communicate well through body language and can be taught through physical activity, hands-on learning, acting out and role playing. This module learns by doing. Tasks are performed much better after seeing somebody else do it first and then mimicking his or her actions. Here it is usually difficult to sit still for long periods of time and boredom comes as easily as distractions. The body knows many things that are not necessarily conscious. This module promotes the capacity to use the whole or parts of the body to solve problems, make something or put on a production

(Gardner, 1985). This module resonates with the PURPLE human niche (Laubscher, 2014).

The musical module shows sensitivity to rhythm and sound. This knowledge happens through sound and vibration as well as tones, beats and vibrational patterns. They love music, but they are also sensitive to sounds in their environments. They may study better with music in the background (Gardner, 1985). This module resonates with the PURPLE and RED human niche (Laubscher, 2014).

The interpersonal module enables an understanding of and interaction with others. Person-to-person interaction is foremost. Many friends are the norm, as is showing empathy coupled with a deep understanding of others viewpoints. Group activities, seminars and dialogues speak to this module (Gardner, 1985).

The intrapersonal module allows an understanding one's own interests, self and goals. Self-reflection, introspection and our unique propensity to know the meaning, purpose and significance of things are at the core of this intelligence. This intelligence is in tune with their inner feelings; they have wisdom, intuition and motivation, as well as a strong will, confidence and opinions (Gardner, 1985).

The linguistic, verbal module uses words effectively, having the capacity to use language to express the self and understand others. This intelligence has highly developed auditory skills and often thinks in words; reading, speaking and writing come easily (Gardner, 1985).

The logical, mathematical intelligence encompasses reasoning and calculating through the ability to understand the underlying principles of a causal system. This intelligence thinks conceptually, abstractly and is able to see and explore patterns and relationships. Numbers and mathematical formulae, puzzles and complex problems entice this intelligence (Gardner, 1985).

The naturalist intelligence involves the full range of knowing that occurs in and through encounters with the natural world and environment. Communion with the natural world and its phenomena, recognising and classifying fauna and flora as well

as species discernment relate to this intelligence. This intelligence loves the outdoors, animals, plants and any natural object and has the ability to discriminate between living things, while being sensitive to other features of the natural world. The existential intelligence has the ability to exhibit the proclivity to pose and ponder life questions. Death and ultimate realities are key topics in this intelligence (Gardner, 1985).

Table 11.2 relates the researcher’s combination of multiple intelligence theory (Gardner, 1985) to human niche (Laubscher, 2013) theory. According to table 11.2, below verbal-linguistic is BLUE, bodily-kinaesthetic is PURPLE and musical-rhythmic is BEIGE, PURPLE and RED.

Table 11.2: Multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1985) and human niche theory (Laubscher, 2013).

Intelligence	Human niche	Description
Verbal-Linguistic	BLUE	Word smart
Math-Logical	ORANGE	Logic smart
Visual-Spatial	YELLOW	Picture smart
Intrapersonal	YELLOW	Self-smart
Bodily-Kinaesthetic	BEIGE, PURPLE	Body smart
Interpersonal	GREEN	People smart
Naturalist	PURPLE, BEIGE, YELLOW	Nature smart
Musical-Rhythmic	BEIGE, PURPLE, RED	Music smart
Existential	BEIGE, PURPLE, RED, BLUE, ORANGE, GREEN, YELLOW, TURQOISE	Deep-question smart

Table 11.2 depicts the predominant human niche relating to the various intelligences (Gardner, 1985). The bodily kinaesthetic intelligence relates to BEIGE and PURPLE. Interpersonal is GREEN, while naturalist is PURPLE, BEIGE and possibly YELLOW. Musical-rhythmic relates to BEIGE, PURPLE and RED. Graves (1978) postulated that existential intelligence relates to the entire spiral.

However, one should note that no link has been established between human niches and intelligence (Graves, 1978). Instead of postulating a relationship between human niches and intelligence, the purpose of table 11.2 is to indicate preferred thinking,

and possibly learning systems in the various human niches. Thinking and learning systems incongruent to human niches will inevitably increase individual stress. By contrast, applying preferred thinking and learning systems to human niches does not increase individual stress.

Figure 11.2 applies Gardner’s (1985) multiple intelligences to human niche theory (Laubscher, 2013). The relevance of the above in an organisational setting is important at various levels. Traditional training and education systems follow a verbal-linguistic format. PURPLE and RED struggle with this as their primary intelligences relate to music, nature and the body.

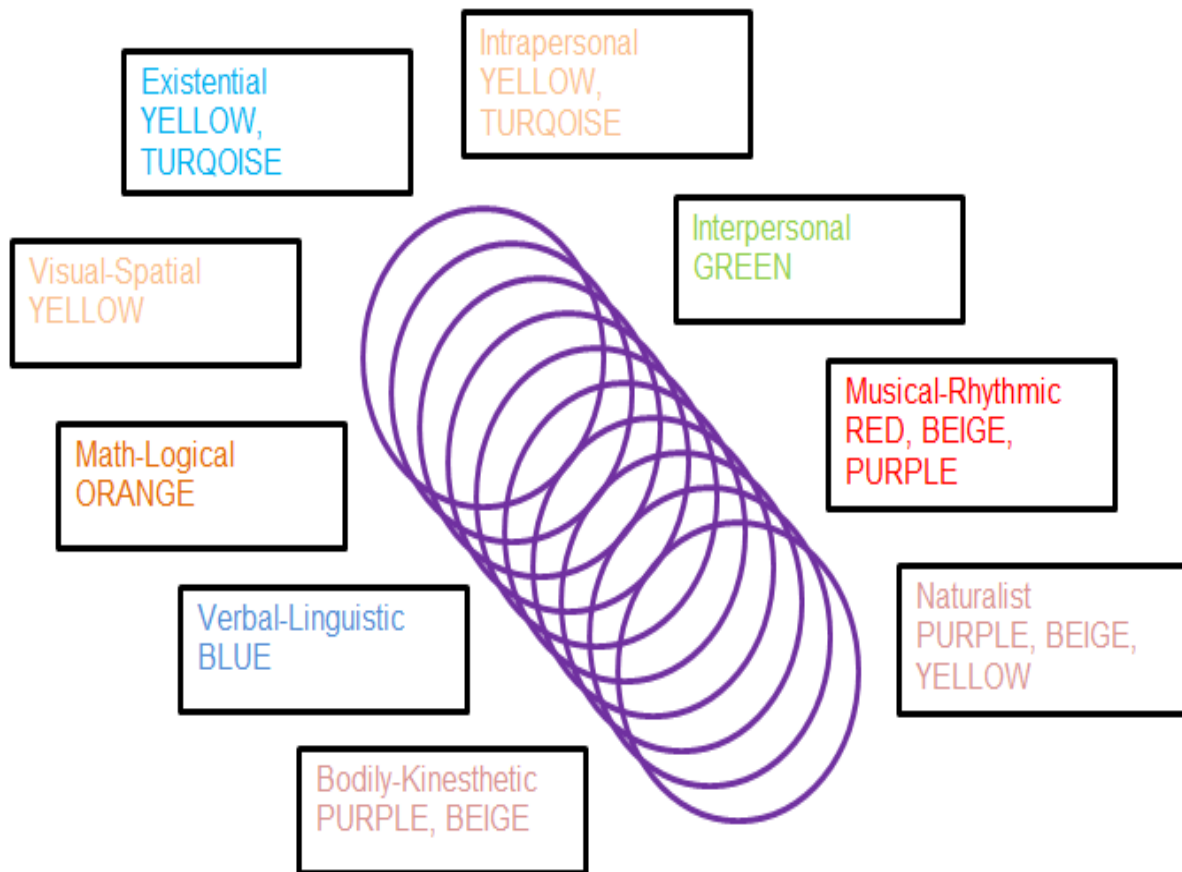


Figure 11.2: Human niche multiple intelligences

Figure 11.2 emphasises the fact that multiple intelligences reside on various points on the spiral. PURPLE, BEIGE and RED relate to body, music and nature. BLUE relates to language, while ORANGE relates to logic. GREEN intelligence is interpersonal. By contrast, PURPLE learns through the body; having a keen sense of body awareness, such individuals like movement and touch. Communication through

body language, hands-on learning and role playing work best to transfer messages effectively.

From a communication perspective, the same concern applies. Traditional communication forms such as memos, letters and presentations fall within the interpersonal intelligence and GREEN human niche which does not translate to the intelligences which form the foundation of PURPLE and RED learning. At a communication level, GREEN and interpersonal intelligence can cope with seminars, dialogues, audio conferencing, computer conferencing and e-mail. PURPLE and RED struggle with these methods.

Musicality is traditionally not encouraged in the corporate environment, yet RED and PURPLE relate most strongly to rhythm, lyrics and rhythmic speech (Laubscher, 2013). Reframing of traditional methods and approaches is clearly urgently required. Allowing music in the workplace, encouraging gumboot dancing or co-creating a company song could be a simple, yet effective way of harnessing rhythm, lyrics and rhythmic speech in the organisation.

Moreover, mind mapping (Buzan, 1993), six thinking hats (De Bono, 1992), applying a rule, building something and storytelling are relatively simple intervention technologies which can improve individual thinking skills while improving individual, social and group coherence. Story telling specifically speaks loudly to the PURPLE human niche.

World Café is a creative, facilitative process that allows collaborative dialogue and the sharing of knowledge and ideas in a café ambience setting. Participants move from one table to next at regular intervals, while the host remains, summarising the previous conversation for the new table guests. Conversations are thus cross-fertilised with ideas generated in former conversations (Slocum, 2005). PURPLE feels safe in smaller groups and may therefore be more willing to engage in such a smaller group.

However, given the large number of kinaesthetic learners, strategies such as regular breaks, using different venues for different activities, using open body language,

acting, learning through manipulation, speaking slowly, role playing and demonstration should further be incorporated into thinking skills development. Also, asking questions through kinaesthetic recall and imagination to establish, for example, what it felt like and what you would be doing, are vital strategies which should assist with the development of thinking skills. Furthermore, letter size and word placing are an important element that can assist the learnings of PURPLE (Laubscher, 2014). Organisations can translate their policies into pictures or plays. Utilising metaphors and the power of story telling could ensure broader and more effective translation of any organisational message.

Techniques such as speed reading (Godnig, 2003; Abdellah, 2009) and thinking skills (Caroselli, 2009) may benefit BLUE and ORANGE. Higher order thinking skills (HOTS) which involve analysis, evaluation and synthesis (Churches, 2006, 2008) as opposed to lower order thinking skills (LOTS) such as remembering and understanding (Wilson, 2000) could equally benefit BLUE and ORANGE as these human niches are able to learn in the traditional way and respect authority for the sake of authority.

Viljoen and Laubscher (2014) remind us that the African representation of PURPLE is close to 65%. Furthermore, PURPLE comprised a large portion of the system as discussed in chapter five. The PURPLE human niche thinks in a one-dimensional framework and abstract thinking is a challenge. PURPLE's time frame is a week at most. Therefore stories, parables and metaphors should translate the learnings into practicalities. Including the family in such stories would enable PURPLE to better engage in the desired learning (Laubscher, 2014).

RED needs games, competition and physical movement, learning through disappointment, pleasure, touch and instant gratification. Confining RED to classroom learning can never be optimal (Laubscher, 2014). Again, the large number of PURPLE and RED individuals in today's organisations requires a relook at training interventions. Traditional organisational training will remain difficult for the PURPLE and RED human niche.

The majority of employees fall within the PURPLE and RED human niches. Their learning methods, motivation, timeframe and thinking methods differ dramatically. Organisations need to acknowledge this and design interventions accordingly. A one-size-fits-all strategy cannot produce the required output at an organisational level.

#### **11.4 INTEGRATION**

Heartfelt positive emotions, such as love, appreciation, care and compassion, have long been associated with spiritual experience. However, because of a fundamental lack of mental and emotional self-management, such emotions and associated experiences of increased spiritual connectedness remain largely transient and unpredictable events in most people's lives (Childre and McCraty, 2001).

One benefit of switching humanity to a harmonised perception of the world is the resulting joy of discovering the mental nature of the universe. Although we do not know what this mental nature implies, we know that it is true. Another benefit of this viewpoint is the acceptance that nothing exists but observations - this is far ahead of peers who stumble through hoping to find out what things are. The universe is immaterial — mental and spiritual (Henry, 2005).

The qualities required to assist with the above are mostly feminine or Yin (as discussed in section 10.2.6). The numerate, technical, decisive, macho image (Kaje, 1977) continues to prevail in Western organisational settings. However, only through increased sensitivity and softness can individuals be equipped to embrace and interact positively with organisational change. An adapted and updated version of Kaje's (1977) chart is provided in figure 11.3 below.



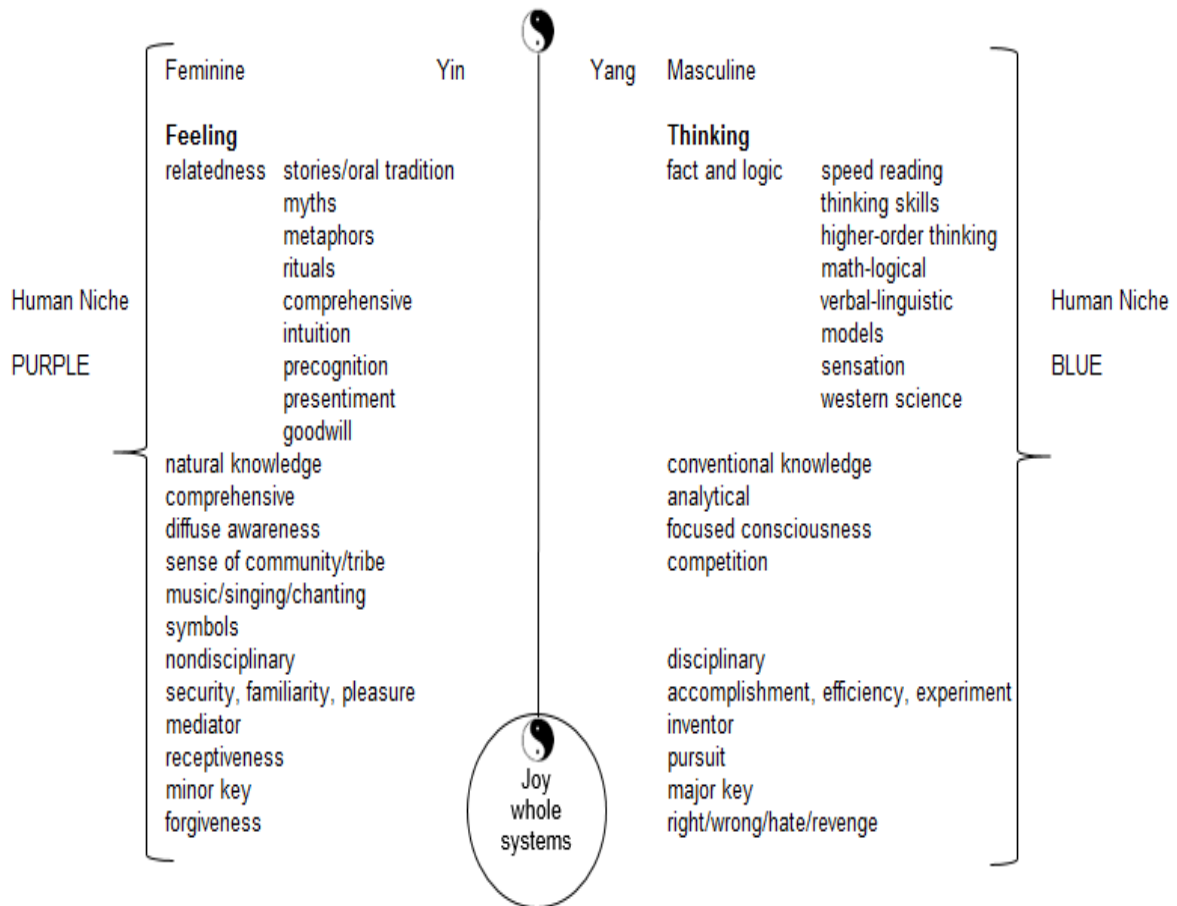


Figure 11.3: Adapted chart of yin and yang qualities (Kaje, 1977)

Figure 11.3 displays typical feminine (Yin) and masculine (Yang) characteristics. This adapted chart indicates the innate requirement of increased feminine qualities in organisations. Such increased feminine qualities include relatedness, myths, metaphors, rituals, intuition, presentiment, goodwill, symbols, security and familiarity. Yin (feminine) qualities are also depicted through use of the minor key. Application of the minor and major keys is detailed in appendix O. Increased feminine qualities intrinsically speak to PURPLE, creating safety, relatedness and a sense of community. These qualities are of vital importance to ensure a fully functional PURPLE. By contrast, figure 11.3 indicates how ill-fitting the thinking of BLUE is upon PURPLE.

MacDonald (2014) confirmed that all limitations are self-imposed. Any technique which allows the practitioner liberation from self-imposed limitations should be explored and practiced. This allows self-development and growth. Self-development

and growth imply moving from a space of stuckness to fluidity. Passing through life routinely, without reflection and openness to new experiences, denies us the opportunity of growth and reaching our full potential. If we are willing to become more open, opportunities will beckon, fear will subside and we will gift ourselves with new eyes. This applies at an individual, team and organisational level.

## **11.5 CONCLUSION**

Stress robs the individual of a deeper sense of well-being. However, commonality in all of the above intervention technologies is the deep concentration relating to the activity and/or exercise. Deep concentration allows one to enter a primal space. This could be perceived as the BEIGE human niche. Through deep focus, the individual can concentrate on nothing but the moment and the activity at hand. This in itself already has the potential to be liberating.

Emotions are maladaptive as a result of shock, uncertainty and disruption. Given the state of trauma and stress in South Africa, employees feel disconnected at a physical, emotional, psychological and spiritual level. Such disconnect restricts the ability of adaptive emotions. Constrictive adaptive emotions constrain successful organisational change.

Chapter twelve continues to explore body-based interventions. Alternative intervention technologies such as trauma-releasing exercises and shaking, yoga, meditation and breath-work will be explored. The benefits of meditation, shaking, symbolism and art will be investigated as physical, alternative intervention technologies which might aid successful organisational change.

Such alternative intervention technologies have not yet found their way into traditional organisational theory, but the essence of these alternative intervention technologies revolves around crucial conversations and actual organisational dilemmas. These interventions may thus contribute significantly to organisational understanding, awareness and eventual sustainable individual change – hence individual vicissitude.

## **CHAPTER 12: PHYSICAL INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES FOR SUCCESSFUL ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE**

### **12.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses physical or body-based alternative intervention technologies. James (1890) explicitly acknowledged the normally intimate association between the mental and the physical. The person-centred and synoptic approach of James (1890), however, was abandoned in favour of a much narrower conception of scientific psychology (Kelly, 2010).

“Emotion is the language of spirit; body is the language of mind” (Wyker, 2001:28). Looking holistically at alternative intervention technologies, this chapter focuses on the language of mind, exploring how body-based interventions could aid in successful individual vicissitude, which, in turn, could result in successful organisational change.

The role of the body in stress has been highlighted. Individuals comprise a body, soul and mind, yet we seem to forget how many emotions are stored in the body (Wyker, 2001). As such, if we are able to release these emotions at a bodily level, it should allow space for the development of consciousness, increased mindfulness and altered perceptions of ourselves, our teams, our organisations and society.

The alternative intervention technologies of meditation, breathing work, yoga, shaking and trauma releasing as well as art and symbolism will be discussed in an effort to provide explainable solutions, which could lead to the enfoldment of sustainable organisational change. The essence of these intervention technologies revolves around crucial conversations and actual organisational dilemmas. Hence these interventions could contribute significantly to organisational understanding, awareness and eventual sustainable change. Organisations require new, integrated models to holistically develop and enable individuals. The purpose of the discussion of body-based intervention technologies is to make a start towards formulating such an integrated approach.

According to the Tibetan Lama, Dr Ngawang (2010) the body is a mandala; if you look inside it is an endless source of revelation. However, without embodiment there

is no foundation for enlightenment (Ngawang, 2010). The body is often conceptualised as the interaction between subtle energies and matter. Health and disease are likewise regarded as manifestations of the relative strength, state of balance or state of imbalance between these presumed energies and complex biological structures and physiological processes (Lake, 2001).

Related to the purpose of organisational change, disease is regarded as dis-ease - a state opposite to that of ease. As such, body-based intervention technologies attempt to discover how ease can be re-attained in individuals which may subsequently result in individual and organisational benefits.

## **12.2 PHYSICAL INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES**

Given the evidence of increased stress, coupled with the reality of human niches and the seemingly inadequate, traditional organisational methods to address these, the focus of this section shifts to alternative body-based intervention technologies. These could be applied during organisational change to assist individuals with stress reduction in order to more fully participate and engage in a change initiative. These alternative intervention technologies would attempt to raise levels of individual consciousness and increase self-awareness, resulting in increased insight into the behaviours of others confronted by organisational change. Such interventions may also lead to enhanced levels of interpersonal skill, while allowing the possibility of altered perceptions and eventual individual vicissitude.

Personal growth and development are likely to alter the individual's and the leader's perception of others as well as of organisational change, which may reduce organisational resistance. The intended outcome is to promote effective leadership to create a conducive climate which includes diversity of thought (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008) to allow for altered perceptions and enhanced organisational change.

Intellectual awareness and insight seemingly do not promote significant emotional and behavioural improvement. Research suggests that the reason for this is that emotions and cognitions are processed in different areas and by different brain

structures (Zajonc, 1980; Davis, 1992). However, this information seems to remain poorly integrated with traditional interventions.

The body is intimately connected with the individual's mind, spirit and emotions. The body serves as a relevant vehicle to work with and resolve relevant issues (Fallon-Cyr and Fallon-Cyr, 2001). Bodily communication and manifestations are mostly unconscious and make themselves known through postures, sensations, gestures, aches and pains, and facial expressions. All experiences are processed through the body, and repetitive experiences turn into habits. These habitual patterns are used to manage feelings, psychological issues and trauma (Fallon-Cyr and Fallon-Cyr, 2001).

The individual is a whole person and much can be accessed in areas beyond the conscious mind. The body holds emotional information that can be accessed and processed through the body (Fallon-Cyr and Fallon-Cyr, 2001). As such, body-based interventions have the potential to improve and change individual self-talk and self-belief.

### **12.2.1 Shaking**

The complement to relaxation is arousal. Heightened arousal, whether through wild dancing, spontaneous jumping or body shaking, is as valuable a transformational practice as sitting quietly in meditation (Keeney, 2006). We have to let in the healing wisdom of Africa, allowing the shaking body to become as familiar to us as the quieted body (Keeney, 2006). Shaking is closely linked to the BEIGE human niche.

The world's oldest living culture, the Kalahari Khoi San, most likely holds the oldest healing practice on earth, based upon a disciplined way of arousing and orchestrating ecstatic body experience. San shamans are masters of spiritual expression. They know how to initiate the bodily shaking and how to use the shake as a medicine when they teach others. San shamans are able to enter the experiential universe through shaking (Keeney, 2006).

The elder San shamans of the Kalahari are descendants of the original custodians of shaking medicine. The San are extremely aware of the dangerous crisis the world is

facing and they have doubts about whether human beings will survive much longer. Thus, Kunta Boo of Tsumkwe, Namibia, granted Keeney full authority to speak about their healing practices and religious ways as follows: “We believe that we have helped hold together the threads and ropes of relationship that enable life to continue. Now, those threads have been weakened by human ignorance, selfishness, and greed. Our greatest hope for survival comes from understanding how shaking medicine can help us revitalise and strengthen the threads and ropes of life” (Keeney, 2006:ix).

Kunta Boo explained that essential aspects of the San’s healing ways were misunderstood or missed, resulting in incorrect assumptions which were repeatedly quoted as authoritative sources (Keeney, 2006). Key to this confusion was the fact that anthropologists misunderstood what they regarded as incoherent discourse, overlooking the different type of coherence and logic of the San. The San, in turn, called the anthropologists “line people” because they consistently saw things in simple lines (this leads to that) and were blind to circularity (everything is connected to/with everything) and the never-ending process of change that underlies all of life (Keeney, 2006) which strikingly resembles human niches (Laubscher, 2013).

Shaking is an enactment and body force that keeps changing everything. Shaking helps loosen over-attachment to a form, internal or external, that is in need of release. The San refer to n|om which is believed to permeate the living universe and arises from the changing force of creation. This is similar to the universal life force, prana, chi, ki, kundalini or Holy Spirit (Keeney, 2006).

There is more to shaking than trembling and quaking. Shaking opens a door to a plethora of experiential outcomes. Shaking transforms experiences and relationships while transforming the self and others. Through shaking, the San climb the rope to God, coming down with the sky village turns the line into a circle (Keeney, 2006). Systemic wisdom remembers that all parts are inseparable from their whole context, allowing us to see lines as parts of bigger circles. This metaphor echoes the value of mandalas, and the importance of this to PURPLE. As we pass the limits of mind, it becomes easier to expand our capacity for expression. If you want to stop thinking, start shaking (Keeney, 2006).

Table 12.1 displays a shaking timeline which confirms shaking to be as old as humankind. Shaking disappeared as shakers re-entered the world for work, medical care and education (Keeney, 2006). Drawing on the work of Laubscher (2013), the BLUE human niche can easily stifle shaking through its inherent fear, inflexibility and inability to accept strange and unfamiliar rituals. Jung (1961:206) reminds that “conscious capacity for one-sidedness is a sign of the highest culture, but involuntary one-sidedness, i.e., the inability to be anything but one-sided, is a sign of barbarism”. Unfortunately, when people feel and express their deepest freedom, the social institutions do their utmost to suppress the liberating spirit, covering it with an institutional shell and setting up explanations, routines and monitors to bring everybody back into control (Keeney, 2006).

Table 12.1: Shaking timeline (Keeney, 2006)

Date	Manifestation
2500 BC	I-Ching – Hexagram #51. When a man has learned with his heart what fear and trembling mean, he is safeguarded against any terror produced by outside influences.
Old testament	Ancient Hebrew tradition of enthusiastic dancing (King David danced with all his might – 2 Sam 6:14)
1300	Wild religious dancing (France and Netherlands); authorities used exorcism to stop this disease
1400	St Vitus dance broke out
16 <sup>th</sup> century	Religious upheaval in Europe. French prophets displayed violent agitations of the body. All these prophets shook and had visions
1600	George Fox created Quaker religion. When he spoke the whole congregation shook. Fox prophesied the 1666 London fire, but was imprisoned
1656	Fox and Quakers boarded a ship and stopped in Barbados where they converted settlers. Here they were jailed as witches as heretics and branded with a “B” (Blasphemer) on their foreheads
1600	Quakers fled to American Wilderness and lived with Indians. Start of shakers led by Mother Ann
1800	Start of Free Will Baptists of New England

Date	Manifestation
1805	Kentucky – people shook, displayed animal behaviour such as snapping teeth, barking and growling. Their gifts included laughing, drawing and painting
1836	France – Spiritual revival called “Mother’s work”. Participants displayed jerks, shaking movements that led to trance. Gifts included visions, revelations and songs
1880	Start of Indian Shakers – allowed as acceptable form of Shamanic practice, thus only Shamans were allowed to shake
1912	Shakerism in the Colony of St Vincent. Called the Spiritual Baptists. Rendered illegal, but repealed in 1965
1936	Split between traditional shakers and new shakers (Full Gospel). The new shakers believed you needed the Bible to guide you whether you were doing right or wrong. The traditional shakers felt you could use the Bible or not.
2010	Levine (2010) – the body shakes, shudders and trembles, alternating icy cold and feverishly hot

Table 12.1 indicates that shaking has been used for millennia. The San – as the oldest people on earth – used and still use shaking to heal and transcend the present. Unfortunately, persecution was maintained as shaking was considered a taboo.

Shaking has never stopped; it has been a taboo for centuries, yet remains highly relevant in bringing spirit back into our lives (Keeney, 2006). Shaking is the key that opens the door to the wild – for the Kalahari San, for Japanese practitioners of seiki jutsu or the Minnesota Ojibway. Shaking opens a portal to a larger experiential universe. This opens our hearts to accept all living beings and traditions. This is the home of the mystic, the old-time naturalist and the new-time shaker (Keeney, 2006). This speaks loudly to the mysticism of PURPLE.

Shaking allows individuals to come into touch with their animal aspects (Harner, 1982, 1963). The San believe that when the body is deeply aroused or emotionally



touched, the body shakes (Keeney, 2006). Another therapeutic practice that taps into the healing power of shaking is found in the life work of Levine (2010) who developed a method for treating the symptoms of trauma by investigating animal behaviour. The work of Levine (2010), was further built upon by Berceci (2006, 2012) and will be discussed in detail in the next section.

When you shake you may experience any of the following outcomes: highly charged excitement, simultaneous sense of deep relaxation and heightened arousal, vibrating, intense heat or cold, muscle twitches, awareness of an inner force, increased heartbeat, laughing or weeping, improved vocalisation, blissful feelings, intensified feelings of love, peace and compassion, creative expression and altered states of consciousness. One might also experience a deeper understanding of life, enlightenment, conversion or transcendent experiences (Keeney 2006).

The PURPLE and RED human niches relate strongly to rhythm. However, RED breathes through movement, dancing and by jumping up and down. As such, tremoring and shaking should appeal to both PURPLE and RED. Tremoring is a natural body reaction (Levine, 1966) which may increase PURPLE's feeling of safety. Furthermore, it is impossible to tremor correctly or incorrectly.

In the context of organisational change, shaking allows liberation from within. The oppressed find that shaking is a medicine for the suffering of the human spirit which sets them free and opens the doors to the kingdoms of bliss. Organisational change notoriously creates powerlessness, fear, uncertainty and stress. Organisational change largely causes individual suffering. Shaking can come as a huge liberator to people in the grip of powerlessness, fear, anxiety, stress and suffering. Liberation of suffering might allow the individual to participate in organisational change with deeper understanding, allowing increased experience within such changes. Furthermore, increased peace, compassion, creative expression and even laughter may improve individual awareness and ability in an organisational change context. Shaking allows such liberation.

During carefully facilitated sessions, shaking can be utilised in an organisational setting to reduce stress, anxiety and fear. The creation of a safe space is imperative,

and it is equally important for every individual to feel safe in the process. However, the resultant benefits could make it worthwhile to incorporate shaking as alternative intervention technology into an organisation's stress management programme.

Spiral dynamics (Beck and Cowan, 1996) and human niche theory placed the San in the BEIGE human niche (Laubscher, 2013). The focus of BEIGE is on survival. BEIGE is instinctive, seeking only food, water and warmth (Beck and Cowan, 1996). BEIGE forms loosely organised herd structures (Laubscher, 2013). Through a deep investigation of shaking and the San, the researcher became acutely aware that this is erroneous. Appendix N details this argument.

### **12.2.2 Trauma releasing**

"Traumatised individuals are disembodied" (Levine, 2010:282). Most Westerners share a less dramatic, yet impairing disconnection from their inner sensate compasses (Levine, 2010). Closely related to shaking, but packaged in a more "civil" manner, is the trauma releasing method developed by Berceli (2006). Although Berceli's (2006) thesis was developed as a result of trauma work, the undercurrents of shaking as developed and practised by the Kalahari San cannot be negated.

"Trauma is a fact of life. However, trauma is not, will not, and can never be fully healed until we also address the essential role played by the body" (Levine, 1997:3). Some cathartic methods encourage intense emotional reliving of trauma. This may be harmful, creating dependency on continuing catharsis which is more traumatising than healing (Levine, 1997). Body sensation is the key to healing trauma. The key to healing traumatic symptoms in humans is in our physiology (Levine, 1997).

In trauma, the mind becomes profoundly altered. Remarkable mechanisms such as dissociation and denial, freeze, fight or flight allows us to navigate through these critical periods (Levine, 1997). Trauma is the result of the most powerful drive the human body can produce (Levine, 1997). Psychology originally focused on the ego and the unconscious as the source of stress and anxiety, meaning that stress and anxiety were considered a product of social conditioning (Berceli 2006). Psychology approaches trauma through its effects on the mind. Unfortunately, this is wholly

inadequate. Body and mind, primitive instincts, emotions, intellect and spirituality must be considered together as a unit to understand and heal trauma (Levine, 1997).

Traumatic symptoms are not caused by the triggering event. They stem from the frozen residue of energy that has not been resolved and discharged. This residue stays in the nervous system where it remains trapped, causing havoc on our bodies and spirits (Levine, 1997). There is a theme present in traumatised people - they are unable to overcome the anxiety of their experience. They are overwhelmed by the event, defeated and terrified. They are imprisoned by their fear - they are unable to re-engage in life (Levine, 1997). Without easy access to the resources of this primitive, instinctual self, humans alienate their bodies from their souls (Levine, 1997). Trauma-releasing exercises, as developed by Berceli (2006), allow individuals to reconnect body, mind and soul.

The primitive world is still alive in all humans. When humans roamed the hills and valleys, gathering berries and hunting, living in caves, their existence was closely linked to the natural world. They were constantly on alert to defend themselves and their families. The life-threatening events prehistoric people routinely faced moulded our modern nervous systems to respond powerfully whenever we perceive our survival to be threatened. Unfortunately, modern life offers us few opportunities to use this powerful capacity. Consequently, most of us have become separated from our natural, instinctual selves – in particular, the part of us that can proudly, be called animal (Levine, 1997).

Through his work in traumatised areas such as Ethiopia, Sudan, Eritrea and Palestine, Berceli (2006) learnt that regardless of culture, language, religion or psycho-social background, traumatised individuals have access to a natural process genetically encoded in the body that enables us to recover completely from trauma. This is possible, but requires awareness of the body's restorative ability and actively encouraging the body to do its work (Berceli, 2006).

Our fear of exploring the effects of trauma is a resistance to our natural evolutionary impulses. This resistance constrains our life force and inhibits our internal growth ability. Unless we let go of this resistance, we cannot replace the shattered structure

of our sense of self with a healthy one (Berceli, 2006). Trauma causes a plethora of physical symptoms. Many of them will abate when we create a psychophysical climate that allows the body to heal itself (Berceli, 2006). The physiological reactions we experience in response to stress are different from the psychological state known as anxiety. Yet it is through the intricate interaction of these systems that anxiety is generated. Anxiety is both physiological and psychological (Berceli, 2006).

Regardless of how long ago a trauma occurred, the body always seeks to free us of its effects. Trauma will sooner or later surface as pain, discomfort, emotional pain or through unsocial behaviour (Berceli, 2006). When the brain perceives something as threatening, muscles respond through the flexor muscles which are located in the anterior of the body. When these contract, they inhibit the extensor muscles located in the posterior of the body, resulting in flexor withdrawal. This creates a foetal-like enclosure that causes us to feel safer by protecting our vulnerable soft parts – our genitals, vital organs and the head with its eyes, ears, nose and mouth (Koch, 1981). Two of the primary flexor muscles that contract to protect the underbelly of the human animal are the psoas muscles. This protective procedure, stored deep in the brain, automatically springs into action to contract these muscles when we are threatened, spontaneously taking us through the steps required to go through to contract the body for our safety (Berceli, 2006).

It is vital to be able to turn off this muscular response to stress (Berceli, 2006). New research acknowledges the role of the body in trauma. These new body techniques help the brain to shift into a state of empowerment, whereby it is no longer ruled by past cues but by functions in the present moment (Berceli, 2006). Various stress reduction techniques attempt to interrupt the conditioning activity of the HPA-axis. One of the most promising is physical exercise. It has not been clear whether there is an exercise routine that is useful for addressing emotional trauma (Berceli, 2006).

Herein lies the distinction between aerobic exercises and exercises that activate neurogenic tremors. The individual performing aerobic exercises is only capable of performing the exercises (and relaxation) to the degree that his or her cortex allows. Neurogenic tremors, however, are generated from within the limbic system of the brain. Since this system is not under conscious control, the individual is able to effect

changes in the limbic system that they could not do otherwise. Exercises with neurogenic tremors give the individual unconscious access to the limbic system which automatically reduces his or her stress response without conscious control or awareness (Berceli, 2006).

Much the same as the instinctual tremors in animals, tremors in humans are the natural response of a shocked or disrupted nervous system attempting to restore body and mind to homeostasis. Tremors can assist recovery because they do not cause us to relive the experience. Reliving traumatic experiences compounds the problem. Tremors help us extinguish the trauma by helping us turn off our fight, flight, or freeze mechanism. Tremors also discharge the excess energy from an aborted fight-or-flight response. Tremors quiet the HPA-axis in humans just as they do in other mammals. Such trembling is referred to as neurogenic tremors (Berceli, 2006).

Complex changes provide a message for the parts of the brain that store memories, primarily the amygdala and the hippocampus, for implicit and explicit memories of the traumatic event. If the human being survives the freeze response, these survival memories need to be stored as an event in the past, available for future use but no longer representing imminent threat. This process of sorting out, saving and discarding memories is achieved by a vital physiological process called the freeze discharge. Shaking or neurogenic trembling have been described as the discharge of such energy (Scaer, 2012).

Neurogenic tremors are primordial bodily experiences originating in the processes of the brain's procedural memory - they are a natural aspect of the genetic composition of the human organism (Berceli, 2006). According to Levine (1997), the key to restoring balance in humans following a traumatic experience lies in our ability to mirror the fluid adaptation of wild animals as they shake out and pass through the immobility response to become fully mobile and functioning. Levine (1997) terms this "somatic experiencing".

The brains of humans and other mammals – often called the triune brain – consist of the reptilian (instinctual) brain, the mammalian (limbic or emotional) brain and the

human (rational) brain. The parts of the brain that are activated by a perceived threat are shared with animals (Levine, 1997). Levine (1997) observed animal behaviour in the wild and found animals transformed from a state of activated vigilance to one of normal, relaxed activity. Once animals determine that they are no longer in danger, they begin to vibrate, twitch and tremble; this allows animals to move easily and rhythmically between states of relaxed alertness and tensed hyper vigilance (Levine, 1997).

Neurogenic tremors in humans, much the same as the instinctual tremors in animals, may be the natural response of a shocked or disrupted nervous system attempting to restore the neuro-physio logic homeostasis of the body (Feldman, 2004; Levine, 1997; Scaer, 2005). According to researchers, this restorative mechanism allows the organism to release itself from the hyper-arousal response in the human in the same way as it does in the animal species (Feldman, 2004; Scaer, 2001; Heller and Heller, 1977). Such tremors achieve extinction of the HPA-axis in humans as they do in other mammalian species (Levine, 1997; Scaer, 2005). The body elicits the tremors to complete the process of discharge of the intrinsic tremor reaction of the fight/flight response. By reinforcing and harnessing these primordial and instinctual tremors instead of treating them as pathology, humans, like animals, may be able to resolve the somatic manifestations of their sympathetic over-activity and restore the human organism to homeostasis (Levine, 1997).

Berceli (2012) proposed a self-directed, body-based method of stress reduction which allows individuals to process their own stress without the need to seek guidance from professionals. Berceli (2012) called this the Trauma Release Process™ which awakens and reengages the natural trembling mechanism that has been dormant inside us. When the body is allowed to tremor, the tremors release this tension, allowing the body to come more fully into the present moment (Berceli, 2012).

Berceli (2006) tested the effects of neurogenic tremors on stress and its subsequent feeling of anxiety. The neurogenic tremors were induced by performing an exercise routine consisting of six exercises. This exercise routine was designed to isolate and stress specific flexor muscles which evoked a mild tremor reaction (Berceli, 2006).

Berceli's (2006) research tested the physical and psychological effects of a unique exercise routine with college students.

This specific routine excluded the traditional aerobic components of endurance, intensity or resistance. Its unique quality was the elicitation of neurogenic tremors. These were created by performing a series of exercises that stretch the leg and pelvic muscles. The result of this unique stretching process produced an autonomic reaction of tremoring in the flexor muscles. This tremor reaction is believed to be a neurological response which produces physical relaxation as well as anxiety reduction (Levine, 1997; Scaer, 2005) by interrupting the HPA-axis which has been implicated in the psychology of stress (Selye, 1956; LeDoux, 1996; Zautra, 2003; Scaer, 2005; Kirschbaum and Hellhammer, 1994; Nater, *et al.*, 2005).

The initial awareness that accompanies access to our inner energetic field triggers a paradigm shift in our consciousness. The sense of our individuality and separateness from others is radically challenged by the tremoring experience. As we continue to repeat the tremoring, we reinforce this new paradigm of self. Each time the denser body-self releases its tension through tremoring, our true vibrational frequency grows stronger (Berceli, 2012).

Through continued tremoring, we gain greater clarity about our true self, and a more obvious connectedness to others (Berceli, 2010), as well as a significant reduction in anxiety (Berceli, 2006). Experiences of tremoring have been paradoxical: being a separate person, yet part of the collective whole. People experience feeling more like themselves, but at the same time completely connected to the universe (Berceli, 2012).

Levine (1997) concludes that body sensation, instead of intense emotion, is key to healing trauma. Thus healing trauma symptoms in individuals reside in our physiology (Levine, 1997). The suppression of the body's own balancing response to stress interferes with the natural healing process. The human organism requires the spontaneous shaking and trembling that is seen in the animal world. This shaking and trembling can heal trauma without long hours of therapy, without the painful reliving of memories and without a continuing reliance on medication (Levine, 1997).



One of the basic tenets of cognitive neuroscience, stating that experiences change the brain (Lillienfeld and O'Donohue, 2006), is key to this technique and argument, and has extensive applicability to all clinical contexts and therapeutic interventions. It follows that all the levels of complexity are understood to be intertwined in reciprocal chains of causation. Thus, if an intervention succeeds in producing a therapeutic change at any one of the levels, then there is the potential for a ripple effect to generate corresponding effects across the adjacent levels (Ilardi, Rand & Karwoski, 2006).

Weaver (2001) suggests that the ANS is the gatekeeper of the subconscious mind, and, as such, its healthy functioning is vital to our emotional life. A well-regulated body will, in turn, improve regulation of emotions and thoughts - in other words, reducing stress and anxiety, and thus building resilience to cope more effectively with future stressors. Moreover, because emotion systems coordinate learning, the broader the range of emotions experienced, the broader the emotional range of the self.

According to Berceli (2012), the Trauma Release Process™ can create a shift in consciousness - the vibrations created during the exercises afford us an opportunity to access the place where matter interfaces with pure energy. This allows a shift in consciousness; the emergence of a new paradigm. The tremors help dissolve our sensation of separateness, birthing us in a new sense of oneness. Tremoring helps us to reconnect with our essential being in the present moment (Berceli, 2012). Levine (2010) believes that consciousness actually unfolds through the development of body awareness and embodiment.

The Trauma Release Process™ is simple and painless, designed to evoke the body's shaking mechanism, thereby releasing the deep, chronic muscle contractions created by shock, stress or trauma. The exercises are designed to stress the seven thigh flexor muscles (commonly referred to as hip flexors). By using the body's natural muscle tremor process, the exercises relax all muscle patterns associated with stress (Berceli, 2012).



Reducing stress allows the individual to participate with increased ability and awareness in the process of organisational change. The Trauma Release Process™ creates a unique ability to reduce stress, allowing individuals to reach a state of homeostasis. More than 50 years ago, Bull (1951) discovered that feelings accessed through body awareness, as opposed to emotional release, bring us the lasting change that we so desire.

Research by McCann (2011) supports the above, indicating the ability of the Trauma Release Process™ and neurogenic tremors to reduce stress and anxiety while improving one's quality of life. However, McCann (2011) cautions that it remains for future research to delineate the neurological substrata.

It has been stated repeatedly that organisational change results in stress, fear and anxiety. Stress leads to a downshift of human niches. The reduction of individual stress and trauma could thus, firstly, inhibit a downshift of human niches. Secondly, the reduction of individual stress and trauma could potentially allow individuals to upshift their current human niches. An individual who is able to upshift to another human niche will perceive organisational change differently, while most likely being in a better position to cope with the related change and uncertainty.

The data collected in this research confirmed the very real problem of elevated stress levels during organisational change. The participants reported speaking to their pastors or peers, but experiencing little relief. Allowing a safe space where individuals can be assisted through the process of trauma releasing would probably result in the release of pent-up energy and feelings of anxiety. This, in turn, would result in increased energy levels. The individual, the organisation and society benefit when increased energy is available.

Applying the Trauma Release Process™ in an organisational change context could allow for a shift and unfoldment of individual consciousness while dissolving feelings of separateness. This, in turn, could result in the emergence of a new paradigm, which is so urgently required during times of organisational change. All that is required to apply the Trauma Release Process™ in an organisational setting is leadership open-mindedness, a safe setting and some yoga mats. Again,

incorporating the Trauma Release Process™ into an organisational stress management programme would be extremely beneficial.

### **12.2.3 Yoga**

Yoga is a complex and intricate system involving various philosophical traditions. The intention of this section is to briefly introduce some of the many benefits associated with the practice of yoga. According to Eastern philosophy, human beings have forgotten what they came here for. According to Turlington (2002), owing to all the stimulation outside of ourselves, we have lost ourselves. Many have lost the ability to feel things, and look to others for clarification and purpose when the answers are deep inside us. Yoga, through the yoking of our bodies, minds and hearts, allows us to awaken the spiritual energy hidden within, allowing us to reveal our highest capabilities (Turlington, 2002) through achieving states of insight that reveal the true nature of reality (Radin, 2013).

“Yoga is a superhuman principle working for a superhuman purpose, through a superhuman purpose, through a superhuman medium. We cease to be ordinary persons before this masterly science. When we enter the field of this knowledge of the ultimate science of the mystery of life, we do not enter it as a man or a woman. We do not enter it as a human being at all. We enter it as a principle” (Swami Krishnananda, 2014).

Yoga induces a remarkable extension of consciousness, being a transformative experience induced by technical means to achieve a definite psychic effect, or at least to promote it (Jung, 1959). The objective of yoga is to establish a mediatory condition from which creative and receptive elements will emerge. For the individual the psychological result is the attainment of ananda or bliss (Jung, 1961).

Yoga predates religion by hundreds of years. The goal of yoga is to achieve union with the absolute or true self, realising one’s own oneness with something higher than oneself. This practice allows for openness and versatility, allowing practitioners to focus on the physical, psychological or spiritual or on a combination of all three. Yoga is the practice of disciplining the mind, body and spirit to optimum capacity, mindfulness, compassion, grace and love. This is self-realisation (Turlington, 2002).

The word “yoga” translates to a vast body of spiritual beliefs, physical techniques and philosophy. At a spiritual level, yoga refers to the union of the individual self with the universal self, liberating the spirit from all sense of separation, freeing it from illusion of time, space and causation. It is only our own ignorance and inability to discriminate between real and unreal that prevent us from realising our true nature. Patanjali’s Yoga Sutras present the eight limbs of yoga, emphasising the restraint of mind and the coming in contact with the transcendental self through whole body focus. According to the Bhagavad Gita – probably the most powerful poem on yoga – yoga is skill and action, equanimity and balance. The Sanskrit word “asana” refers to the various postures. Prana refers to the vital life energy.

For many centuries it was believed that yoga arrived with the Aryan invasion around 1500 B.C.E. Table 12.2 indicates a yoga timeline, specifying that the philosophical traditions of yoga have been around for centuries.

Table 12.2: Yoga timeline (adapted from Radin, 2013)

Yoga incident	Yoga timeline
Indus Valley civilisation	2500 B.C.E – 1500 B.C.E
Vedic period begins	1500 B.C.E
Rig Veda revealed	1500 B.C.E. – 1200 B.C.E.
Flourishing of the Vedas	1200 B.C.E. – 500 B.C.E.
The Buddha b. Prince Siddhartha Gautama	600 B.C.E. - 500 B.C.E.
Upanishads written, end of the Veda	600 B.C.E. – 300 B.C.E.
Sanskrit codified by Panini	500 B.C.E.
The Mahabarata (plus Bhagavad Gita) is written. Major development of devotional faith in development of Patanjali’s Yoga Sutras and Hindu deities	500 BCE – 300 B.C.E.
Patanjali’s Yoga Sutras written	200 B.C.E – 800 B.C.E.

According to table 12.2, the Bhagavad Gita is dates close to the fifth century B.C. and is credited to the sage Vyasa. Between the fifth and second century B.C.E., the Indian sage, Patanjali compiled the Yoga Darshana, commonly known as the Yoga Sutras.

A parallel strand, gaining momentum in the brain-improvement field, relates to more profound objectives involving brain-training through gratitude journals and seeking happiness (Narayan, 2014). Students at Harvard University are studying ancient Chinese techniques with brain improvement at their core, albeit it using a different approach, but still attempting to change the brain from the inside out – through acceptance, gratitude, and equanimity. In India and China, both of which are ancient cultures, this includes movement techniques such as tai chi and yoga, meditation, breathing (the same as pranayama and called qigong in China), prayer and chanting. All these practices are supposed to improve the brain and deliver mindfulness (Narayan, 2014).

Today, we would associate the elementary wisdom with psychic phenomena, including telepathy, clairvoyance, precognition and psychokinesis (Radin, 2013). However, traditional yoga wisdom is merely refined expressions of everybody's potential by purifying the relationship between the physical world and consciousness (Radin, 2013). In some ways, yogic knowledge is thousands of years ahead of where science is today (Radin, 2013).

### **12.2.3.1 Various yoga methods**

There are various paths of yoga. Each path is suited to a different temperament or life approach. All paths lead to the same destination – union with pure consciousness – and the lessons of each path must be integrated in order to attain true wisdom. “Yoga inverts the relations to the object” (Jung, 1961:119). Yoga, deprived of energy, sinks into unconsciousness, entering new relations with other unconscious contents, which then re-associate themselves with the object in a new form (Jung, 1961). Yoga explores the cosmos through inner vision (Keeney, 2006).

The four parts of the Yoga Sutras are as follows: (1) Samadhi Pada, a list of aphorisms about meditative absorption; (2) Sadhana Pada, aphorisms on yoga practice; (3) Vibhuti Pada, aphorisms on extraordinary abilities; and (4) Kaivalya Pada, aphorisms about liberation (Radin, 2013). These Yoga Sutras teach enlightenment through dispassion as well as absorption through deep meditative states (Radin, 2013).

Astanga Vinyasa yoga is believed to be the original asana practice intended by Patanjali. Vinyasa emphasises breath-synchronised movement as a method of synchronising progressive series of postures with a specific breathing technique. This technique is called ujjayi pranayama (victorious breath), a process producing intense internal heat and a profuse sweat which purifies and detoxifies, resulting in improved circulation, a light and strong body and a calm mind.

Iyengar (1969) taught that all eight aspects of astanga are integrated in the practice of asana and pranayama and that these practices teach anyone to concentrate on any subject of choice, thereby exercising the mind. Iyengar (1969) focused on standing asanas, teaching through the practice of yoga that you can become the best that you can be at whatever you apply yourself to. Asanas are reflection in action, requiring absolute mindfulness. According to Iyengar (1969) the performance of an asana requires disciplines inflected with yama (ethical behaviour) and niyama (self-discipline).

Kundalini yoga or the yoga of awareness was passed down selectively and verbally from master to disciple. Kundalini is an invigorating practice, stimulating the nervous and immune systems while helping to centre one's mind and open one's spirit. Kundalini means the curl of the lock of hair of the beloved; a metaphor to describe the flow of energy and consciousness that already exists in each of us. Kundalini deals with prana and teaches how to use this energy. At a physical level, Kundalini balances the glandular system, strengthens the nervous system and enables the practitioner to harness the energy of mind and the emotions.

Kundalini literally means coiled. Believers liken kundalini to a snake coiled at the base of the spine. They hold that kundalini is primordial cosmic energy and that it is ordinarily dormant. Yogic practices such as pranayama allegedly can activate kundalini energy (Raso, 1994). Keeney (2006) claims that kundalini follows the same principles of energy awakening as San shaking.

Bikram is a warm practice, generally in studios heated to 32 degrees Celsius. The heat enhances the mind while systematically moving fresh, oxygenated blood to each organ and fibre of the body. Siddha refers to a perfected yogi, one who has

attained the state of unity-consciousness or enlightenment. This path believes that self-realisation is possible for all, behind the mind and ego. Kripalu yoga is the yoga of consciousness or wilful practice. This path is based on asanas with the emphasis on listening to one's own body for feedback through the postures. The goal of Kripalu is both psychological and physical improvement.

Jnana yoga is the yoga of knowledge or wisdom which requires strength and intellect. Raja yoga is the science of physical and mental control. The various Jnana paths include viveka (the technique of intellectual discernment or discrimination of the true self from distractions), neti-neti (the technique of discarding thoughts and distractions which are not the true self), vicara (the technique of internal examination and reflection), vairagya (the practice of detachment), shad-sampat (the path of six virtues) and mumukshutva (intense longing for liberation). Raja yoga is often called the royal path as it includes all eight limbs of yoga, offering a comprehensive method for controlling the waves of thought by turning our mental and physical energy into spiritual energy (Turlington, 2002).

Kataria (2002) found laughter to be extremely beneficial to mental and physical health and field-tested the impact of laughter on him and others. Kataria (2002) found that more laughter was needed to improve health and to cope with the stress of modern living; this led to the launch of a laughter club. Kataria (2002) found that the body is unable to differentiate between pretend and genuine laughter. Incorporating this knowledge with pranayama exercises led to laughing yoga.

Laughter yoga sessions start with gentle warm-up techniques which include stretching, chanting, clapping and body movement. These help break down inhibitions and develop feelings of childlike playfulness. Breathing exercises are used to prepare the lungs for laughter, followed by a series of laughter exercises that combine the method of acting and visualisation techniques with playfulness. These exercises, when combined with the strong social dynamics of group behaviour, lead to prolonged and hearty unconditional laughter. Laughter exercises are interspersed with breathing exercises (USA, 2013). Twenty minutes of laughter is sufficient to develop full physiological benefits (Kataria, 2002).

A laughter yoga session may finish with laughter meditation. This is a session of unstructured laughter whereby participants sit or lie down and allow natural laughter to flow from within like a fountain. This is a powerful experience that often leads to a healthy emotional catharsis and also a feeling of release and joyfulness that can last for days. This can be followed by guided relaxation exercises (Kataria, 2002).

Laughter yoga typically starts with clapping and warming up exercises which stimulates acupuncture points in the hands and increases energy levels. Rhythm is then added to the clapping, followed by movement. Humming is also incorporated into the exercises. Deep breathing exercises follow, which help to flush the lungs, resulting in mental relaxation. Breathing is followed by laughter exercises. These exercises may particularly appeal to the PURPLE and RED human niche.

Page (2012) found laughter yoga to be a good mind, spirit and body medicine which allows the individual to see life lightly while seeing things in a light and laughter mood. Having the laughter tools in your toolbox offers the individual the ability to activate the inner spirit of laughter (Page, 2012). Very often, the key to stress management involves humour (Garrick, 2006). “Tension and anxiety can immediately be relieved by a smile or a laugh” (Garrick, 2006:173).

Unfortunately humour is often denied and perceived as inappropriate in the adult world (Adams, 1993). Yet humour is a human trait summoned to combat a stressful situation, enhance a sense of belonging and/or to diffuse tension (Garrick, 2006). Various studies showed that deliberately induced laughter, when practised consistently, significantly reduces emotional tension, reduces anxiety, and has a sustained lessening effect on depression, coupled with improved cardiovascular effects (Paprocki, 2011; Cousins, 1981; Levine, 1966). Laughter was also found to reduce pain (Kataria, 2013a), increase social bonding (Kataria, 2013a), improve asthma, allergies and arthritis (Kataria, 2013b; Paprocki, 2011) and diabetes (Kataria, 2013c, 2013d).

Individuals are able to control laughter. One can always choose to laugh. The power of laughter is incomparable. There are few things which such power over our body,



mind and spirit. Individuals would become unstoppable if they could readily tap into this power (Pokorny, 2011). Laughter is the best medicine.

### **12.2.3.2 Chakra healing (tantra yoga)**

Tantra yoga proposes seven chakras or wheels of spiritual power, lined up along the spine. Each chakra or localised vortex of vibrating energy is represented as a lotus flower with a unique number of petals, signifying each location's energetic expression (Keeney, 2006). The goal of tantra yoga, as with kundalini, is to awaken the kundalini upwards in the spine, allowing the whole being to become fully awakened (Keeney, 2006).

The chakras are vital energy centres in the body that can be activated and harmonised, leading to improvements in physical and mental health, psychological stability and inner peace. The chakra teaching system addresses the development of the whole person. Yoga is a philosophical system and meditative practice directed towards the mastery of one's body and mind. The first reference to chakras is found in the Vedas, the most ancient religious texts of India, dating around 1500 B.C.E. (Govinda, 2002). One of the fundamental ideas that inform the chakra teachings is that there is more to reality than what we perceive with our five senses. Other levels of reality can reveal themselves in visions, premonitions, meditation and trance (Govinda, 2002).

Chakra means wheel or turning in Sanskrit, and is found in the subtle energy system. The chakras revolve continuously and through their rotation, they absorb energies from without and convert them into the subtle material of the astral body. Each chakra forms a focal point for thousands of rays of subtle energy which are then directed outward (Govinda, 2002). In traditional writings, there are up to 88 000 chakras, with seven principal chakras. These seven principal chakras are indicated in figure 12.1. Chakras are associated with particular colours, symbols, mantras, elements and deities. Chakra work serves to activate the body's seven primary chakras (Govinda, 2002).





Figure 12.1: The seven principal chakras.

Figure 12.1 indicates the seven principal chakras. These chakras are the root, sacral, naval, heart, throat, forehead and crown. Each of these chakras will be discussed in detail below. The seven chakras symbolise different stages of human development. Being involved in these different levels of being, an individual can actualise his or her potential through the use of this holistic method (Govinda, 2002).

Energy flows freely in health and is blocked in illness (Leskowitz, 2001). Chakra work postulates that this living energy is concentrated in certain areas or regions of the body. Each energy centre or chakra regulates a particular emotional quality by transforming this universal life energy or prana to the appropriate frequency (Leskowitz, 2001).

Reich (1986) believed that individuals would develop character armour - a sum of typical character attitudes which aid in blocking breakthroughs, resulting instead in bodily rigidity and emotional deadness. These blocks become a way to avoid emotional pain (Fallon-Cyr and Fallon-Cyr, 2001). Releasing these blocks allow the individual to readjust his or her energy, beliefs and body to more authentically reflect natural expression (Fallon-Cyr and Fallon-Cyr, 2001).

Chakras can be activated through breathing techniques and asanas (yoga postures) as well as through aromatherapy and precious stones that benefit body, mind and spirit. The beneficial effects on the body include strengthening the body's defences, harmonising the cardiovascular system, detoxifying and improving the functioning of internal organs, healing circulatory problems, strengthening the metabolism and

increasing the retention of oxygen. Beneficial effects on the mind include reduced anxiety, relaxation, deep and peaceful sleep, addictions are more easily overcome and mental fatigue disappears. Beneficial effects on the spirit include improved concentration, sharper memory, elimination of negative thinking, clarity of mind and spirit, seeing what is really important and recognising one's true purpose in life (Govinda, 2002). The seven principal chakras and the benefits of working with them are discussed in appendix O.

The state of the chakras influences all our organs, the skeleton, the hormonal, digestive, circulatory and nervous systems; in short, the entire organism. Chakra teaching asserts that behind every ailment lies a problem with the flow of energy which disturbs the organism's equilibrium. Chakra healing is not oriented towards relieving illness. Chakra healing entails an inner freeing, a maturation, that re-establishes healthy equilibrium (Govinda, 2002). Working with the chakras thus allows for the creation of a new openness, a new willingness to look at life differently. Chakra healing is directed towards the entire organism, opening up possibilities of healing and growth at a bio-psycho-social level, which is exactly what organisational change requires of the individual.

Stimulation of the root chakra could aid PURPLE to feel an increased sense of trust and orientation. This could be achieved through the use of C and C# major music, humming and drumming which should increase PURPLE's feeling of belonging. Again, these methods should resonate with PURPLE as there is no correct or incorrect way of humming or drumming. Organisations are constantly seeking ways to increase or improve trust. Through the root chakra, increased trust can be achieved.

Reinforcement of the heart and naval chakras ought to assist RED. Stimulating the heart chakra speaks to the need for touch in RED. The focus of the heart chakra on the development of empathy aids the lack of feeling and poor boundaries which are often visible in RED. Music, specifically bowed instruments in the key of F and F#, mitigates this lack of feeling.

Chakra healing is one method to release blocked-up energy, resulting in deeper self-understanding. Working on the naval chakra will assist RED to improve self-control and will-power. Stringed instrument music in the key of E and E# mitigates aggression, insecurity, uncertainty and anxiety, which are often closely related to RED behaviour.

In an organisational context, a combination of colour, sound, imagery and rhythm could be used to improve trust, creativity and image of self. Through the use of methods such as colour, sound, imagery and rhythm, an individual's confusion, poor concentration, anxiety, aggression, basic fear and lack of trust could be improved.

At an organisational level, the ability to reduce aggression, insecurity, increased trust and orientation has understandable benefits. Reducing such negative emotions allows for the budding of positive characteristics. Being able to change aggression to openness and approachability, insecurity and uncertainty to security and confidence has the potential to completely alter the organisational landscape. Allowing new values such as trust, support, reliance and confidence could result in the meaningful alteration of organisational relationships.

### **12.2.3.3 Yoga conclusion**

The movement of yoga postures, especially those in laughter yoga, should appeal to the RED human niche. The PURPLE human niche will relate to the rhythm and humming of laughter yoga. Hence bringing conscious awareness to the breath, could awaken both PURPLE and RED through the intentional sharing of such knowledge while reducing anxiety and stress.

Obvious physical benefits, such as simple stretches based on yoga asanas can ensure that the bodies of factory floor workers are warmed up before the start of a shift resulting in reduced injuries. However, personal transformation, improved concentration and the ability to look at life differently are far more important.

Although yoga can be seen as a comprehensive programme of self-development which includes the systematic appearance of higher states of consciousness, yoga can be simplified in an organisational context. Organisational yoga might involve

easy movement to increase blood flow (especially helpful for RED). As a next step, conscious breathing could be added to these stretches (PURPLE does not breathe consciously), and thereafter imagery (based on chakra principles) could be added. Through these steps, yoga can increase bodily awareness and feelings of connectedness and belonging. Such feelings reduce disconnect and promote increased interaction, collaboration and appreciation for the uniqueness of different individuals.

The mysticism associated with yoga may appeal to the PURPLE human niche when packaged correctly. The BLUE human niche can be extremely rigid, inflexible and unyielding. The benefits of yoga to this human niche could be increased flexibility, grace and kindness with clear and evident benefits to groups and organisations alike.

Given the high stress levels experienced during organisational change, it seems imperative that organisations rethink and reframe methods of employee assistance. Traditional employee assistance programmes were typically designed in BLUE; as such these programmes do not resonate, assist or relieve the stress experienced by PURPLE and RED. Organisations require higher levels of consciousness, new openness and a willingness to see differently. Organisations could therefore consider an alternative treatment/assistance centre. In such a centre for change, the extension of consciousness could be explored through simple yoga methods. Through chakra healing, the creation of a new openness, a new willingness to look at life differently could be explored. This, in turn, could result in changed perceptions.

Organisational change and yoga are both complex and intricate systems. Interconnectedness between these systems could yield various benefits to the individual and the organisation. Individuals often forget or never understand the reasons behind organisational change. Given the resultant stress, individuals lose themselves and their ability to feel, clarify, find purpose and adapt. Yoga and chakra work could help individuals to reawaken their innate strength to the benefit of themselves and their organisations. Incorporating yoga and chakra work into an organisational change management session could be beneficial to reduce stress, but also to increase shared cohesion and purpose.

## **12.3 OTHER INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES**

### **12.3.1 Meditation**

Not long ago, meditation, the practices of yoga and acupuncture were relatively unknown and definitely not mainstream Western culture. Many people feared meditation – and some still do. Xenophobia describes this unfounded fear (Keeney, 2006). However, today we know that meditation allows us to live more fully in the present moment with awareness and in peace (Turlington, 2002). St Francis of Assisi taught that the objective of meditation was to achieve a loving, simple and permanent attentiveness of the mind to divine things. Meditation provides a space in which attention is brought back to the simple, yet profound reality, of being. However, meditation can be as practical as simply turning the thoughts inward, the going inside of ourselves to prove the questions of deeper levels of consciousness. Today we are starting to understand that meditation is about expanding and clarifying awareness, not about contracting it (Radin, 2013).

Meditation probably started in the original hunter-gatherer societies as people entered into altered states of consciousness while staring at the flames of their fires. Then, over 5 000 years ago, the disciplined practice of meditation was described in the Indian scriptures or tantras (Keeney, 2006). According to the Mahabarata, one who enters meditation must be a master over anger, worldly attachment, sense desires, free from duality, void of self-seeking and empty of expectation.

Meditation produces an increase in coherence and interhemispheric correlation (Orme-Johnson, Clements, Haynes & Badaoui, 1966). Unfortunately, in Western cultures we are never taught to explore meditation and the stilling of the mind (Martino, 2014). When we begin to consider the benefits of meditation, we can start to imagine how different our world might look if everyone, or even the majority of people, were to begin practicing meditation more regularly. An increase in mindfulness, happiness, care, and empathy for others could make an impact on our world. Meditation can further reduce stress and improve memory. As opposed to many of the practices we do in our society today, drinking, smoking, drug use, pharmaceuticals for everything, television, which are all seen as generally acceptable, imagine if a portion of the time spent doing destructive things to our body

and mind could be replaced with meditation (Lazar, 2009, 2014). Meditation could truly change outcomes.

These are certainly some interesting things to ponder when one realises that many of the issues we see daily in our world stem from a lack of mindfulness and a takeover of egoistic individuality where we lose sight of how our actions might affect others or how we can get caught up in taking things personally. Research has shown that meditation makes people connect better with others and feel more compassionate towards them. Because many of our daily and worldly challenges stem from seeing others as a problem to our own lives, being able to see beyond these perceived perceptions and gaining a connection to others could instead create a more peaceful and joyous reality (Lazar, 2009). In an organisational setting, the practice of meditation could be incorporated into a stress management or change management programme in order to increase mindfulness, compassion and connection with peers.

Many of our world's problems are not necessarily due to the structures around us presenting limitations but because the consciousness or mind-set that acts as the foundation for our world is creating this experience. To change our world from the source, a change in mind-set (consciousness or world view) would trigger a different understanding of how we could live and create our world. Instead of simply operating from belief and programming as we do today, we could strip that away and create from a space connected with our hearts and true selves. This would drastically change our world (Lazar, 2009).

Neuroscience research has proven that meditation and mindfulness training can cause neuroplastic changes (the brain's ability to restructure itself after training) to the grey matter of the brain (Lazar, 2009). In Tibetan Buddhism, the concept of neuroplasticity has been around for a long time, using the term "le-su-rung-wa", which means pliability. Scientific evidence supports the benefits of meditation, showing that the part of the brain that responds most to stress becomes smaller with meditation. This means anxiety and depression naturally fade with meditation practice (Lazar, 2014).

Meditation has shown to decrease stress and increase happiness, quality of life and the grey matter in the brain, making people more compassionate, lowering blood pressure and increasing memory (Martino, 2014). Growing evidence points towards the acquisition of navigational knowledge, learning new tasks such as juggling as well as meditation practice can lead to significant changes to brain structures. Lazar, *et al.*, (2005) used MRI to reveal that experienced meditators had a thicker cortex than non-meditators. This was particularly true for brain areas associated with attention and sensory processing.

Harvard neuroscientists researched the benefits of meditation on the brain and its effect on mindfulness. Practicing meditation actively changes the brain, increasing our well-being and quality of life as indicated in figure 12.2 below.

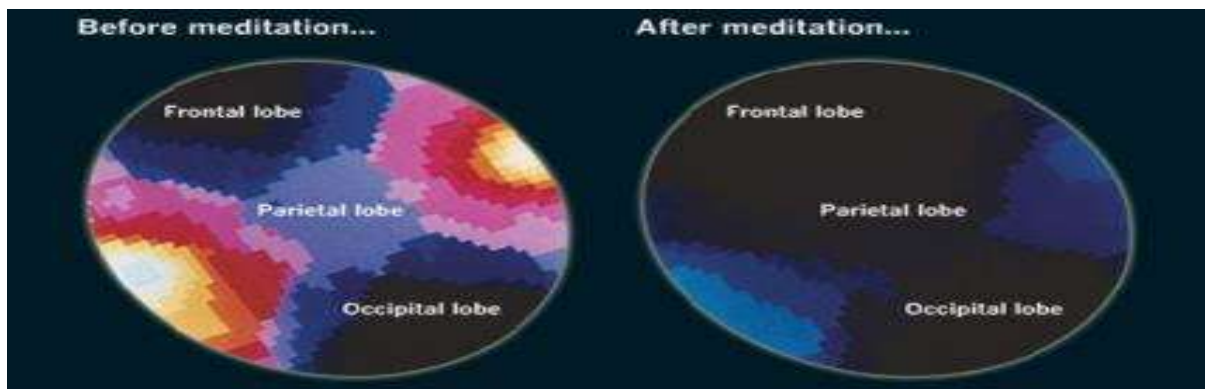


Figure 12.2: Before and after meditation MRI scans (Lazar, 2009)

During meditation, our brains stop processing information, which is generally indicated by beta waves. When beta waves decrease, we see a decrease in information processed (Lazar, 2009). Figure 12.2 shows how and where beta waves are decreasing the most, and is indicated by the colour changes in figure 12.2. Furthermore, the frontal lobe, which is responsible for reasoning, planning, emotions and self-conscious awareness, goes offline. The parietal lobe processes sensory information providing time and space orientation and slows down during meditation. The thalamus is the gatekeeper for the senses. Meditation reduces the flow of information to the thalamus to a trickle. As the brain's sentry, the reticular formation receives incoming stimuli and puts the brain on alert; meditation dials back arousal signals (Lazar, 2009).



Another study compared long-term meditators with matched control participants and found that meditators had larger grey matter volumes than non-meditators in brain areas that are associated with emotional regulation and response control (the right orbito-frontal cortex and the right hippocampus) (Luders, Toga, Lepore & Gaser, 2009). Hölzel, *et al.*, (2011) compared existing differences between meditators and non-meditators and found that the meditating group had increased grey matter in the left hippocampus, a brain area strongly involved in learning and memory.

Using diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) Tang, Lu, Fan, Yang & Posner (2012) found after four weeks of meditation that changes in white matter (which is strongly involved in interconnecting brain areas) were present in the meditating group. These changes involved the anterior cingulate cortex, a part of the brain that contributes to self-regulation.

Across meditative traditions, advanced practitioners occasionally report transcendental states of deep absorption (Cahn, 2006; Newberg, Alavi, Blaise, Pourdehnad, Santanna & D'Aquili, 2001). During such experiences, common distinctions—between subject and object, I and you, past, present and future—begin to diminish. With sufficient practice all distinctions are said to dissolve into an undifferentiated or nondual state of awareness, sometimes accompanied by an impression of timelessness or a vastly extended present moment (Josipovic, 2010).

Patanjali wrote about samyama in the Yoga Sutras, explaining that those who achieve stability in samyama could experience extraordinary mental abilities, one of which was described as the ability to simultaneously perceive past, present, and future. A growing body of empirical data shows that some advanced meditators have capacities once thought to be impossible (Walsh and Shapiro, 2006). Examples include voluntary control of the autonomic nervous system, inhibition of the startle response, control of binocular rivalry and motion-induced blindness, control of pain, lucidity during sleep and dream states and sustained selective attention (Carter, Presti, Callistemon, Ungerer, Liu and Pettigrew, 2005; Goleman, 2003; Kakigi, *et al.*, 2005; MacLean, *et al.*, 2010; Mason and Orme-Johnson, 2010; Peper, *et al.*, 2006).



As old assumptions yield to new data, some meditation researchers have proposed that what used to be regarded as ordinary “is increasingly coming to look like a form of arbitrary, culturally determined, developmental arrest” (Shapiro, Walsh & Britton, 2003:69). Research by Childre and McCraty (2001) linked sustained positive emotion to a distinct mode of physiological functioning, termed “psychophysiological coherence”. This mode, characterised by heart rhythm coherence, increased heart brain synchronisation and entrainment of diverse physiological oscillatory systems is associated with increased emotional stability, improved cognitive performance and a range of positive health-related outcomes. Individuals frequently report feelings of increased spiritual connectedness during psychophysiological coherent states. All of the above can be realised through meditation.

Psychophysiological coherence allows the individual to experience greater connectedness – to other people, to a larger whole or to a higher aspect than oneself. Religious scholars, artists, scientists, medical practitioners and lay authors have written extensively on the transformative power of positive emotions. Recent research corroborates what we have long known intuitively, providing objective evidence that positive emotional states may indeed be key to optimal functioning, enhancing nearly all spheres of human experience (Childre and McCraty, 2001). Positive emotions have been demonstrated to improve health and increase longevity (Blakeslee, 1996; Russek and Schwartz, 1996; Danner, Snowdon & Friesen, 2001; Goldman, Kraemer & Salovey, 1996), increase cognitive flexibility and creativity (Ashby, Isen & Turken, 1999; Isen, 1999), facilitate broad-minded coping and innovative problem solving (Aspinwall, 1998; Fredrickson, 1990; Isen, Daubman & Nowicki, 1986), and promote helpfulness, generosity and effective cooperation (Isen, 1986).

Unfortunately, today we find that sustained positive emotions are not as prevalent in most people’s lives as we might expect. Such states, along with their numerous benefits, remain, for the most part, transient experiences in people’s lives, occurring randomly, and dependent to a large degree on arrangements of external events (Childre and McCraty, 2001).

Bad versus good was discussed in depth in chapter nine in terms of the predominance of negative thoughts and emotions as displayed in the data. This human negativity bias - the natural tendency to focus on input (including thoughts and emotions) perceived as negative to a greater extent than neutral or positive stimuli – is a very real phenomenon with a sound neurophysiological basis (Ito, *et al.*, 1998). Although most people would definitively claim that of course they love, care and appreciate, it might shock people to realise the extent to which these feelings are merely assumed or acknowledged cognitively, far more than they are actively and intentionally experienced in the feeling domain. In the absence of conscious efforts to engage, build and sustain positive perceptions and emotions, many of us automatically fall prey to emotions and attitudes such as irritation, anxiety, worry, judgementalness, feeling overwhelmed, self-doubt and blame (Childre and McCraty, 2001). Meditation trains us in discrimination, sensing what is right and what is wrong. Meditation develops will - the ability and desire to hold to one-pointedness and discrimination in the face of confusion and distractions. Meditation creates willingness to move through chaos without distraction (Pearce, 2003).

Meditation, silence, improved self-awareness and mindfulness hold the possibility of minimising negative thinking patterns, allowing more positive thoughts to emerge. During times of organisational change and or stress, positive thoughts will enhance optimal functioning as well as mental abilities. Furthermore, the meditative intervention technology can help the individual to experience a more unified state of awareness, experiencing increased interconnectedness, leading, in turn, to reduced anxiety and the ability to life more fully in the present moment with awareness and in peace.

During times of organisational change, meditation will also result in fewer negative emotions in individuals. Over time, meditation will reduce feelings of stress and anxiety, resulting in increased happiness, contentedness and perhaps even productivity. Furthermore, meditation enables individuals to stay on a task longer as a result of improved and sustained concentration. Switching between tasks may become more effective, coupled with improved cognitive and emotional functioning. Meditation also improves self-esteem and self-motivation, reduces emotional volatility and improves general coherence. Creating a quiet space in the organisation

which can be utilised as part of an organisational change initiative may be beneficial. Meditation may reduce employees' emotional volatility, which will improve all aspects of organisational change.

Meditation skills must be learnt. However, once an individual comprehends the method, these skills can be applied in the office, at one's desk. Observing breath, repeating a mantra or even just smiling can increase mindfulness. Meditation may lower individual stress levels with obvious benefits to the organisation. These benefits might relate to increased emotional stability, improved cognitive performance, increased interconnectedness and improved individual coping. In an organisational change context, negative thoughts and emotions were shown as prevalent. Few organisations do not require a shift from negative to positive. Organisational change attempts should benefit through an individual willingness to move from chaos, distraction and confusion to one-pointedness and improved ability to distinguish.

### **12.3.2 Breathing**

The Hatha Yoga Pradipika states that as long as there is breath in the body, there is life. When breath departs, so does life. When the breath wanders, the mind is unsteady, but when the breath is still, the mind is still. For all of us, life begins with our first breath and ends with our last. This act of breathing, which has become an unconscious act for many, is responsible for sustaining our vital energy and keeping us alive.

Breathing plays a central role in many aspects of emotional health and our existence depends on our moment-to-moment participation in the process of breathing (Sultanoff, 2001). Breath can reconnect us to our vitality and capacity to feel and experience. Open, relaxed breathing enhances energy, allowing the individual to re-attune with the natural world and its universal rhythms, eliminating the boundaries between what is inside and what is outside (Sultanoff, 2001).

#### **12.3.2.1 Pranayama**

Breathing is essential to living. Pranayama is integral to yoga because breath control is a vital factor in the control of the mind. The Sanskrit word "pranayama" translates

to “prana” – breath, respiration, life-force, vitality, energy or strength – and “ayama” – extension, expansion, stretch, regulation, control or restraint. Together they refer to the prolongation of breath and its restraint (Turlington, 2002).

Pranayama is a complex practice of breathing techniques that involve exercises with the potential to affect the physical, physiological and neural energies as well as the psychological and cerebral activities such as memory and creativity. Pranayama also develops a steady mind while strengthening willpower (Turlington, 2002).

According to Iyengar (1969), inhalation is the act of receiving the primeval energy in the form of breath, and retention is when the breath is held in order to savour that energy. He (1969) also explains that in exhalation all thoughts are emptied with the breath. While the lungs are empty, one surrenders the individual energy, the “I” to the primeval energy.

Ujyyi (victorious breath), kapalabhati (breath of fire) and nadi shodhana (alternate nostril breathing) are some pranayama exercises. Ujyyi is characterised by the even flow of breath. Kapalabhati or breath of fire is a rigorous breathing technique to awaken dormant energy. Nadi shodhana is alternate nostril breathing. When individuals engage with these breathing exercises on a regular basis, the outcomes may be a steady mind, increased resolve and willpower.

#### **12.3.2.2 Holotropic Breathwork™**

Holotropic Breathwork™ roughly translates to moving towards wholeness and is a practice which uses the breath to allow access to non-ordinary states for purposes of self-exploration and healing. Holotropic Breathwork™ integrates insights from modern consciousness research, anthropology, various depth psychologies, transpersonal psychology, Eastern spiritual practices, and mystical traditions of the world (Grof, 2003).

Holotropic Breathwork™ focuses on hyperventilation brought on by accelerated breathing to induce non-ordinary states of consciousness based upon the observation of intense breathing as seen in various shamanic procedures, aboriginal healing and the healing dances of the San (Grof and Bennett, 1992). As a result,

Grof and Bennett (1992) observed that these methods are similar to the intentional hyperventilation practices used in kundalini yoga and that this energy could be activated, resulting in an ecstatic display of body shaking.

This theory connects a person's life experiences and experiences in the birth process and separates this process into four stages known as the perinatal matrices. The first stage is the amniotic universe or the womb. The only world that life knows at this point relates to the blissful feelings of peace and joy, in a healthy womb. The next stage is cosmic engulfment or no exit. Equilibrium is disturbed, contractions begin. Unbearable feelings of being stuck in hell with no way of escaping follow. The third stage is death versus the rebirth struggle or the second clinical stage of childbirth. This is depicted by an intense struggle for survival. The last stage is death versus the rebirth experience. The child is born. Intense ecstatic feelings of liberation and love unfold as the new world begins (Grof and Bennett, 1992)

The method comprises the following five elements: group process, intensified breathing or hyperventilation, evocative music, focused body work and expressive drawing. The method's general effect is advocated as a non-specific amplification of a person's psychic process, which facilitates the psyche's natural capacity for healing. Grof (2003) developed what he considers to be cartography of the psyche, which describes four main categories of experience. The first category is sensory and somatic. This realm of experience includes various hallucinatory phenomena, such as visualising images or geometrical patterns. More commonly, participants report a greater awareness of and ability to act out somatic processes and bodily impulses, such as assuming postures, dancing or moving in specific ways, and making sounds. They may also claim to feel where energy is blocked or streaming, consistent with the belief in vitalism (Grof, 2003).

The second category relates to biographical and individual unconscious. Here participants may revisit unresolved conflicts, repressed memories and unintegrated traumas. Compared to talk therapies, the unconscious material is more likely to be re-experienced than merely remembered. Participants report that this deeper processing can be more effective at clearing trauma, especially as it relates to subtle ways that trauma is held in the body (Grof, 2003).

The third category refers to the perinatal. The birth process is a traumatic event that leaves powerful residue in the psyche (Grof and Bennett, 1992). Participants in Holotropic Breathwork™ sessions report having images, emotions, physical sensations and cognitions that convince them that they are remembering aspects of their own birth. Sometimes details can be verified with medical records. Some claim that these experiences help them release the birth trauma, including deeply held negative beliefs about themselves or the world.

The last category is transpersonal and refers to the possibility of accessing information outside the normal boundaries of the ego and body. These may include past life memories, experiential identification with other life forms, out-of-body experiences, oneness and encounters with spiritual archetypes and connection with the collective unconscious (Grof, 2003).

There is no correct or incorrect way to do Holotropic Breathwork™, other than to breathe more deeply and faster than normal. After 15 to 20 minutes, one's body will find its own rhythm and one no longer has to think about it. The body and lungs should be relaxed, without straining, so that the breath can be maintained for a long period of time without tiring. It could be more helpful to breathe through the mouth instead of the nose, because it is easier to move air quickly through the mouth (Grof, 2013).

Breath is life. Breath allows us to view the world as unsteady or still. The virtue of organisational change is turmoil and instability. Organisational change results in anxious, fearful breath. Through processes as described above, the individual can be aided to consciously control their breathing. This, in turn, can result in an increased feeling of belonging and importance which, in turn, may facilitate deeper self-exploration and increased emotional health.

### **12.3.2.3 Breathing summary**

Increased energy as a result of open, free breathing reduces feeling of worry, restlessness, isolation, anxiety and insecurity. These are all emotions experienced in the organisation during times of change. Being able to control the breath resonates with more positive emotions such as belonging, releasing, relaxing, feeling and

merely being. When individuals are again able to experience such positive emotions, then a willingness to review their attitudes, perceptions and participation towards change can begin to unfold.

Breath relates directly to the nervous system. As indicated previously, if the SNS is activated, feelings of anxiety are predominant. Through conscious, slow and deep breathing, stress can be reduced. Such breathing reactivates the ANS, regulating the body's unconscious actions and effectively calming a person down. In the stressful organisational change environment, breathing techniques can assist individuals to become aware of their breathing. Through increased awareness, breathing can then consciously be slowed down, which will slow down behaviour and foster emotional stability.

Incorporating breath work into an organisational stress management and/or change management programme could teach individuals breathing skills that would allow them to feel in control. Once an individual feels in control, his or her anxiety abates. This, in turn, creates the ability for improved participation in the change initiative.

## **12.4 ART AND SYMBOLISM INTERVENTION TECHNOLOGIES**

### **12.4.1 Mandalas**

Humans are social animals most of whom are content to live in accordance with the collective, social conventions of their time (Jung, 1966). Pre-philosophical humans are entirely in the grip of their emotions, depicted as a localised soul in the region of the diaphragm and heart. The first philosophers assigned the seat of reason to the head. On a pre-philosophical level, consciousness is passion and experience of oneness (Jung, 1966). Similarly, PURPLE is content to live in accordance with the collective, social conventions while strongly believing in oneness (Laubscher, 2013).

Mandala means circle in Sanskrit, allowing for the emergence of intuition. In the sphere of religious practices and psychology it denotes circular images, drawn, painted, modelled or danced. In alchemy we encounter this motif in the form of the quadrature circuli. In Tibetan Buddhism the figure has the significance of a ritual instrument (yantra), whose purpose is to assist in meditation and concentration. The



Stoics named the heavens a round and revolving God (*rotundum et volubilem Deum*).

In a circle there are no opposing sides. The circle creates sacred space. The energy of the circle brings peace and harmony. In a circle there are no opposing sides, no one to fight. In many traditions, including Tibetan Buddhism, the circle is a powerful symbol for the sacredness of all things (Chodron, 2010). Circles were traditionally believed to form a protective barrier around the self (Cunningham, 2001) while creating a sacred space to commune with Deity (Dominguez, 2012).

Mandala is formation, transformation, eternal mind's eternal recreation. Jung (1990) sketched a mandala daily and followed his psychic transformation from day to day, seeking to create art from the unconscious as the drawing of a mandala nourishes the whole personality. Through mandalas, one can become aware of affinity; establishing ties with something and someone. This, in turn, can result in synchronicity (Jung, 1966) or entanglement (Von Lucadou, Römer & Walach, 2006).

The synchronicity theory initiated by Jung and Pauli (Atmanspacher, Primas & Wertenschlag-Birkhäuser, 1995) interprets paranormal phenomena, not as a result of any causal influence of mind on matter or other minds, but as “meaningful coincidences”, mediated by correspondences of sense and meaning. It is a common feature of paranormal phenomena that they are *prima facie* disturbing, unfitting, unlikely incidences and often perceived as transporting a message of vital relevance for the persons involved and that they usually occur in situations of high emotional tension and receptivity for the meaning of such messages (Von Lucadou, *et al.*, 2006).

By its central point, the mandala symbolises, the ultimate unity of all archetypes and the multiplicity of the phenomenal world and is therefore the empirical equivalent of the metaphysical concept of *unus mundus* or the ultimate unity of all existence (Jung, 1966). In the mandala as the centre, the exponent of all paths, the path to the centre, to individuation, is shown. To Jung (1966) there was no linear evolution, only circumambulation of the self.



There exists a fundamental conformity in all mandalas, regardless of their origin in time and space. The overwhelming majority of mandalas are characterised by the circle and the quaternity. Squaring of the circle equates to the archetype of wholeness, the quaternity of One (Jung, 1966). The way to the goal seems chaotic and interminable at first, and only gradually the signs increase that it is leading anywhere (Jung, 1966). For the individual in an organisational change context, a modern mandala might symbolise similar chaos and progressive movement towards sense-making.

Jung (1966) used the term “individuation” to denote the process by which a person becomes a psychological individual - a separate, indivisible unity or whole. Individuation means becoming a single being, coming to selfhood or self-realisation. Drawing of mandalas can assist this process. Jung (1966) regarded the individuation process as a religious quest. While this sentiment still holds, the individuation process could instead be a spiritual or primordial quest.

Given an organisational change context, the drawing of mandalas could aid individuals to gain deeper understanding of themselves while attaching concrete meaning to change. This can be as easy as printing and colouring or drawing a mandala at your desk. Allowing individuals the freedom to draw mandalas could help individuals to re-attain equilibrium which has either been lost or distorted as a result of fear, uncertainty and stress. Again, incorporating the drawing of mandalas into an organisation’s stress management program could be beneficial, especially to PURPLE who generally does well with the drawing of mandalas.

#### **12.4.2 Symbolism and art**

Often, the underlying, primary psychic reality is so inconceivably complex that it can only be grasped at the furthest reach of intuition. That is why we need symbols (Jung, 1953). Society’s growing impoverishment of symbols has meaning. Therefore it would be far better to stoutly avow our spiritual poverty, our symbollessness (Jung, 1959). What is worse, the void is filled with absurd political and social ideas, all of which are distinguished by their spiritual bleakness (Jung, 1959). This could deeply impoverish PURPLE individuals.

As stated previously, alternative intervention technologies are required to unlock the great potential which remains hidden in individuals. Art could be another alternative method to unlock the latent goodwill in Africa (Viljoen, 2014). Jung was a pioneering theorist on the meaning of symbols and symbolism as a universal language and an integral part of understanding the psychic process. Archetypal symbols can be used to explore the conscious and unconscious mind and to better understand oneself (Jung, 1990). The diversity in symbolic meaning extends far beyond Jung and depends widely on the fact that the human mind is creatively limited and differs from person to person (Turlington, 2002).

There are many hidden gifts of symbol making. The higher the level of abstraction is, the broader the spectrum of cultures a symbol can stitch together. The higher the level of abstraction, the more powerful a symbol can be as a barrier breaker and as a cross-cultural alliance maker. The higher the level of the symbol, the higher the level at which the symbol can knit together long-distance productivity teams (Bloom, 2010).

Great art has always derived its fruitfulness from myth, from the unconscious process of symbolisation, which continues through the ages and, as the primordial manifestation of the human spirit, will continue to be the root of all creation in future (Jung, 1953). Jung's (1953) term "myth", may suggest that some of these experiences may literally be psychophysical - a blurring of conventional boundaries between objective and subjective realities (Radin, 2013). Art, like music, can alter mood, but can also reflect the individual's mood. Through art, the negative, stressed and dark moods of individuals caught in the grip of organisational change, may be lifted through the meaning found in art and symbols.

Art and symbolism could serve as mitigating measures against the difficulties individuals experience during organisational change. Art could help to expand consciousness through the use of space and time, materials, medium, form and structure as well as through the historical, economic, and social structure in which the art is created (Woodward, 2012). Morrison (2014) integrates art and philosophy, explaining that that an unconscious visual form takes shape in his visual field, line by line, unconsciously informing and solidifying the conceptual construction. Finally, the

philosophy arises, transcending and including this ever-present and often unconscious visual art from (Schwartz, 2014). Gadamer (1989) argues that in the pursuit of self-understanding through art, what is truly gained is continuity of the self. Through art, individuals are able to understand the world more clearly. How we understand is the challenge that confronts individuals (Woodward, 2012).

Furthermore, visual arts, music, dance, drama and the creative use of language are an all-powerful antidote to all manner of illnesses (Graham-Pole, 2001). Baker (2006) found art to be an effective means of communication. “Through art expression, fractured parts of the self are brought to the surface, to be observed and evaluated for change” (Baker, 2006:184). Through art, individuals are able to resolve conflict, develop personal strengths and heal their invisible wounds (Baker, 2006).

Art does not progress by nature. Its healing power has remained eternal and intact since our human origins from long before the Ice Age up to the present moment (Forge, 1969). Art never espoused the values of technical or economic progress that science upheld in every civilisation. Art does not move forward on a horizontal trajectory, it remains on a vertical axis that unites universal concepts (Graham-Pole, 2001).

Creative art therapies have firmly established themselves in the treatment of PTSD (James and Johnson, 1997). Through the art-making process, the artwork serves as a voice to unravel fragments of stories (McMurray, 1988) which allows for shared experiences and reduced stress (Baker, 2006). Art allows the individual to reconnect with his or her lost culture. This leads to renewed interest, creative expression, improved concentration and memory, reduced anxiety and the emergence of a new purpose in the individual (Baker, 2006).

A significant finding across environmental studies found adults to prefer natural landscapes with water and vegetation. Such art intervention reports reduced stress and mood elevation (Schroeder, 1995). Several aspects of nature, including birds, grass, flowers and trees, rocks and visible sky, contribute to lowered stress and elevated mood (Wilson, 1984). Drawings of landscapes and animals specifically speak to the PURPLE human niche, while the drawing of flowers and birds speaks to

the BLUE human niche (Laubscher, 2013). Furthermore, designing places of learning accordingly unequivocally alleviates anxiety and depression (Ulrich, 1984; Hartig, Mang & Evans, 1991).

The art diagram has been something of a “minor” genre or moment within the currents of Western and European art since the waning Renaissance of the late 16<sup>th</sup> and early 17<sup>th</sup> centuries. During this period, emblem books and their presentations of the play of word and image (the core of the emblem tradition) were, in instances, further woven with charts and other non-depictive figural elements where there is a simpler coding (justice personified as a female figure holding sword and scales), the expression more enigmatic, metaphoric and polysemantic - an aesthetic symbol in the romantic sense of that term (Schwartz, 2014).

During the complex moment of art making of the 1960s, so-called “conceptual currents” offered diagrammatic representations as part of art exhibitions, as wit. These diagrams of open cubes were exhibited on occasion with three-dimensional executions of such cubes, the 2D and 3D artefacts constituting in tandem the work of art in those exhibition instances. Morrison (2014) furthered these diagrams, distinguishing them in that they signify the ways of traditional verbal logics and their linearity, exceeding both contradiction and dialectical non-contradiction (Schwartz, 2014). An example of such a diagram by Morrison (2014) is depicted in figure 12.3 below, which explains that art is a powerfully transformative practice and experience. Art is an increasingly transformative experience for the individual and the collective through the creative process (Morrison, 2014).



Figure 12.3: Example of diagram by Morrison (2014)

Figure 12.3 is an art diagram (Morrison, 2014) that helps the individual to process the abstract linear verbiage through the deeper, nonlinear and vastly parallel sensory functions that all humans possess. It is ultimately through the senses, transcended and included in higher, more abstract, cognition, that the sense of the text is truly, integrally, embodied (Schwartz, 2014).

This description resonates strongly with the usage of symbolism. Symbols are tendencies whose goals are as yet unknown (Jung, 1953). Synchronicity can be achieved through mandalas and drawing art. The mandala resemblance in Morrison's art is striking. "Art is an avenue to empowerment and wholeness" (Baker, 2006:197). "Art, more than almost any other human activity, can nurture and enhance life: the life of the human spirit, the life of the imagination, and physical life itself" (Kinkade, 2002:16). To PURPLE, symbols and symbolic actions count and are seen as real actions. Therefore, art, symbolism and drawing are all activities which could benefit and assist PURPLE to transcend to higher consciousness. Symbolism and art may be incorporated into an organisational change management and/or stress management programme, especially to be applied during times of organisational change and increased stress.

## **12.5 AWAKENING CONSCIOUSNESS**

Freud's clinical theory survives and hinges on how he understood fear, explaining that we use a vast array of defences to channel, transform, suppress and regulate fear. The anomalous, deeply conflicted Freud purportedly struggled to transcend his own fear, reporting that often we do not even know what we are defending against (Brabant, Falzeder & Giampier-Deutsch, 1993).

Jung (1961) also introduced us to the introverted and extroverted personality types. In introverts, the libido is retained by the self and prevented from taking part in the conflict of opposites, naturally turning towards thought or emotion. Extroversion is an outward turning of libido; transferring interest from subject to object. As such, the introvert is slow to act, reflective and shy whereas the extrovert has a positive relationship with things and is fascinated by the unknown and acts before thinking.

Table 12.3 revisits the map of consciousness (Hawkins, 2005). The columns of grouping, mode and mind/body were consolidated from various chapters. The levels of trust are thereby distinguished as mind whereas the levels of falsehood are distinguished by body. Grouping was added to group together the energy levels for transference on to Fischer’s (1971, 2006) cartography as represented in figure 12.4.

Table 12.3: Adapted map of consciousness (Hawkins, 2005)


	God-View	Self-View	Log	Energy level	Grouping	Mode	Mind	Emotion
	Self	Is	700-1000	Enlightenment	7	Wholism	Mind	Ineffable
	All-being	Perfect	600	Peace		Conciliation		Bliss
	One	Complete	540	Joy		Healing		Serenity
	Loving	Benign	500	Love	6	Empathy		Reverence
	Wise	Meaningful	400	Reason		Vision		Understanding
	Merciful	Harmonious	350	Acceptance	5	Satisfaction		Forgiveness
	Inspiring	Hopeful	310	Willingness		Anticipation		Optimism
	Enabling	Satisfactory	250	Neutrality	4	Complacency		Trust
	Permitting	Feasible	200	Courage		Bravery		Affirmation
Levels of Truth								
Levels of Falsehood (Counterproductive)								
	Indifferent	Demanding	175	Pride	3	Suspicion/paranoia	Helpless Body	Scorn
	Vengeful	Antagonistic	150	Anger		Frustration		Hate
	Denying	Disppointing	125	Desire		Enslavement		Craving
	Punitive	Frightening	100	Fear	2	Helplessness		Anxiety
	Uncaring	Tragic	75	Grief		Violence/regret		Regret
	Condemning	Hopeless	50	Apathy	1	Depression		Despair
	Vindictive	Evil	30	Guilt		Rage/counter-attack		Blame
	Despising	Hateful	20	Shame		Self-loathing/suicide/abuse		Humiliation

Table 12.3 is an adapted map of consciousness (Hawkins, 2006) indicating that powerlessness, suffering and poverty all fall within the bottom ranges of levels of falsehood. What is prevalent is the fact that all trauma-related feelings, as described by Berceci (2006) and Levine (1997, 2010) fall within these levels of falsehood. It would therefore seem as if an upward move can be facilitated through trauma and stress reduction methods as described in chapter eleven and this chapter. Any of the



alternative intervention technologies suggested in these chapters may facilitate increased levels of consciousness.

The emotions prevalent in the case study discussed in chapter five and the research findings in chapter six indicated feelings of hopelessness, apathy, depression and despair. These views all fall into group one. Further emotions of fear, frustration and anxiety fall into groups two and three. These emotions all indicate levels of falsehood.

Figure 12.4 depicts the transfer of the above groups on to Fischer's (1971, 2006) cartography, while integrating the thoughts from various earlier chapters. Groups one, two and three respectively refer to self-loathing, rage and counter-attack as well as depression. Group one falls into the dissociative, ecstatic, hyperaroused state. These are typical trauma-related behaviours. Group two falls between catalepsy and acute hyperphrenic states, still displaying trauma-like behaviour. Group three falls into the aroused state.

At the point in figure 12.4 where the I and the SELF reconnect, consciousness interconnects. At this point the individual can merely be. Teaching individuals alternative intervention technologies would empower them to apply these alternative intervention technologies instead of losing themselves to some situation where our ancient fight/flight/freeze response is about to take over and diminish our brain capacity. Engagement in any of these alternative intervention technologies allows the individual to tap into his or her own consciousness. Consciousness in turn is the real power behind vicissitude.

In figure 12.4, group four depicts the relaxed normal state while group five falls into tranquillity. Hypo-arousal houses group six and group seven falls into nirvana Samadhi or deep bliss. The margin between group one and group seven is wafer thin; wholeness is achieved when group one and seven integrate.

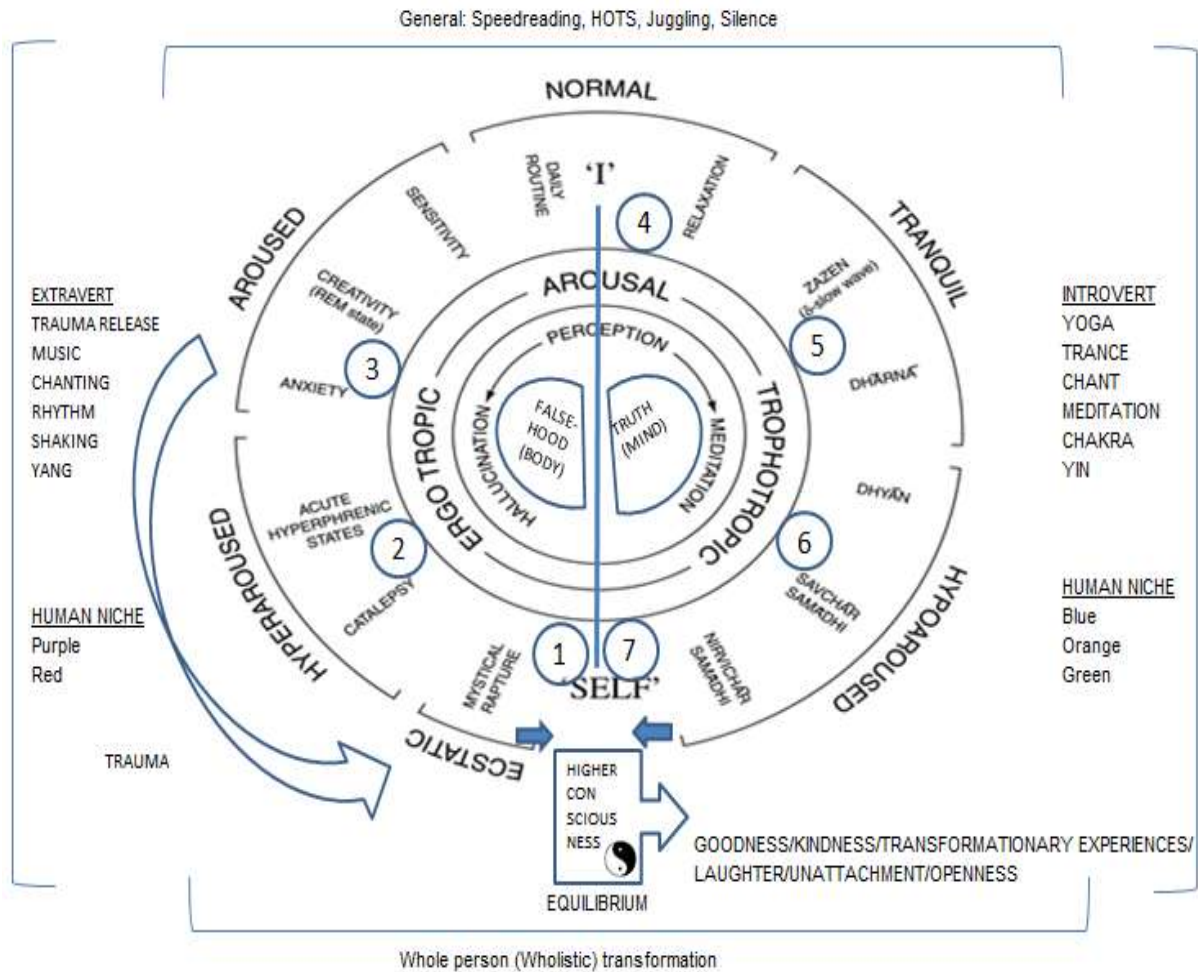


Figure 12.4: Whole person map (adapted from Fisher, 1971, 2006; Hawkins, 2005)

Figure 12.4 also indicates that when such integration is achieved, the line between I and SELF once again becomes a circle. This strongly relates to the section on mandalas. Once wholeness has been achieved, the individual may experience a significantly enlarged capacity for goodness, kindness, transformational experiences, laughter, unattachment and openness.

The PURPLE human niche would probably be more comfortable in the normal to daily routine state, while the RED human niche would be likely to fall in the aroused state. As such, activities such as music, chanting, rhythm and shaking would probably appeal to RED and PURPLE. In all probability, chanting, trance, music and shaking would appeal to PURPLE. By contrast, the BLUE, ORANGE and GREEN human niches might prefer activities such as yoga, meditation and chakra work.



Integrating the above, it seems as if the introverted type would prefer activities that turn the attention inward such as meditation, while extroverted types would be more inclined towards more outward expression such as shaking. A symbiosis of the above has the potential to alter consciousness. Yin and Yang, opposites should unite through whatever method is acceptable and comfortable for the individual.

Once individuals are able to observe what is underneath, whatever is motivating their need to defend, choice can be liberated. They can then start consciously choosing whether they need to stay afraid; they can also choose to modify their defences and make them more adaptive, more consonant with a happy life and being who they want to be (Mayer, 2008).

Laubscher (2013) reminds us that PURPLE is scared, but also that it identifies itself as part of the tribe. Organisational change can result in loss of the power of the tribe which will increase PURPLE anxiety with resultant diminished cognitive capacity. Pearce (2003:165) reminds us that “consciousness is play”. Through any of these alternative intervention technologies, PURPLE (as the majority human niche in Africa) can play without fear. Through play, consciousness may increase and the individual can once again be.

Africa has held the secret through ancient San wisdom for centuries. The wisdom from Africa could be the bridge between science and being, allowing us to believe in the un-scientific by merely being in the present.

## **12.6 INTEGRATION**

Given the prevalence of different thinking systems, coupled with increased individual stress, it seems clear that individuals require alternative assistance to cope with the increased demands during organisational change. Again, none of these alternative intervention technologies have found their way into traditional organisational change literature.

In times of stress, individuals impose restrictions and limitations upon themselves as mannerisms of self-preservation. Any technique which allows the individual liberation from self-imposed limitations should be explored and practised. This promotes self-

development and growth, movement from a space of stuckness to fluidity. Passing through life routinely, without reflection and openness to new experiences, denies us the opportunity of growth and reaching our full potential. If we are willing to become more open, opportunities will beckon, fear will subside and we will gift ourselves with new eyes. This applies at an individual, team and organisational level.

The body-based alternative intervention technologies discussed in this chapter allow the individual to find him or herself again through the body. These body-based interventions may improve mental and physical health, increase concentration and result in a steady mind with improved resolve and willpower. When these subtle shifts start to take place in the body of individuals, the resulting outlook and approach may just generate a more positive emotional feeling for the individual.

During times of organisational change, truly positive emotions such as appreciation, care, compassion, responsiveness, understanding and empathy all seem to disappear. Simultaneously, these emotions are replaced by anger, fear, anxiety, disconnectedness and apathy. Unless and until we are able to readjust individual emotions, successful organisational change will probably remain elusive as will individual vicissitude. The researcher further adapted and integrated figure 9.8 as depicted in figure 12.5. The researcher consolidated figure 12.5 as a further building block element in the emerging conceptual framework.

Such body-based techniques remove and/or alleviate feelings of isolation, fear and separateness and can profoundly change our basic outlook. These techniques can heal human relationships through the transformation of our perceptions of others. Simultaneously, such intervention technologies have the potential to improve and change our self-talk and self-belief.

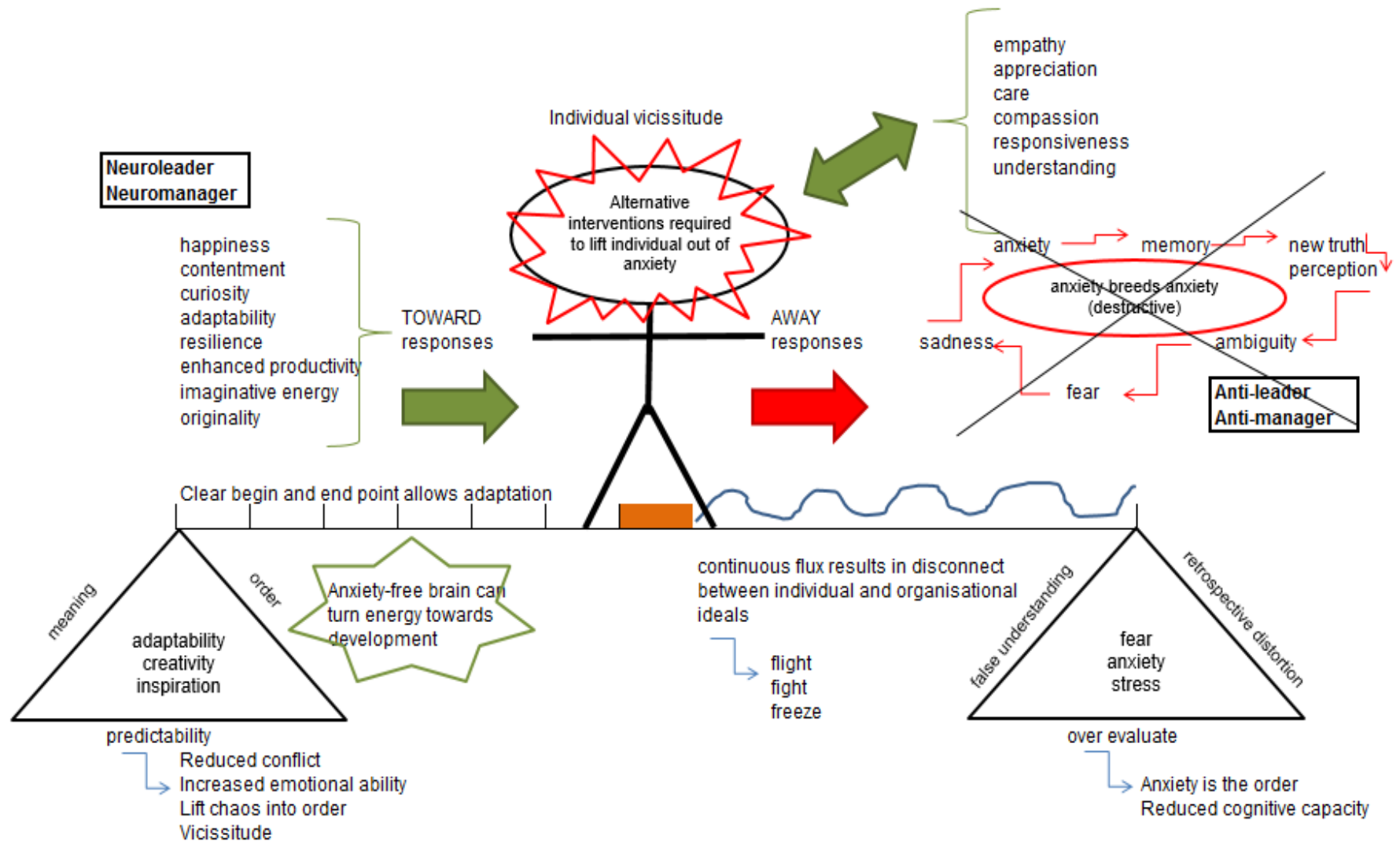


Figure 12.5: Alternative interventions and vicissitude

Engaging in any of the suggested alternative intervention technologies described in this and the previous chapter has the ability to correct and to realign individual perceptions. Away responses could then be replaced with toward responses, which reduce or eliminate anxiety, stress and fear, as displayed in figure 12.5.

The centre of a mandala brings coherence - “become what one is” (Jung, 1959:356). This centre is not felt or thought of as the ego, but as the self (Jung, 1959). When circles are placed on top of each other, we find that they merge into a spiral. The researcher developed the spiral represented in figure 12.6 below through integration of the whole person visualisation, which was depicted in chapter five, figure 5.1.

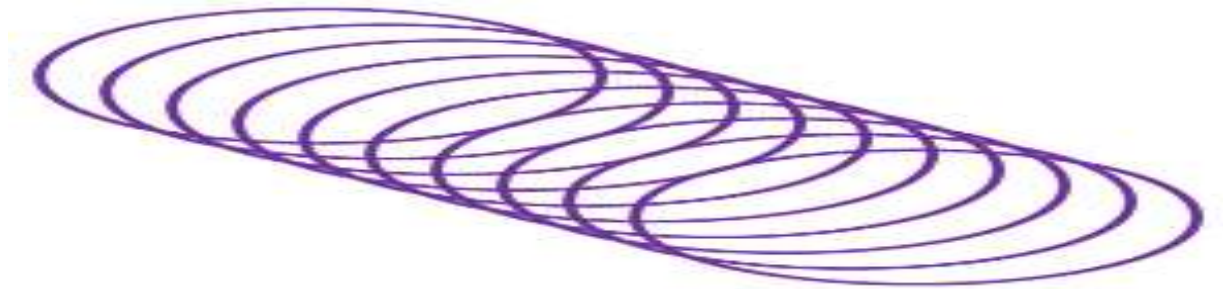


Figure 12.6: A spiral

Spiral dynamics, visualised through a spiral similar to the one in figure 12.6, and its applied form human niches, were discussed in detail in chapter three. The importance of the circle and wholeness, surfaces through the spiral symbol. Hence it would seem possible then, that if we were able to enhance the whole person, we could possibly facilitate and create an environment in which upward movement on the spiral would become a real possibility.

However, looking at the world in an alternative way still requires practicality, applicability and soberness. Therefore, applying these concepts practically could mean a two-day workshop before the start of an organisational change initiative. All stakeholders that may be affected by organisational change should be included in such a workshop or series of workshops, which could be broken up as indicated in table 12.4 below.

Table 12.4: Alternative workshop suggestion

Activity	Time allocation
Day one	
Introductions	09:00 – 09:10
Juggling (as brain activity and ice breaker)	09:10 – 09:30
Speed reading	09:30 – 10:30
Exercise break (what you can and can't do with certain object)	10:30 – 10:50
Trauma releasing exercise	10:50 – 12:00
Lunch break	12:00 – 12:30
Juggling (re-gather after lunch)	12:30 – 12:45
Thinking skills (play complementary music in background)	12:45 – 14:00
Break	14:00 – 14:10
Mandala drawing	14:10 – 15:00
Guided meditation	15:00 – 15:30
Closure and wrap-up of day one	15:30 – 16:00
Day two	
Introductions	09:00 – 09:10
Juggling (evaluate/discuss improvement from yesterday)	09:10 – 09:30
Thinking skills (play complementary music in background)	09:30 – 10:30
Break (encourage practice of juggling when on break)	10:30 – 10:50
Trauma releasing exercise	10:50 – 12:00
Lunch break	12:00 – 12:30
Juggling (re-gather after lunch)	12:30 – 12:45
Speed reading	12:45 – 14:00
Exercise break (what you can and can't do with certain objects)	14:00 – 14:20
Mandala drawing	14:20 – 15:10
Guided meditation with chakra healing	15:10 – 15:40
Closure and wrap-up of day two	15:30 – 16:00

Table 12.4 represents an alternative workshop suggestion with the primary objective of exercising the brain while improving openness, creativity and interconnectedness of the self and others. This, in turn, should decrease resistance and facilitate more successful organisational change. The suggestions in table 12.4 are not exclusive;

time spent on breath work, art and music could be exponentially increased depending on the time available.

Previous chapters indicated the non-negotiable requirement of workable support systems during times of change. Hence the creation of a change support centre seems imperative as a means to create an outlet for increased stress as well as a safe space to find comfort as and when needed.

## **12.7 CONCLUSION**

Individual participation shapes the reality of the individual. Through participation, the individual feels. Because the individual feels, he or she is. Negative, anxious and fearful thoughts limit individual coping, engagement and creativity. Thus, if we are able to change individual thoughts and perceptions, we should be able to alter the resultant outcomes. Body-based techniques can alter individual context and responses through changed beliefs and desires.

Body-based methods speak to individual conflict, suffering, tension, stress and despair. All of these emotions are experienced to the full during organisational change. Body-based techniques remove and/or alleviate feelings of isolation, fear, separateness and can profoundly change our basic outlook. These techniques can heal human relationships through the transformation of our perceptions of ourselves and of others.

Organisations in need of lasting and sustainable change should invest in body-based interventions as these allow the mind to become unleashed, allowing for sustainable individual, group and eventual organisational transformation. This will ultimately result in vicissitude, the successive substitution of one thing or condition for another taking place from natural causes.

Through the application of the alternative intervention technologies discussed in chapters eleven and twelve, individuals' adaptability and resilience will improve. Enhanced productivity, reduced conflict, improved emotional stability and an improved ability to process information are all possible outcomes of these alternative

intervention technologies. All of these outcomes can hugely assist and enhance organisational survival and even organisational flourishing.

A partial adaptation of the inclusivity framework (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008), which was discussed in chapter two, is proposed in figure 12.7. Figure 12.7 visualises the interrelatedness between the individual, the group or society and the organisation.

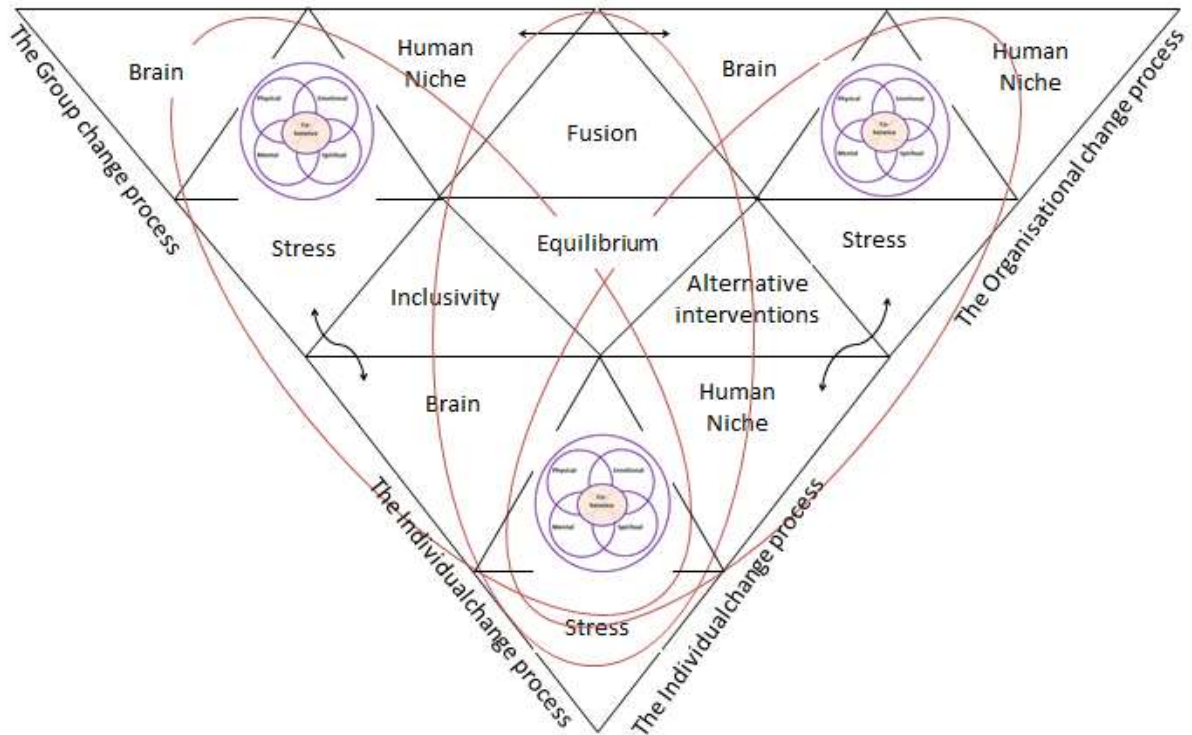


Figure 12.7: Rebuilding Viljoen-Terblanche's (2008) inclusivity model

Figure 12.7 further superimposed this mandala of individual coherence – mental, spiritual, emotional and physical – on this model, while still depicting the importance of stress, the brain and human niches in the individual, group and organisational change process. Figure 12.7 reiterates and emphasises the interconnectedness of all the above elements, which would serve as further building block elements in the emerging conceptual framework of organisational change and leadership.

Subtle skills are sometimes so momentary that they could perhaps even be intuitive in nature. The materialistic business landscape has all but obliterated the arts as encompassed through art, music, body movement and even spirituality. However, through changed consciousness, arts and the business landscape can be reunited with mutual benefits.



Traditional left-brain functions include logic, order, linearity and being in control. The left brain likes familiarity. These are the features valued by business. By contrast, the right-brain emphasises creativity, feeling, rhythm, movement, daydreaming and imagination. Given the complexity of organisational change, logical, linear thinking struggles to adapt to the fast pace of change. Increased flexibility and adaptability could be established through the re-accentuation of creativity, imagination, feeling and movement.

The discussed alternative intervention technologies could assist the individual with improved balance, movement and fluidity towards eventual vicissitude. These intervention technologies could help individuals to cope with their issues, emotions and stresses. As such, these interventions could re-establish balance, recreate meaning and eradicate our self-imposed limits. The application of these intervention technologies is cheap, easy and safe. All that is required is a safe space, willingness to reframe current dilemmas and the leadership conviction to lead alternative thinking. The resultant outcomes might be intense and overwhelming. The advantages of realising such benefits at an organisational and team level could be palpable and profound.

Chapter thirteen presents the research results, answers the research questions and draws logical conclusions.



## **CHAPTER 13: RESEARCH RESULTS**

### **13.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter covers the analysis, extrapolation and integration of research findings in an attempt to reframe the dilemma of organisational change and leadership. Data in and of itself is meaningless - interpretation, consequence and significance result in meaning (Leedy and Ormrod, 2008). The researcher studied the literature and the data. Building on the data findings discussed in previous chapters as well as the literature review, this chapter will discuss the research results and present the adapted research framework on organisational change and leadership. A research discussion follows after which the research questions are answered. Delimitations, meta-insights, potential future research and the contribution to the field of organisational change will be presented.

This chapter provides a conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership that emerged through constant data comparison. This conceptual framework was developed on the basis of the major findings presented in chapters five, six, seven, eight and nine, coupled with literature and logical deductions. The various intervention technologies discussed in chapters eleven and twelve are integrated into this framework. Hence the purpose of this chapter is to synthesise the theory and collected data into an integrated whole. As such, this chapter attempts to contribute to the academic and theoretical framework of organisational change. This is presented through newly created theory as emerged from the data, coupled with literature and logical deductions.

### **13.2 RESEARCH RESULTS**

During the qualitative data analysis, a case study provided the contextual setting. Data was gathered using in-depth interviews and focus group sessions. The interview questions related to organisational change, leadership, stress, communication and strategy. Various, similar manifestations were evident during the implementation of the Fleet, TWT and WSI change initiatives. Some of these manifestations surfaced during the in-depth interviews and focus group sessions. Taking lessons from these manifestations have the potential to help organisations to

achieve more successful change. These manifestations are summarised in table 13.1 below.

Table 13.1: Similar manifestations during change

	Case study	In-depth interviews	Focus groups
Stress, fear and anxiety dominate individual feelings during times of organisational change	√	√	√
Continuous communication is vital to successful change	√	√	√
Individuals have a strong need for discussion	√	√	√
Entrenched models/methods will encounter more resistance	√	√	√
Methods that are not explained and/or understood will encounter more resistance	√	√	√
Different role-players perceive change differently	√	√	√
Understanding different thinking patterns may improve the change experience	√	√	√
Participation, involvement and inclusivity may reduce resistance	√	√	√
The organisation's difficulty understanding the impact of stress on individual lives and organisational inability to effectively reduce individual stress levels hamper successful change	√	√	√
The importance of offering workable alternatives to reduce individual stress levels	√	√	√
The importance of a change management element when individual work methods are expected to change	√	√	√
Poor management and lack of leadership contribute to resistance, mistrust, anxiety and increased stress levels	√	√	√

As summarised in table 13.1, individuals experience a deep need for discussion, involvement and understanding. Fear, anxiety and stress increase during organisational change. It appears that individuals would be better able to participate in organisational change if stress levels could be reduced to acceptable levels. The application of suggested alternative intervention technologies may reduce heightened stress, while increasing individual consciousness, awareness and trust.

To ensure successful change, organisations require new paradigms and reframed thoughts. Organisational change is unpredictable and inevitable. “Change will happen whether or not the organisation is prepared.” Despite such unpredictability, being prepared, having a long-term vision and a strategy encompassing change, may assist organisations to clearly define the road ahead.

Time, communication, ethics, leadership and trust are non-negotiable and have to function simultaneously to ensure successful change. In isolation, none of these elements could ascertain meaningful, sustainable change. As a result, the researcher created the change formula [f (T X CELT)] where time (T) is multiplied by communication (C), ethics (E), leadership (L) and trust (T). This formula will serve as another building block element in the emerging conceptual framework and will be discussed in detail in a later section of this chapter.

The respondents who were interviewed acknowledged that the current strategy used in their organisation does not encompass change. Organisations struggle to recognise and respond to opportunities as they appear. Without a change strategy, resources are deployed ineffectively and objectives become convoluted, while implementation fails to achieve the intended objectives. Poor implementation could be damaging, not easily reversible and perpetuate skepticism.

Modern strategies appear to have been constricted to profit only, instant gratification and/or survival tactics. Flexibility, ethics and trust are some of the much neglected strategic elements. Strategy should not inhibit decision making – instead, it should encourage the selection of alternatives while optimising resources. Strategy in the new organisation means deliberately becoming different. This requires courage on the part of leadership and the organisation in order to reframe objectives to achieve

a unique value output. Given the modern organisation, such a unique value output can only be realised through individuals.

The researcher had to accept that sustainable change will only be achievable through the attainment of individual vicissitude. Organisational change is an interwoven web of interconnectivity. If links are continuously stressed, the implications become unpredictable and may even weaken and/or damage the web. This principle is displayed in figure 13.1.

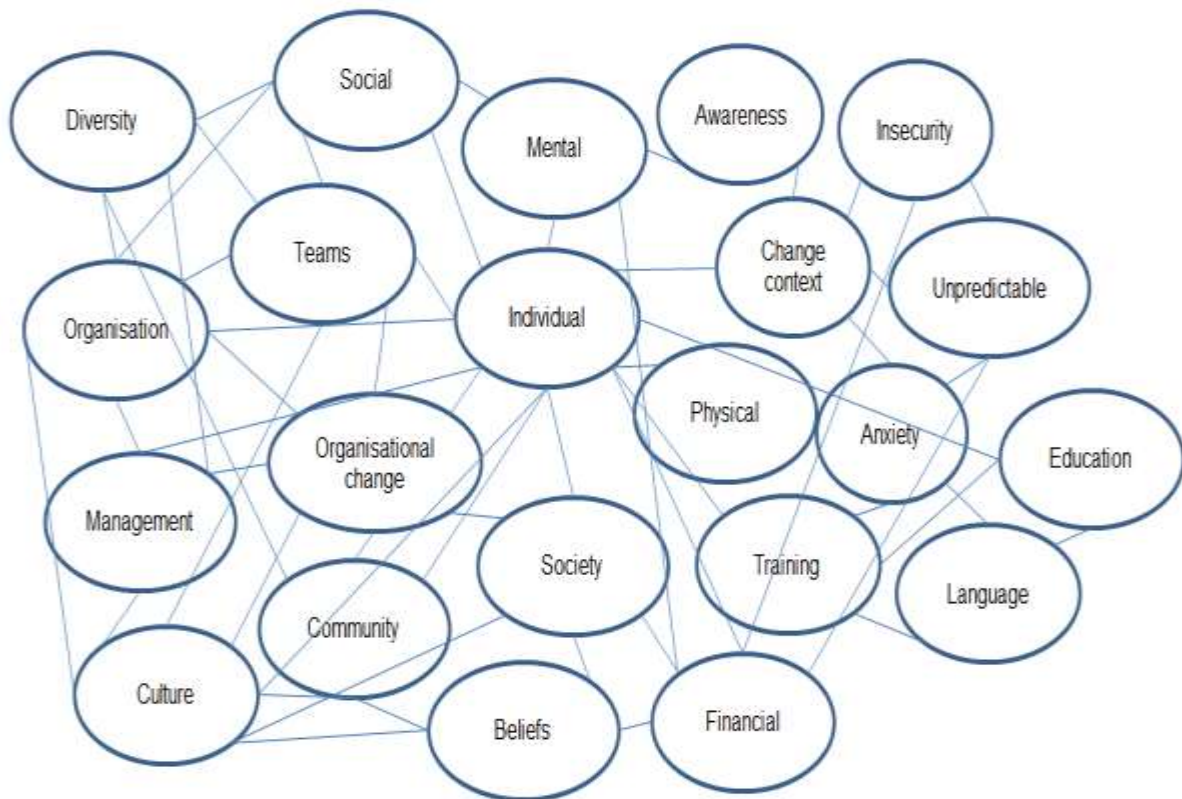


Figure 13.1: Example of the interconnectivity of organisational change

Figure 13.1 displays an example of some interwoven elements pertaining to organisational change. When addressing the individual, organisational change is interconnected to the physical, societal, and communal and belief systems related to the individual. Anxiety, the change context, unpredictability and insecurities of the individual all impact on the outcome of organisational change. These elements also indicate some of the stress variables involved at an individual level.

Followers anticipate and expect inclusion, empowerment and clear communication. Leaders are expected to live the organisational values. When these fail to

materialise, feelings of despondency, discouragement and resistance arise. Employees want to understand the change, expect management to be aware of their unique challenges and need to be able to engage in the change. Engagement at employee level means empowerment, participation, understanding, decision-making power and inclusivity. Sensitivity towards the individual's turbulent emotions when subjected to organisational change is paramount to the achievement of individual vicissitude.

The respondents regarded leadership as pivotal to the successful outcome of a change initiative. In terms of organisational change, the themes of communication, trust and ethical leadership behaviour cropped up repeatedly. Leadership is expected to provide clarity and consistency of direction, coupled with flexibility. This may be paradoxical. However, through a common understanding and awareness of the end goal, consistency of direction can be achieved via flexible adjustments.

Despite the large number of variables involved in leadership, the leadership requirement is clear. The respondents indicated that their leaders should display ethical and trustworthy behaviour, as well as authenticity, honesty and empathy. Followers expect a clear intellectual framework as a platform from which leadership guidance can ensue. During turbulent times, this leadership necessity increases exponentially. This leadership requirement can be fulfilled differently in different situations. It would thus seem as if situational leadership is called for during times of change.

These leadership characteristics have been placed inside an outline of Africa in figure 13.2 below. Since many of these leadership values are universal in application, Africa, and specifically South Africa, now sorely need strong leaders who are willing to make tough decisions to lead sustainable and successful organisational change.

The leadership expectancy is to guide and direct. The management expectancy is to manage and to be cognisant of the change frequency, employees, their emotions and vicissitude. The main emotions the respondents reported during organisational

change were fear, uncertainty, stress and even trauma. Both leadership and management were seen to struggle in harnessing these negative emotions.



Figure 13.2: Leadership characteristics

The huge responsibility and accountability required of leadership are often underestimated. Figure 13.2 indicates these challenging leadership characteristics. These characteristics include, but are not limited to, inclusivity, engagement, communication, authenticity, integrity, guidance, respect, sensitivity, honesty, empathy and ethics. Negative characteristics are indicated in capitals as neither individual, nor organisation can withstand a cocktail of greed, inefficiency, poor management and corruption.



Leadership is not management, yet management actions can endanger the change initiative. Management are required to be in touch with employees. Through probing, showing interest and thorough, unbiased interpretation, management must become acutely aware of the real difficulties individuals face. A keen awareness of individuals is required to ensure optimal individual alignment. Misalignment between the individual and the job requirement causes role conflict, frustration, unproductivity and demotivation.

### **13.3 THE EMERGING FRAMEWORK**

Organisational change proved complex, favouring disequilibrium and instability. All the themes were closely intertwined which rendered the creation of boundaries between themes impossible. Organisational change demands organisational leaders to heed such complexity, unpredictability and volatility with great caution and the necessary attention. Individuals require adaptive methods and support to fully engage and optimally perform during a change initiative. The researcher had to conclude that sustainable change can only be achieved through the attainment of individual vicissitude.

#### **13.3.1 Change framework**

Organisational change is inevitable. Change will happen, whether or not the organisation, the individual and management and leadership are prepared. However, being prepared, having a long-term vision and a strategy encompassing change will help organisations to define and guide the road ahead.

The researcher developed a conceptual framework based on the major findings presented in chapters five and six and as they emerged from the data. Information pertaining to previous chapters and the various intervention technologies are integrated into this framework. The purpose of this framework is to synthesise the theory and collected data into an integrated whole in order to contribute to the academic, theoretical framework of organisational change. The nature of the qualitative research applied during this study provided rich descriptions of the complexities of organisational change and leadership. This conceptual framework is discussed in section 13.3.8 and represented in figure 13.13.

### **13.3.2 Leadership versus anti-leadership**

Throughout the previous sections, the importance of leadership was re-iterated. Enormous change is required in South Africa and Africa at large, in organisations and teams, and at an individual level. This requires leadership commitment towards and awareness of the individual change process. The individual change process entails personality indicators coupled with the reality that fear and survival are prominent emotions experienced during change.

During various interviews, the antithesis of leadership was exposed. Leadership characteristics such as greed, power and inefficiency featured prominently. Following the logic of Taleb (2010), this led the researcher to develop the concept of the anti-leader or anti-leadership. Because the concept of anti-leadership does not exist in the current literature, the researcher conceptualised it as a new, important key term in the field of organisational change and leadership. Figure 13.3 illustrates the properties of anti-leadership as developed by the researcher. Various respondents indicated that large organisations have been obliterated because of a lack of leadership.

The data further revealed that because leadership appointments are often approached arbitrarily, anti-leaders occupy leadership positions. According to the data findings, the appointment of leaders should be a thorough process. While acknowledging the importance of operational ability, such capabilities do not measure or indicate the leadership abilities and leadership mentality of a person. To ensure the promotion of strong leaders, a thorough examination of leadership capabilities should form an integral part of the promotion process. Human niche theory is a valuable aid in assessing leadership ability to complement operational ability.

Figure 13.3 below illustrates anti-leadership. Nothing can compensate for anti-leadership. Anti-leadership makes wrong decisions, empowers the wrong individuals and implements non workable solutions. Unethical behaviour and indecisiveness, and being egocentric, untrustworthy, non-accountable and disjointed are the characteristics of the anti-leader. The anti-leader is further typified by non-focus, poor prioritisation and fragmented thoughts.



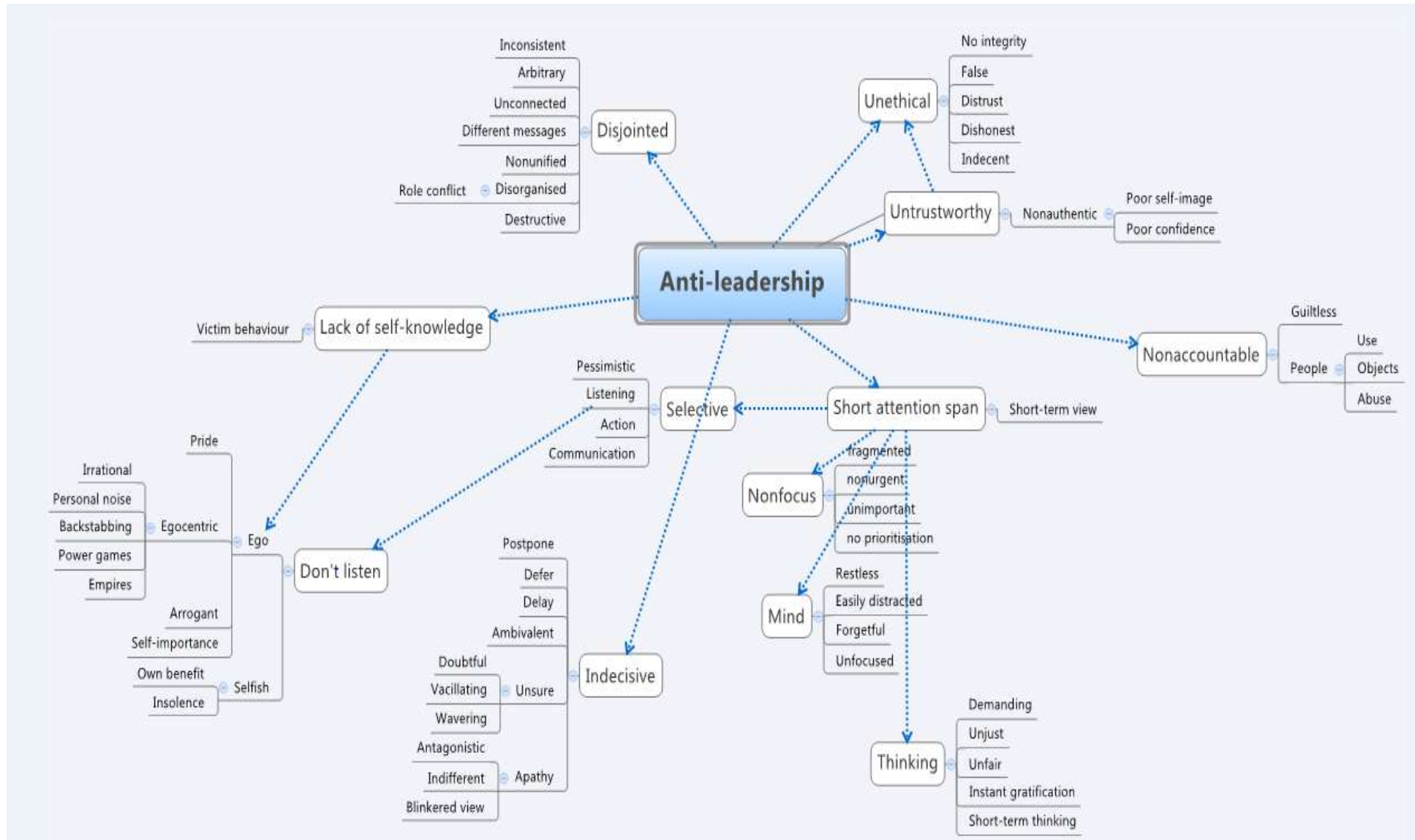


Figure 13.3: Anti-leadership

As per figure 13.3, selective listening, action and communication, greed and corruption typify the anti-leader. The anti-leader generally has a short term view, is enticed by instant gratification and disregards the contribution of followers. Ignorance, apathy, ambivalence, arrogance, inefficiency, the inability to address challenges, a lack of integrity and self-knowledge further plague the anti-leader.

The actions of the anti-leader increase individual stress levels. Arrogance, untrustworthy actions and poor communication increase individual fear and uncertainty. Incorrect or poor decision making by anti-leaders affects all stakeholders. Individuals at lower levels of the organisation in particular, may be affected extremely negatively, where they have little do to with these poor decisions.

Emotions elicited by the anti-leader may further result in favouritism, and even factionalism. Such emotions, when provoked, may split, divide and fragment a workforce, and may ultimately even lead to xenophobia. Leadership implies the power or ability to lead other people. Thus, if a leader is not leading, he or she cannot be called a leader. Such a person is a follower or an anti-leader.

Table 13.2 depicts the leader against the anti-leader. It is not the intention of the researcher to bombard the reader with rights and wrongs. However, in order to identify and rectify, awareness is required. Table 13.2 also indicates the characteristics, skills and personality identifiers of both leaders and anti-leaders. The columns in this table should not be read as opposites, but rather as clarification of differing skills, characteristics and character features.

Table 13.2: Leadership versus anti-leadership

Leadership versus anti-leadership	
Skills	
Leadership	Anti-leadership
Visionary, long-term vision	Short-term view
Communicator	Non-communicator
Listener	Selective listening
Plan, prepare and forecast	Instant gratification

Skills	
Change facilitator (coach, mentor, collaborate and influence)	Apathy and ambivalence
Emotional regulation	Ignorant
Portal to create a change environment	Selective action
Engage in honest conversations	Inconsistent and disorganised
Live organisational values	Destructive and demanding
Guide organisational change	Unjust and unfair
Understand the art of change	Ambivalent and wavering
Trust	Untrustworthy
Empathy	Egocentric
Honesty	Non-accountable
Characteristics	
Integrity	Greed and corruption
Humility	Arrogance
Inclusive	Inefficiency
Supportive	Incorrect decision-making
Insight	Forceful
Empathy and compassion	Negative
Calmness	Inability to address challenges
Fearless and courageous	Indecisiveness
Non-judgemental	Seeking scape-goats
Ethical	Unethical, no integrity
Servitude	Power, power games and building empires
Strong and sensitive	Impersonal and aloof
Respect	Dishonesty
Character features	
Ability to empower	Lack of self-knowledge
Emotional intelligence	Self-importance
Authentic and sacrificial	Own benefit/inauthentic
Engagement	Selfishness
Proactive	Short attention span

Character features	
Help individual to cope (stress, proper utilisation of individuals)	Restless mind (easily distracted, forgetful and unfocused)

Table 13.2 indicates the skills, characteristics and personality traits that were predominant in the data. The data uncovered the inability of organisations to withstand actions relating to anti-leadership. In a nutshell, the leader is distinguished through his or her personal credibility, coupled with the ability to regulate and integrate emotional elements.

### 13.3.3 Management versus anti-management

Management should encompass basic elements such as planning, organising, directing and control. During various interviews in this study, the antithesis of management was exposed. Once again following the logic of Taleb (2010), this led the researcher to develop the concept of the anti-manager or anti-management. The concept of anti-management does not exist in the current literature, and as such, the researcher conceptualised this as a new, important key term in the field of organisational change and leadership. Anti-management actions relate to non-planning, lack of organising, poor or no direction and ineffective control. These elements are indicated in figure 13.4 below.

Power games and empires cannot be tolerated in any organisation. Crisis management and non-transparency are some of the daily practices of the anti-manager. Organisations cannot afford to accommodate anti-managers. It is increasingly difficult to sustain anti-managers because of the power they hold by virtue of organisational structure positions. This is displayed in figure 13.4 below.

Furthermore, emotions elicited by the anti-manager may further result in favouritism, and even factionalism. Such emotions, when provoked, may split, divide and fragment a workforce, and may ultimately, even lead to xenophobia.



Figure 13.4 Anti-management

In an organisational change context, both leadership and management are required. While organisational change should not be attempted without leadership, poor management is equally detrimental, as depicted in figure 13.4. No organisation can withstand a combination of the anti-manager and the anti-leader.

### 13.3.4 Change

The continuous growth of cultural, economic, political and social relations increasingly confronts societies and organisations and individuals within South Africa. One possible pathway to overcome these difficulties and to unlock the potential of individuals is through the organisation. To some individuals, the organisation is their only safe haven.

Successful change is durable, permanent and sustainable. Each individual has the potential to change, but individuals require assistance to awaken their inner consciousness and internal resources. Change is inherently paradoxical. One has to let go of one's current paradigm and step out of one's comfort zone in order to grow and develop. This becomes changeability. Only by letting go and allowing change, can durable, sustainable and permanent change happen and vicissitude be attained.

Alternative intervention technologies that can promote individual vicissitude were discussed in chapters eleven and twelve.

When individuals are in a state of disequilibrium, they are ideally placed for new possibilities or to explore new ways of looking at the future. Stress can also pose such a triggering event. On condition that support systems and alternative intervention technologies are available and administered, organisational change may be the crisis that disturbs individual stability. Thereafter, growth and vicissitude may become possible. Thus, during change, individuals will initially move downwards on the U-curve, but could then move upwards on the U-curve (as displayed in figure 10.1) with the right assistance and/or facilitation. Without organisational assistance, stress will remain predominant when organisational change is discussed or initiated. Stress is caused by substance abuse, financial struggles, single-parent households, violence and anxiety, to name but a few. When such stressed individuals enter through the doorway of the organisation, they are often met by the anti-leader and the anti-manager. The actions of the anti-manager and anti-leader can either be the triggering event for individual change or increase individual stress to a point where the individual is completely stuck, unable to move and/or frozen. This is illustrated in figure 13.5.

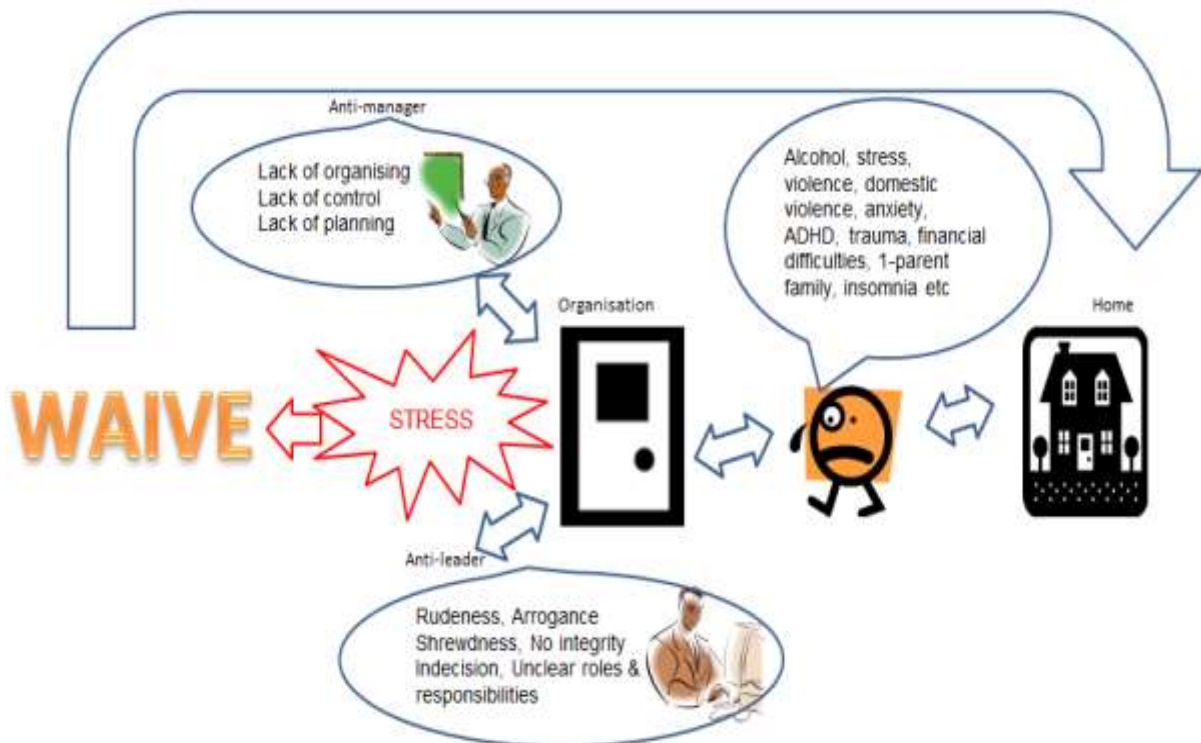


Figure 13.5: The individual situation

Figure 13.5 indicates the life reality of many individuals. Individuals are in a state of stress when leaving their homes. Organisational change increases individual stress. The cycle of stress will be perpetuated unless effective countermeasures are applied. The data in this study strongly indicated that organisations currently have a limited ability to handle and direct stress effectively, which underscores the importance of implementing and applying alternative intervention technologies as discussed previously, in order to successfully reduce individual stress levels.

This led the researcher to the concept of WAIVE which is an acronym for **w**orthless, **a**nxious, **i**ndecisive, **v**ainness and **e**strangement. The acronym WAIVE, relates to the definition of waive; giving up voluntarily, relinquishing, dismissing from consideration or discussion (*Merriam-Webster dictionary*, 2013). When WAIVE is present, it becomes increasingly difficult for the individual to fully engage in the change process. WAIVE will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

### **13.3.5 Communication**

Effective and efficient communication remains one of organisation's primary challenges. Organisations assume that communication has occurred once an e-mail or a memorandum has been sent. Reflecting back to chapter nine where brain research was discussed, the importance of face-to-face communication strengthens the outcome and effect of mirror neurons on followers and subordinates. Polyvagal theory reiterates the inability of technological media to replace face-to-face communication. We need to see the faces of our leaders, hear their voices and be inspired by their presence. Technology commonly fails to achieve this.

Employees are besieged with information, bombarded by e-mails, memos and internal messages, on the one hand, but they do not feel communicated with, on the other. Human niche theory could aid organisations to reframe organisational thoughts in terms of the common complaint of lack of communication. Furthermore, given the stress profile in organisations, communication strategies should be developed in conjunction with applicable brain research, human niche theory and workable stress reduction methods.



### 13.3.6 Strategy

Organisational change is the antithesis of stability or equilibrium. Small changes may result in small consequences or generate major movements. Organisations, like teams and individuals, have the capacity to self-organise and adapt. However, inertia and chaos are primary elements of organisational change. Chaos, volatility, unpredictability and inertia are counterproductive in the traditional business framework. Through reframed strategic thinking, formulation and application, organisations should be able to utilise such chaos to invoke organisational shifts. This is depicted in figure 13.6.

Disequilibrium implies constant change. Constant change needs to be in digestible proportions. Interspersing a large-scale initiative with a few small-scale changes will assist the organisation to continuously improve.

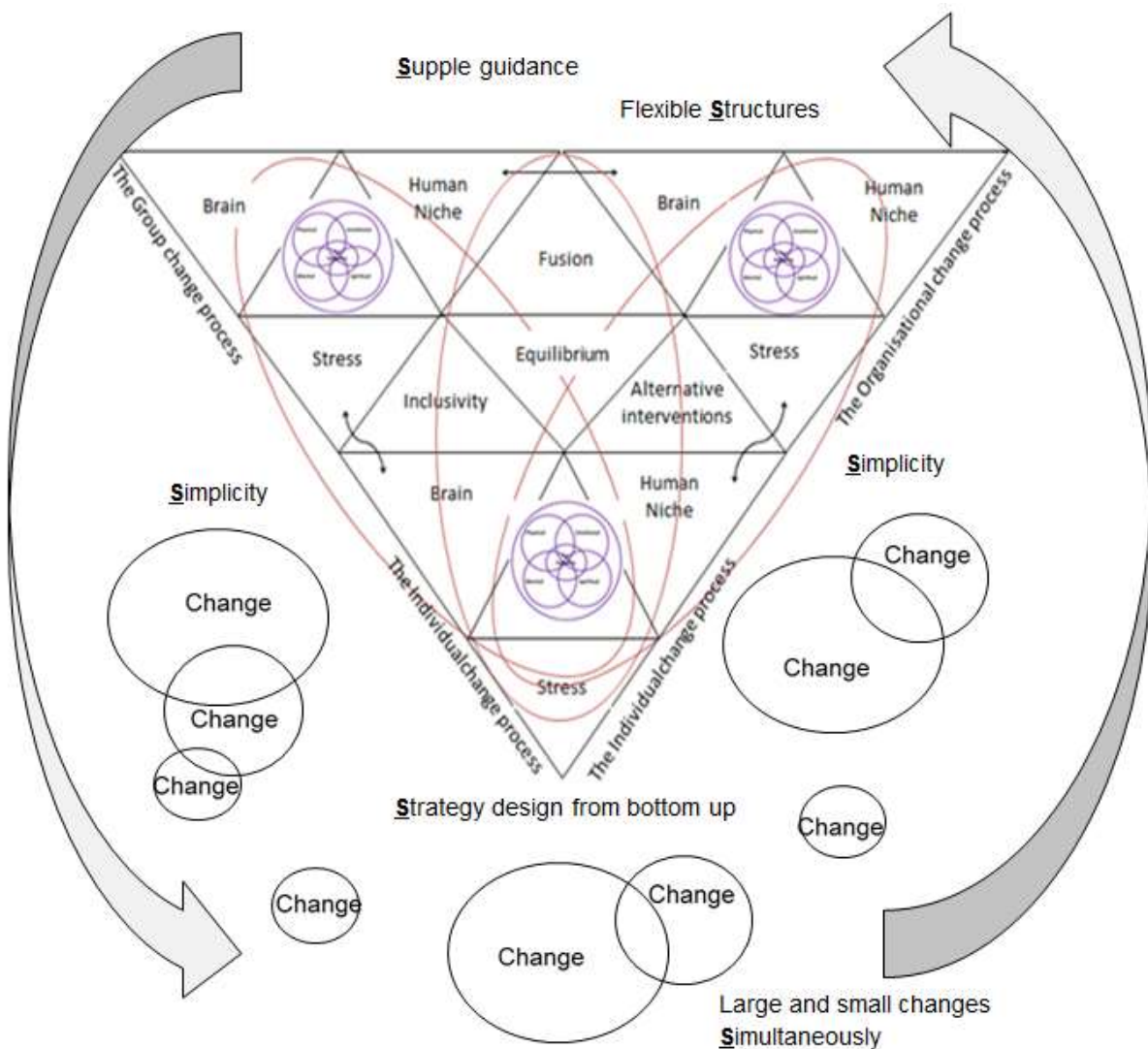


Figure 13.6: 5S principle of strategy formulation



As represented in figure 13.6, formal strategy formulation should be complemented by simplified action steps, crafted from the bottom upwards. Employees at the coalface are best placed to create simplified action steps which promote individual initiative and creativity, yet encourage participation, inclusivity and empowerment. Simplicity ensures a common understanding.

Significant strategy formulation and implementation elements that emerged from the data were upward communication, adaptability, flexibility, a combination of large- and small- change initiatives and simplicity. Exploration of these concepts led the researcher to develop strategy formulation using a 5S principle comprising the following: **s**trategy design from the bottom of the organisation upwards; **s**upple and adaptive guidance; **s**tructures that are flexible; **s**imultaneous large and small change initiatives; and **s**implicity.

Grounding strategy on the above 5S principles supports the requirements of a complex, adaptive system. These 5S principles build on the self-organising principles of complex systems, allowing for effective change and eventual vicissitude. Figure 13.6 illustrates these elements, coupled with a triangle with the apex at the bottom. This upside-down triangle affords the individual his or her participatory place in this process. The whole individual, comprising physical, mental, spiritual and emotional components, is integrated into this triangle.

Figure 13.6 depicts the 5S elements. Because organisational change is a complex, adaptive system, it will always be characterised by complexity and unpredictability. Given the lack of stability and equilibrium, strategy design from the bottom up may largely increase buy-in, participation, inclusivity and empowerment even though leadership remains the overall custodians of the change initiative.

### **13.3.7 SCARFS and WAIVE**

The researcher found that organisational change, anti-leadership and anti-management increases individual stress levels. Stress can be perceived as pressure, anxiety, fear or apprehension. If prolonged and not dealt with, it can turn into trauma. A person who experiences trauma will be stuck, unable to move or change according to the requirements of the change initiative. When an individual is

stressed, it becomes difficult to communicate, tasks become complicated and completion is procrastinated. Scepticism and resistance becomes normal fall-back positions as the individual struggles to function. Poor integration, fragmented work and disconnect between the employee and his or her job ensues. In such a state of stress, absenteeism is prone too as employees are reluctant to come to work.

Anything that causes stress at an individual level may turn into or become a problem of existence. Dissonance may ensue once the person's environment goes beyond his or her level of existence. In light of this, the researcher extended the stress barometer in chapter nine. According to this barometer, a score above 410 indicates stress or trauma that is out of control, as indicated in figure 13.7 below.

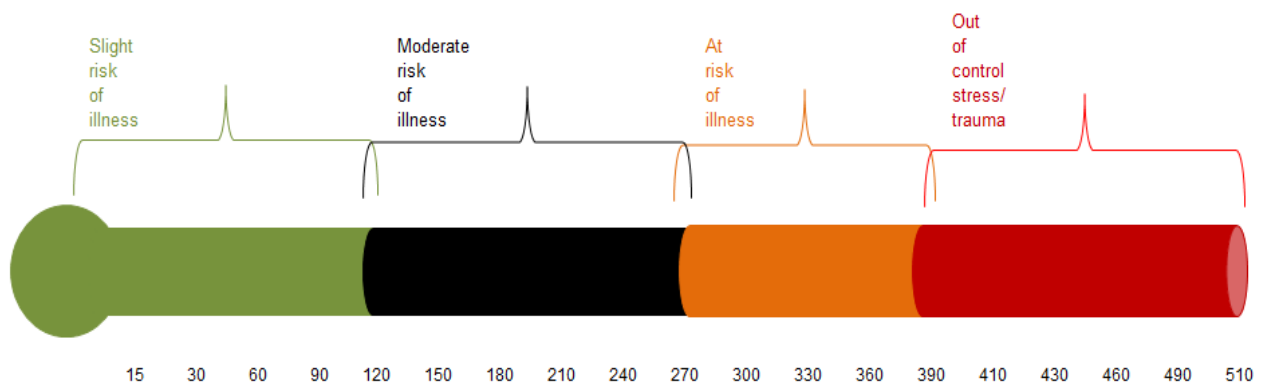


Figure 13.7 Stress barometer (adapted from Holmes and Rahe, 1967)

For the sake of convenience, the stress barometer which was discussed in chapter nine, section 9.4, is redisplayed in figure 13.7. Any individual scoring in the red and orange portion of the stress barometer should be assisted through alternative interventions to reduce stress levels to acceptable levels or ideally, homeostasis. The interventions discussed in chapters eleven and twelve could be applied and suggested as per the integrated whole person map, depicted in chapter twelve, figure 12.4.

Rock's (2009) SCARF model was discussed in the preliminary literature review. However, given the relevance, significance and consequences of stress, the researcher extended Rock's (2009) SCARF model to SCARFS. SCARF is an acronym for **s**tatus, **c**ertainty, **a**utonomy, **r**elatedness and **f**airness, as represented in figure 13.8.

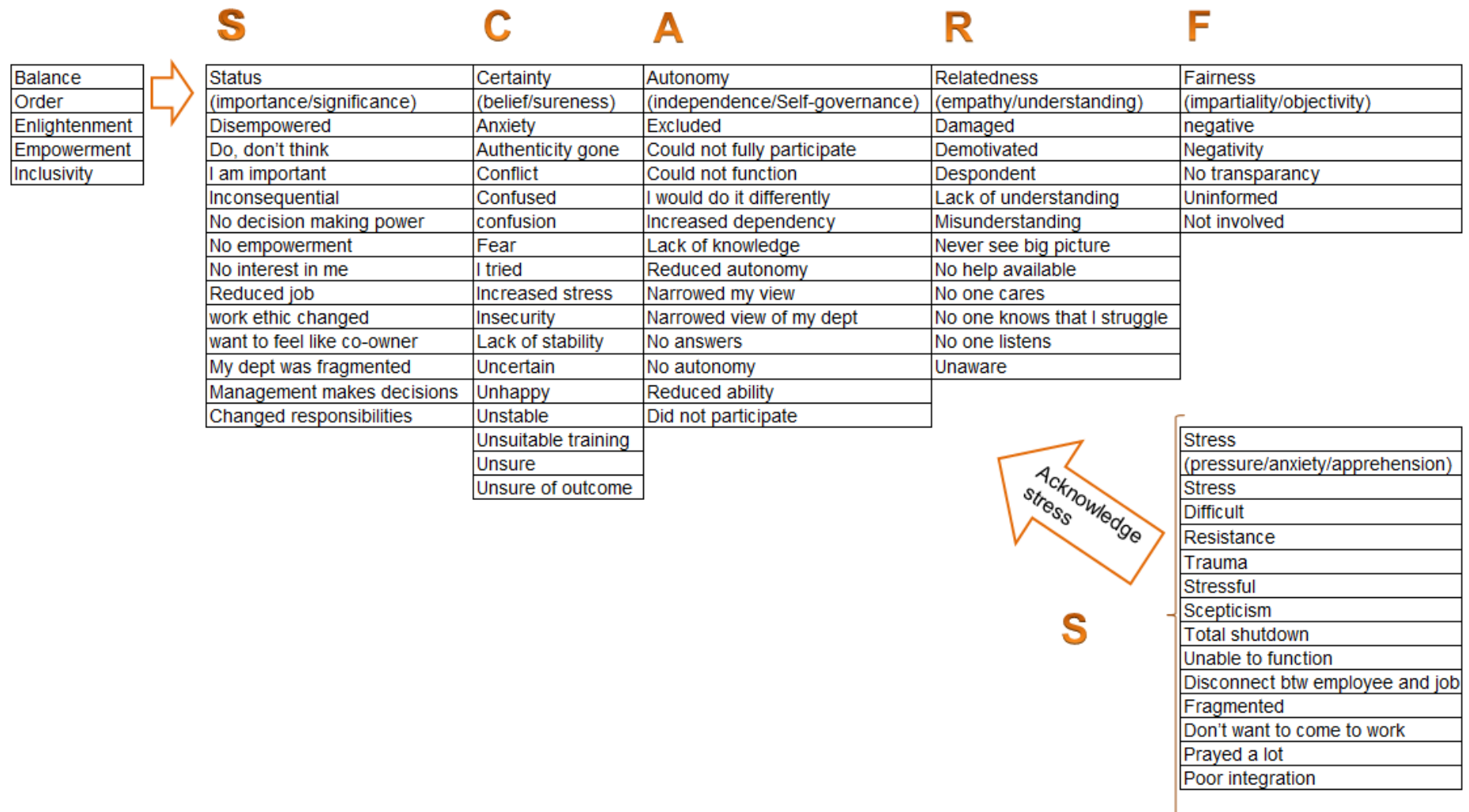


Figure 13.8: Extension of SCARF model (Rock, 2009) to SCARFS

However, in terms of the research findings, SCARF can only be achieved through the acknowledgement and effective mitigation of individual stress levels. The researcher therefore extended SCARF (Rock, 2009) to SCARFS to indicate **s**tatus, **c**ertainty, **a**utonomy, **r**elatedness, **f**airness and **s**tress. This is represented in Figure 13.8.

The data in this study revealed that during times of change individuals do not experience status. In stark contrast to status, individuals felt disempowered, unimportant and inconsequential. Furthermore, certainty was replaced by anxiety, conflict, fear and confusion. Feelings of increased dependency, narrowed views, inability to participate and feelings of exclusions were prevalent as opposed to autonomy. Demotivated, despondent and unaware, with nobody listening or caring dominated in contrast to relatedness. A lack of transparency, negativity and being uninformed, diverged from fairness.

The reality indicated that the real emotions individuals experienced when undergoing change were far removed from the SCARF ideal. Individual emotions were negative and dominated by feelings of fear, anxiety and uncertainty. Figure 13.8 indicates that when individual stress levels are within manageable ranges, then balance, order, enlightenment, empowerment and inclusivity, thus SCARFS, become possible. However, we have to acknowledge stress and the reality that it can derail SCARFS. Pressure, anxiety, apprehension, difficulties, resistance, trauma, skepticism, shutdown, an inability to function and fragmented thoughts are all stress related. The emotions displayed in this model should be changed at an individual level, or else SCARFS and eventual individual vicissitude become unlikely.

Emotions such as disempowerment, feeling inconsequential, having no decision-making power, not being important and changed responsibilities stood out in contrast to the status that SCARF (Rock, 2009) requires. The prevailing emotions, as displayed in figure 13.8, were far removed from the status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness and fairness of SCARF.

Given the prevalence of stress and the subsequent negative emotions, the researcher developed a related concept, termed WAIVE as described in figure 13.9.

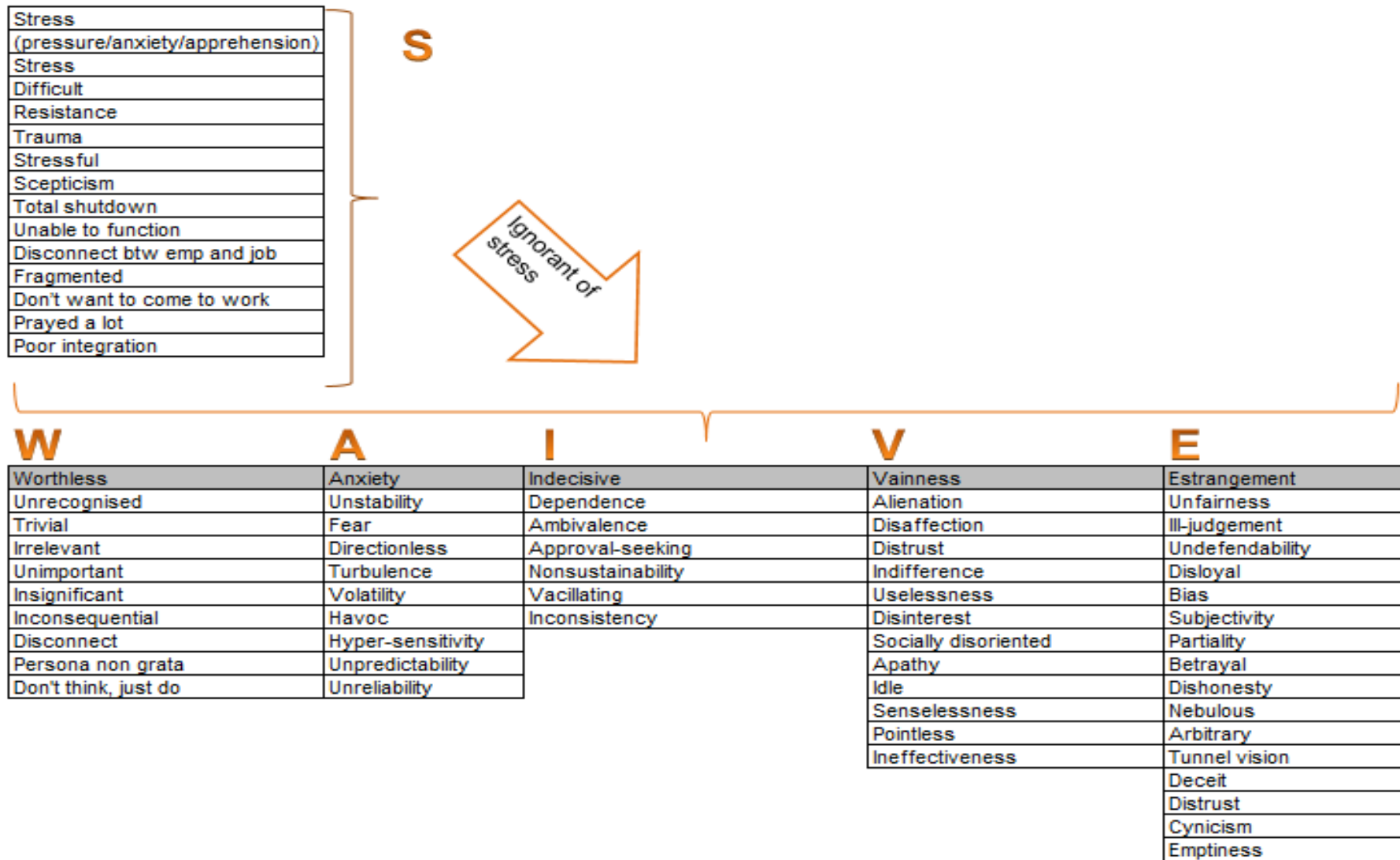


Figure 13.9: WAIVE emotions

In the grip of WAIVE, persons will give up voluntarily, relinquish, dismiss from consideration or discussion any possibility to engage with or fully participate in an organisational change initiative. As long as we are unable to acknowledge, manage and reduce stress, WAIVE is inevitable. If stress and trauma is reduced to manageable levels, then SCARFS and individual vicissitude become possible.

WAIVE is an acronym for **w**orthless, **a**nxious, **i**ndecisive, **v**ainness and **e**strangement as displayed in figure 13.9. Feelings of worthlessness include being unrecognised, feeling trivial and irrelevant, unimportant, insignificant and inconsequential. These feelings result in overall disconnect for the individual. In such a state, no meaningful change is possible. Anxiety encompasses feelings of fear, being directionless, turbulence, volatility and havoc. Again, if this is the overall state of the individual, no meaningful change can be effected.

Indecisiveness includes feelings of dependence, ambivalence, approval-seeking, vacillating and the inability to sustain any action. Vainness is the result of feelings of alienation, disaffect, distrust, indifference, disinterest, apathy and even social disorientation. Estrangement results from unfairness, ill-judgement, disloyalty, subjectivity, betrayal, deceit, bias, tunnel vision, emptiness, distrust and cynicism. These emotions are displayed in figure 13.9 below.

Figure 13.9 emphasises the importance of a stress check as discussed earlier. Employees who measured high on the stress barometer should be afforded the opportunity to reduce their stress levels. This should ideally be done before (as opposed to concurrently) embarking upon organisational change. Alternative intervention technologies, as discussed in chapters eleven and twelve, could be applied to provide a refuge from which such feelings could be re-integrated. Both SCARFS and WAIVE will form further building block elements in the emerging conceptual framework.

### **13.3.8 Change framework**

Three fundamentals, in constant interplay, are required in the change process, namely leadership, individuals and disequilibrium. The researcher consolidated these thoughts into figure 13.10 below.

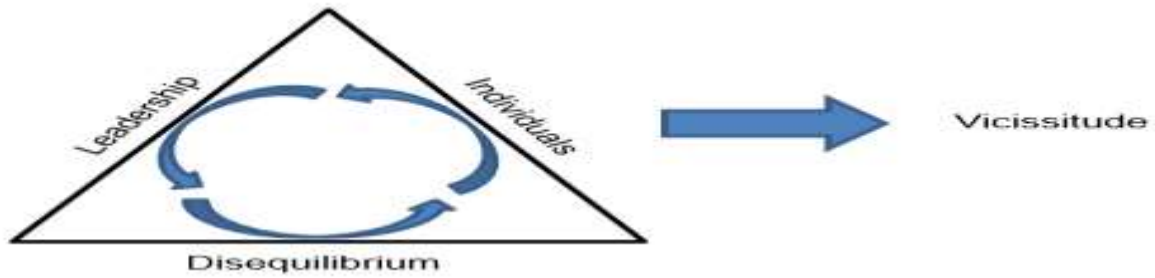


Figure 13.10: The leadership, individual, disequilibrium triangle

Figure 13.10 illustrates the interrelatedness between leadership, the individual and disequilibrium in order to attain vicissitude. These three fundamentals are equally active in the quest towards successful change. The concept of vicissitude deepens the extent to which the topic of change is presented. The term “change” has come to refer to anything that becomes different. Change is often oversimplified and reduced to single fragments as applicable in the specific context. The term “vicissitude” implies the need for a deeper understanding of change and all the relevant elements related to the fact of change as well as the need for change.

Change cannot be perceived as a set of linear steps which should be executed in a particular order. The researcher integrated the nonlinearity of change by developing the change elements as visualised in figure 13.11 below.

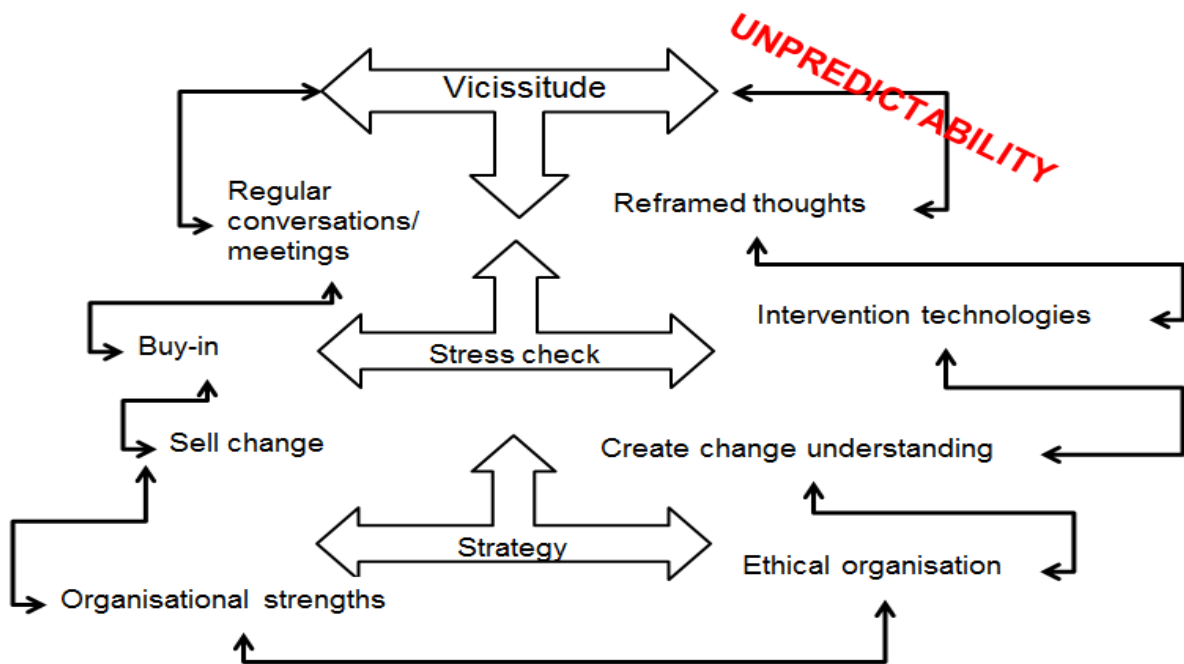


Figure 13.11: Visualised change elements

One should note that throughout the entire process, unpredictability is ever-present. Figure 13.11 illustrates the interdependence between strategy, stress and vicissitude. Minor functionality such as regular meetings, buy-in, selling the change and organisational strengths are interrelated, as is the connection between ethics, creating a change understanding, intervention technologies and reframed thoughts.

Figure 13.11 indicates that these elements are in constant movement. Repeated revisits of each step are required. As such, the last element will be to continuously revisit each element to ensure continuous improvement. These visualised change elements will form a further building block element in the emerging conceptual change framework.

It is accepted that change is required at an individual level. At an individual, team and organisational level, stress, the brain and human niche theory must be taken into consideration to ensure vicissitude. The change process for individuals, teams and the organisation as a whole must therefore comprise the physical, emotional, mental and spiritual worlds. Figure 13.12 indicates that coherence at an individual, team and organisational level can only be achieved when taking into account and integrating the mental, spiritual, physical and emotional worlds.

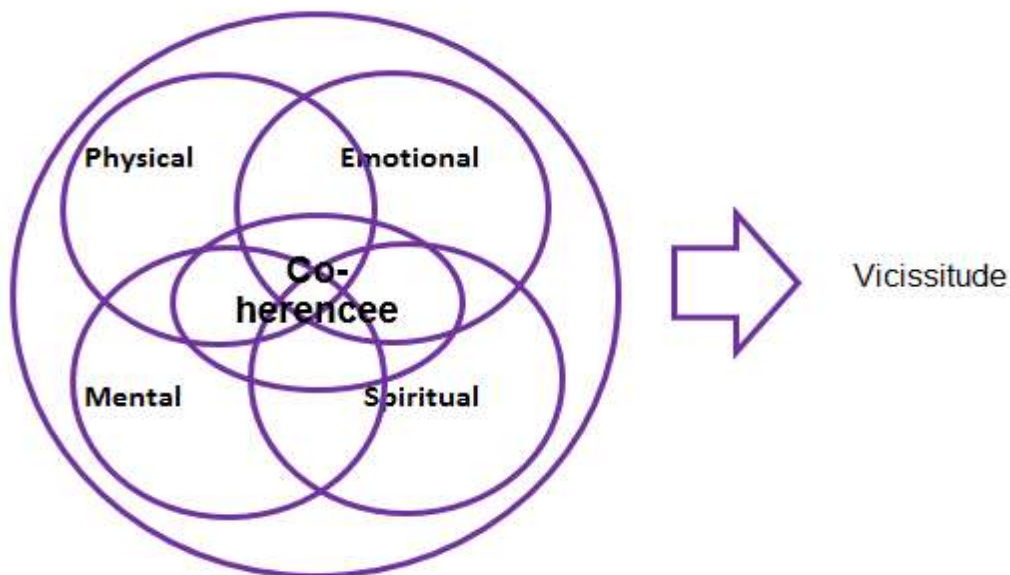


Figure 13.12: The individual change process



The change process depicted in figure 13.12 above, applies to the individual, team and organisation. This process was added to the upside-down triangle which depicts the 5S principle of strategy formulation, as represented in figure 13.6.

Individuals react differently to changes in the status quo. Individuals also differ in their ability to deal with organisational change. The emotions as described in WAIVE have to find an outlet. If stress is not treated with the necessary care and effectively reduced in an organisational context, such feelings will become ever more toxic and successful change will remain elusive. Creating awareness as well as the application of alternative intervention technologies may assist organisations to constructively lead individuals to participate favourably in change initiatives and towards eventual vicissitude.

Figure 13.13 below indicates the change framework which emerged from the data and literature. This figure thus integrates the interrelationship between core concepts related to organisational change and leadership. Therefore, figure 13.13 incorporates the individual change process, which, in turn, indicates that vicissitude can only be achieved by taking into account the individual, team and organisational change processes, brain functioning, stress, inclusivity, alternative interventions and human niche theory, encompassed in the 5S method of strategy formulation. Further represented in figure 13.13 are the pillars of communication, ethics, leadership and trust which, in turn, rest on time, unpredictability and chaos.

This practical change framework or roadmap, as emerged from data, literature and logical deductions, and presented in figure 13.13 is the key contribution and outcome of this research study. At an individual, leadership and organisational level, this conceptual change framework, as developed by the researcher and depicted in figure 13.13, could benefit employees undergoing organisational change as it promotes awareness and provides solutions for possible pitfalls along the organisational change route.

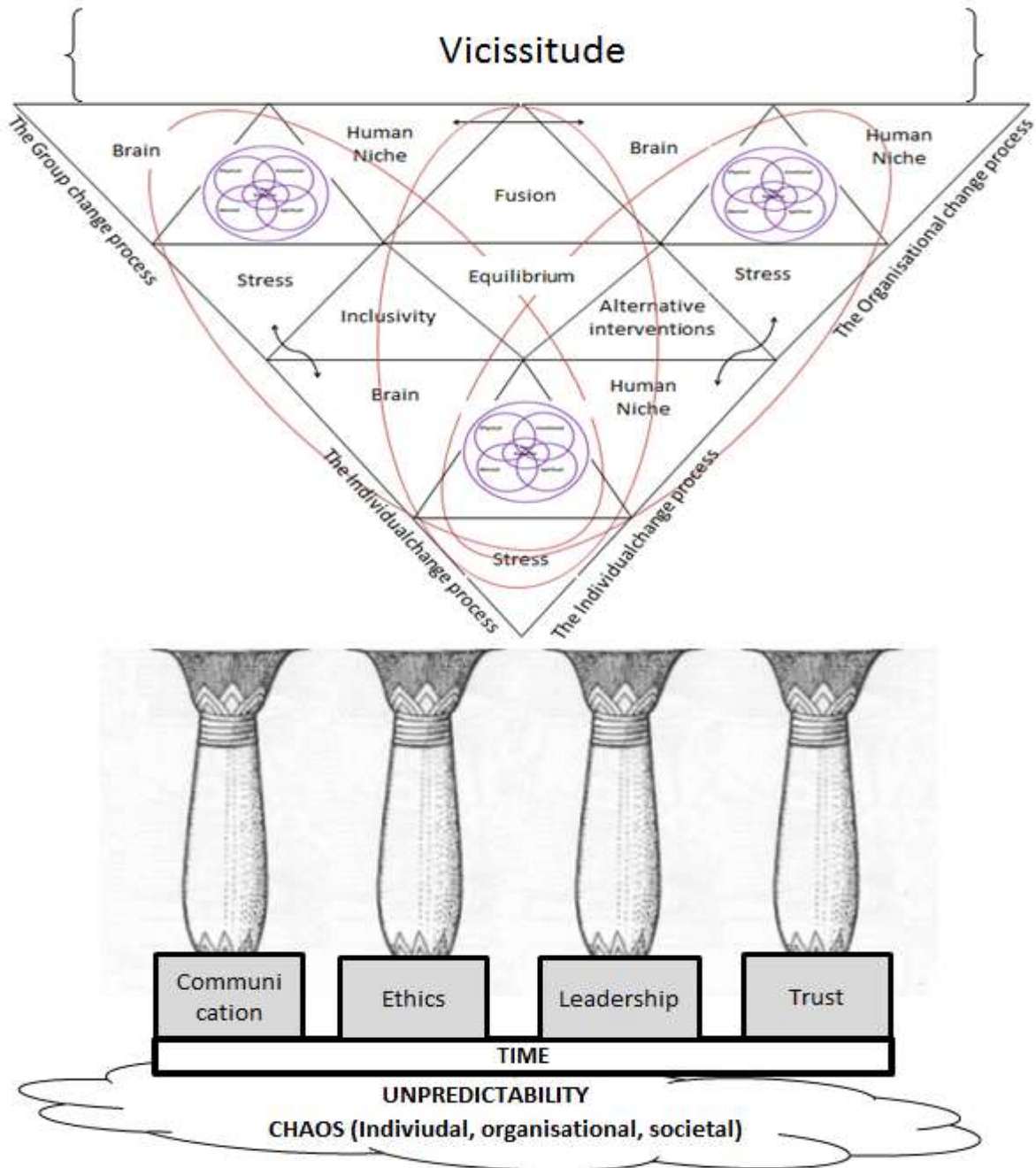


Figure 13.13: Change framework and Stoic pillars

Figure 13.13 indicates the upside-down triangle as one element of the 5S principle of strategy formulation - strategy design from the bottom up. Strategy formulation as well as the individual, team and organisational change process rests upon the four pillars of communication, ethics, leadership and trust. The relationship between these, and the Stoic pillars of justice, wisdom, self-control and courage is discussed in the next paragraph. The amount of time spent on change is a direct function of communication, ethics, leadership and trust. Time refers to spending time on the

important, not necessarily the urgent matters, and prioritising correctly. Vital decisions are generally difficult to reverse. Of significance is the strategy, and the time spent on executing the strategy. The change process and Stoic pillars form another building block element in the emerging conceptual framework.

Different worldviews perceive time, communication, ethics, leadership and trust differently. Yet, the Stoic virtues of justice, courage, wisdom and self-control remain relevant in a modern organisational context where justice could equate to ethics, wisdom to communication, self-control to trust and courage to leadership.

Ethics equates to justice because ethical behaviour, leadership and management imply fairness, transparency and openness. Corrupt, greedy, inefficient organisations which emphasise shareholder maximisation and exorbitant profits reinforce the importance of ethical organisations. Individuals increasingly expect organisations to be ethical entities. Ethical entities may enhance individual willingness to apply creativity and effort for the betterment of the organisation.

Given the daunting challenge of communication in many organisations, communication equates to wisdom. Wisdom is required to translate according to needs, language and understanding. Wise communication will ensure a common understanding by all. Communication further relates to leadership engagement and inclusivity of all stakeholders. Representative communication and translation of the message to all levels of understanding are crucial. Communication has to be the constant companion of change.

Self-control equates to trust as trust implies confidence, reliance and dependence in the longer term. Such trust is impossible to build without the necessary self-control from the leader. Trustful and ethical actions could minimise uncertainty. If uncertainty is reduced, individuals may be able to interact with the change initiative at a deeper level.

Courage equates to leadership. Leadership of the new organisation must be courageous and brave, sacrificial, spirited, fearless, intrepid and gutsy. Successful change largely rests on leadership commitment and individual change. Leadership

commitment to support the process of change and the change itself is imperative to ensure successful change. This implies a unified leadership front, fused together by a shared direction, purpose, voice and objectives. In the change process, leadership should be constantly aware of the toxic impact of uncertainty.

It is the researcher's view that trust generates commitment which, in turn, enhances effort. Asking moral questions, moral reasoning and moral courage are required in order to apply ethical principles which have the ability to minimise or reduce the potential harm caused. Combining ethical principles into strategy enhances the possibility of building trust, commitment and effort.

This can be represented by means of the following the change formula:

$$\text{Organisational change} = f(T \times \text{CELT})$$

Where f is a function of:

T = Time

C = Communication

E = Ethics

L = Leadership

T = Trust

The *Oxford universal dictionaryillustrated* (1959) explains a CELT as referring to a prehistoric-edged implement of bronze or stone. CELT therefore implies action or working. The time spent multiplied by the action of CELT will result in successful change.

This change formula, which the researcher developed from the data, differs significantly from the change formula presented by Struckman and Yammarino (2003), as discussed in chapter two. In contrast to Struckman and Yammarino (2003), the researcher suggests a multiplication sign, indicating that when one element is missing, the answer will equal zero. Furthermore, the researcher argues that when these elements are adhered to, readiness and process may be enhanced and resistance lowered.

As described above, the researcher perceived neutral actions as a conduit which fuses these neutralities into either positive or negative change. Strategy underpins the change process. The researcher integrated these findings as illustrated in figure 13.14 below.

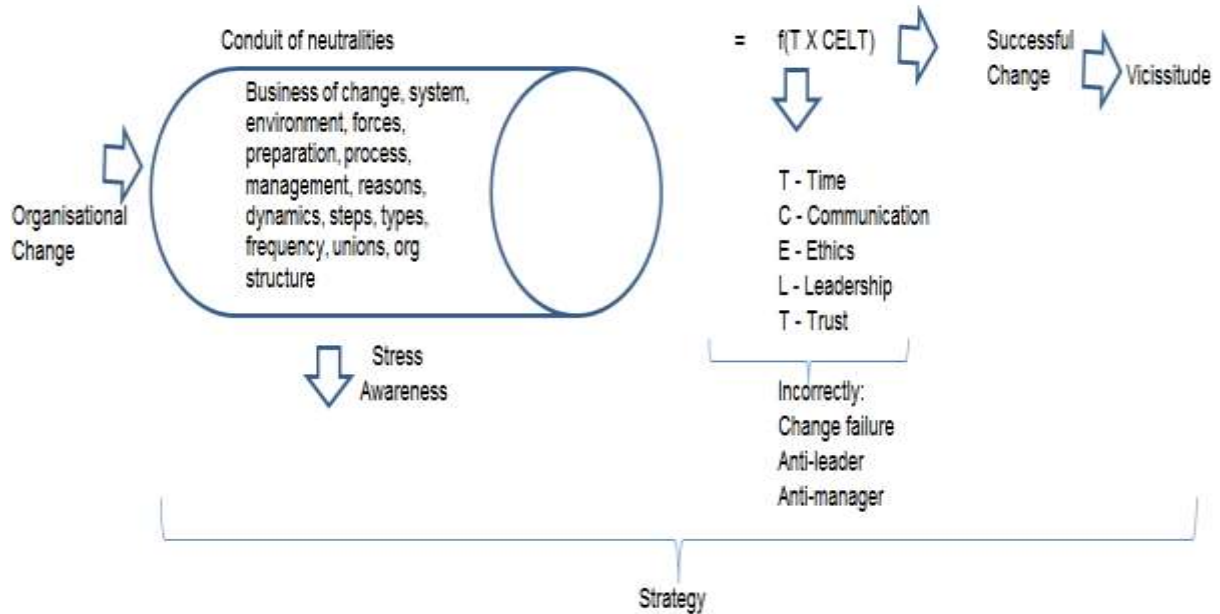


Figure 13.14: Fusion of  $f(T \times CELT)$  into positive or negative change

Figure 13.14 indicates that successful change is a function of time, multiplied by communication, ethics, leadership and trust. A conduit of neutralities follows. The outcome of the fusion of neutralities depends on the application of the change formula as illustrated above. The fusion of  $f(T \times CELT)$  into positive or negative change will form the final building block element in the emerging conceptual framework on organisational change and leadership.

The main intent of this study pertained to theory creation through the use of data and literature, with subsequent logical deductions. Figure 13.15 indicates a visualised summary, incorporating what organisational change could look like given the emergent building block elements. Consequently, figure 13.15 depicts the conduit of neutralities, the change formula, WAIVE, the change process, 5S strategy formulation, the pillars of change and eventual vicissitude. The 5S strategy formulation indicates an upside down triangle which vests interest in the people as opposed to the traditional bottom-up view. The data indicated that the design of the new organisation must come from the people - hence the upside-down triangle.

Through participation, inclusivity, empowerment and enablement an organisation can arise which incorporates different worldviews, which acknowledges and accepts the impact of stress and which allows individual vicissitude.

WAIVE and SCARFS, which were discussed previously, also feature. WAIVE represents the negative emotions experienced during organisational change. SCARFS represent the positive emotions, with an awareness of stress. In the face of uncontrolled stress and heightened negative emotions, optimal functioning becomes extremely challenging, hence the inclusion of the stress barometer. The stress barometer can gauge individual's stress levels.

Figure 13.15 further depicts the change elements indicated by means of arrows and interchangeability, as none of these elements can be approached in a linear fashion. The change elements are continually in motion and need to be revisited repeatedly, in no particular order. The change initiative rests upon chaos and unpredictability, which becomes a direct function of time spent. This relates back to the change formula which was discussed in a previous section as well as to the acknowledgement of organisational change as a complex, adaptive system. If the change formula is applied in the organisation, a trustful environment may allow the individual to acknowledge and share heightened stress levels openly. This formula requires organisations to rethink their priorities in order to ensure successful change. Failure to apply this formula is likely to result in unsuccessful change.

In terms of figure 13.15 below, vicissitude can be achieved if organisational leaders give due consideration to 5S strategy formulation, the importance of a stress check before embarking upon change, the change formula, SCARFS and WAIVE. When built on the pillars of communication, ethics, leadership and trust, underpinned by time spent on the organisational change activity, successful change may become a reality. Although busy, figure 13.15 thus presents an innovative, summarised visualisation, which provides organisations with the most prominent of the multi-faceted dimensions and variables at play during organisational change.



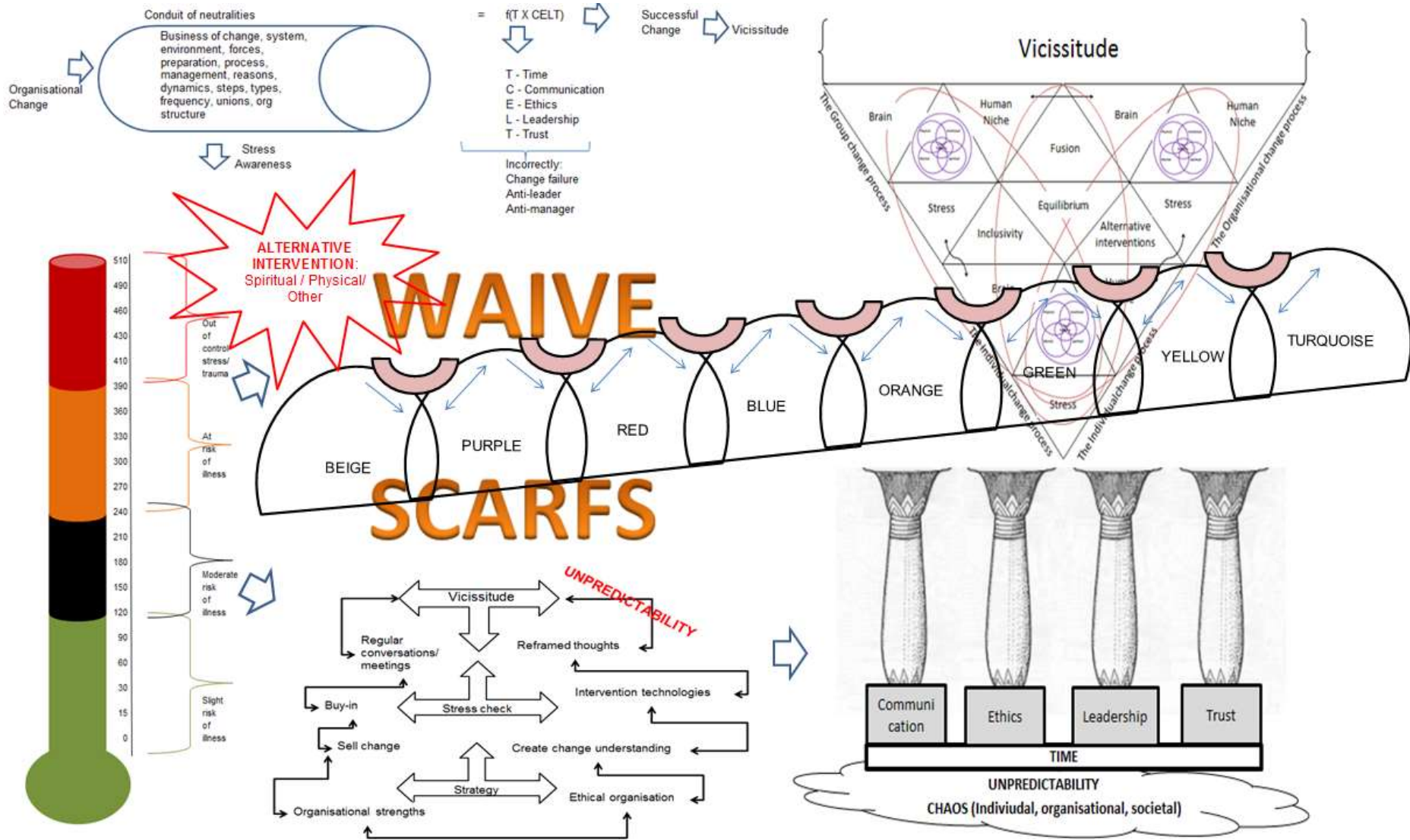


Figure 13.15: Change visualisation

Through acknowledging individual stress and incorporating human niches, the change visualisation, as depicted in figure 13.15, also pinpoints the reasons behind individual behaviours. An improved understanding of such individual behaviours could lead to improved cohesion and productivity in the change environment. Although the change visualisation for organisational change and leadership, as depicted in the above figure, emerged from data, theory and logical deductions, such visualisation has not been empirically tested.

### **13.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS ANSWERED**

Various research questions underscored this study. These questions, as posed in chapter one, will be answered in sections 13.4.1 to 13.4.4.

The primary aim of this research was theory creation in development of a conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership to serve as a catalyst for the successful execution, implementation and completion of organisational change. The data identified communication, ethics, leadership, trust and time as interrelated fundamentals in the change process. Successful change requires awareness of the interrelatedness between leadership, the individual and disequilibrium in order to attain vicissitude. The researcher answered the stated research questions, which means that the research aims were achieved.

#### **13.4.1 How can a conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership be created?**

*“When a man or woman does not know what harbour he or she is making for, no wind is the right wind” (Seneca, Roman stoic philosopher, 4bc – 65ad).*

The outcome of the change process is a function of the amount of time spent on change. Strategy implies change. The successful execution of change requires time, as do individuals to internalise change. Paradoxically, in the organisation, time is generally in short supply. Leadership need to be patient and realistic about the timeframe required for organisational and individual change. Through time spent, trust can be built. When there is trust and realistic time allowances, an affinity towards change and individual vicissitude can be cultivated.



Any change process should start at a strategic level, but employee involvement is required in strategy formulation. Moving from the old to the new requires input from employees at the coalface. This radically changes traditional organisational strategy formulation. Organisational leaders should acknowledge that actual solutions must come from those employees who are closest to the challenges and to the required change. This requires leaders to let go of control, which in turn, might be perceived as high risk and counter-productive.

Strategy formulation from the bottom up ensures that lower-level activities are aligned with measurable objectives, goals and milestones. Such strategy formulation will ensure intimate knowledge of the strategy by all and therefore assist with buy-in. Thereafter successful translation and communication of the strategy becomes superfluous.

Strategy needs to adapt as the business evolves and transforms. The business landscape is unpredictable, fast paced and volatile. The more unpredictable the environment, the more frequently we need to look into the future, plan, predict and adapt in a flexible and fluid manner.

Organisations must utilise the unpredictability and disequilibrium, as this allows living systems to adapt and grow. Paradoxically, leaders should thrive on chaos, whilst providing the vision. This implies that leaders must allow and encourage individual growth within such disequilibrium. Failing to do so, will undoubtedly result in stagnation and inertia.

Change causes fear, anxiety, uncertainty and increased stress levels. Organisational change has been compared to a war situation and a burning platform which is, as a result of its very nature, traumatic. Change preparation should realise the severity of change. Organisations should prepare employees in a similar way as one would prepare soldiers who are being sent to war. However, South African businesses largely attempt such change with virtually no planning or preparation and no awareness of the impact of such changes on individuals.

The respondents in this study admitted that the impact of stress was huge. Diversity and a lack of cultural understanding further contribute to increasing individual stress levels. Organisations struggle to manage the stress inherent in stable organisations, even more so, during turbulent times. Application of alternative intervention technologies may assist individuals to reduce individual stress levels while changing individual consciousness. This, in turn, might lead to individual vicissitude.

Leaders need to distinguish between employees who struggle with change and those who are obstinate and obstructive. Both should be afforded the opportunity to engage in alternative intervention technologies in order to more productively engage in the change process. However, if individuals continue to obstruct, despite a workable organisational outlet for stress, such individuals should be removed from the change process, lest they damage the entire change initiative. This requires leaders to initiate honest conversations and necessary endings.

Leadership should visibly communicate the change objectives while showing the required measurable at an individual, team and organisational level. Potential changes should be thoroughly researched and communicated. Constant, relevant and understandable communication must accompany the change initiative.

Change requires reframed thinking. Leaders in the change process should be cognisant of different human niches, which results in different behaviours, communication and perspectives. Stress will result in a downshift of human niche, further hampering successful change. SCARFS and WAIVE illustrated the difficult and negative emotions which take centre stage during times of change.

The change process is chaotic, turbulent and complex. Chaos and uncertainty are predominant features of organisational change given the myriad of elements involved in the change process. Hence a large part of change should involve decoding and simplification. This entails the reordering, prioritisation and arrangement of elements into manageable entities. All of these change dynamics are governed by the time leadership spends on the change activity.

The conceptual change framework which emerged from the data was described in detail in section 13.3.8 and was depicted in figure 13.13. This conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership was the primary objective of this study. While the application of this conceptual framework must be tested, the researcher believe that organisational change success may become feasible when organisational leaders adhere to the guiding principles of this framework.

#### **13.4.2 How does the leadership role impact on successful organisational change?**

The first subresearch question related to the impact of leadership on successful organisational change. The data clearly indicated leadership as a non-negotiable, pivotal factor in successful organisational change. Leadership is the glue which holds the change process together. Without leadership, change should not be attempted as a successful outcome would be compromised.

Leaders are the host and custodian of the change initiative. A primary task of a host is to take care and look after others. Hosts must ensure minimal discomfort of those involved given the turbulence and unpredictability that forms the foundation of the said initiative. The leader versus the anti-leader was discussed in detail in section 13.3.2. The detrimental effects of the anti-leader on individuals were highlighted in this section. Because leadership is a non-negotiable success factor, to ensure organisational change success, leadership must eliminate and eradicate the actions of anti-leaders.

The innumerable dynamics which leaders attempt to keep afloat in an organisational change context led the researcher to a juggling analogy. Keeping all these dynamics afloat is challenging. This is illustrated in figure 13.16 below. Different thinking systems or human niches, current brain research, stress awareness and alternative intervention technologies may assist the leader to reframe thoughts regarding change. This could assist with relevant prioritisation of these innumerable dynamics.

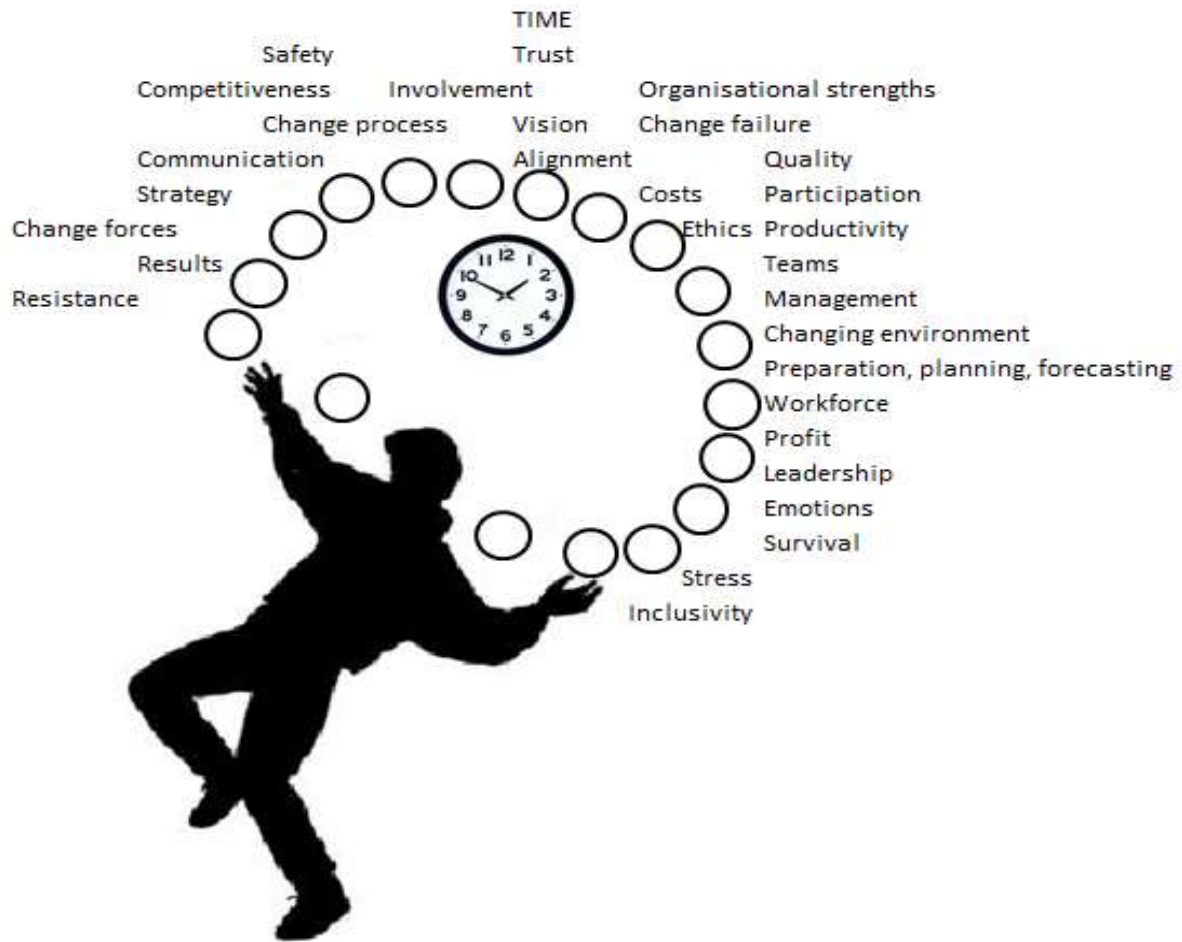


Figure 13.16: Juggling organisational changes

Organisational change is chaotic, messy, unpredictable, disordered and disorganised. Resistance, costs, profit, emotions, survival, trust, ethics, involvement, communication, strategy, teams, preparation, planning, forecasting, stress, inclusivity and the changing environment are some of the dynamic elements relating to organisational change as displayed in figure 13.16.

Given the context of organisational change, leaders should be a portal. They should provide a means of entrance, a doorway, for the individual to engage with change and reach eventual vicissitude. Leadership during change is pivotal to organisational and individual change. The amount of time leaders spend on change is a direct function of the change outcome. Leadership that allows the individual new ways to share, engage, understand and operate, affording individuals the opportunity to excel, prosper and exhilarate, facilitates individual vicissitude.

### **13.4.3 Can any fundamental elements be identified as essential for inclusion in such an attempted change framework?**

Individuals, leaders and disequilibrium are the foundation of organisational change fundamentals. The change formula lays down the building blocks for change. A shared, adaptable change strategy and efficient management will provide a solid structure to house organisational change. There are positive, negative and neutral organisational elements. The neutral elements *per se* cannot determine change success or failure. Neutral elements just are. The change formula determines whether the outcome of these neutral elements is positive or negative.

In the context of organisational change, it is impossible to speak of steps because all activities are interrelated. All activities happen simultaneously and cannot be interpreted as a set of linear activities. These change elements are displayed in table 13.3 below.

The first change element is strategy. Strategy should encompass change. This element is the starting point for change. Strategy should encompass change, because if it does not, all further activities will be distorted. Clear change priorities, principles and objectives should be established in this element.

Business is volatile and turbulent - the future changes every day. Given such turbulence, an awareness of the organisation's strengths in terms of change is another element. Strengths should be harnessed. If the organisation has little strength for change, it should admit, accept and source the necessary expertise. With little or no strengths in organisational change functioning, successful outcomes will be compromised.

Another element is ethics. Organisations should endeavour to become and be ethical entities. Organisational leaders should share a conviction about the organisational values and live these accordingly. Leadership must set the ethical example for employees to follow. No South African organisation can withstand a cocktail of greed, corruption and inefficiency.

Table 13.3: Change elements and components

Interrelated change elements	Change components
<b>UNPREDICTABILITY</b>	
Strategy	Strategy
	Long-term view
	Planning and forecasting
	Change starting point/baseline
	Change priorities
	Change principles
Strengths	Awareness of organisational strengths
Ethics	Ethical organisation
	Living organisational values
Sell change	Sell burning platform
	Leadership
	Leadership characteristics (+)
	Connection between leader and follower
	Management abilities
Inclusivity	Create change understanding
	Participation
	Empowerment
	Honest conversations
	Involvement and inclusivity
Stress	Stress check (WAIVE)
Intervention	Intervention technology
Change process	Buy-in
	Alignment
	Accountability
	Commitment
	Emotion: trust
	Individual change process

Interrelated change elements	Change components
Regular conversations	Regular meetings (regular!)
	Show change (visibility of change)
	Share change actions and activities
	Show next actions
Consciousness	Reframed thoughts/changed consciousness
	Improved productivity
Vicissitude	Vicissitude (SCARFS)

Table 13.3 illustrates the interlinked change elements which must be followed and repeatedly revisited to ensure successful change. These elements are not linear and cannot be executed in a step-by-step format. Unpredictability forms the platform from which leaders must engage with these change elements.

Organisational leaders have to sell the burning platform or the organisational change intention. Leaders should know their followers. Management abilities are essential to ensure success in this element. Both leaders and managers require a cultivated affinity for change, coupled with a true concern for followers.

The stress barometer was discussed in detail in chapter nine and reddepicted in figure 13.7. This barometer may now be used to gauge, measure and check individual stress levels. Thereafter, appropriate alternative intervention technologies may be identified and applied.

The organisation must achieve buy-in from individuals regarding the change initiative. A lack of buy-in will most likely indicate a lack of participation and involvement which in turn will result in resistance. If organisations follow 5S strategy formulation, buy-in is implied. Through buy-in, the relationship between leaders and followers will rest on improved trust which will support the change process.

Regular open discussions underpin all the above elements and should visibly show the change, the change requirements and indicate next actions. Various communication tools should aid the visualisation according to the needs of the

PURPLE, RED and BLUE human niches specifically. Constant, relevant communication should accompany every change element and component.

Through iterations of the above, reframed thoughts and changed consciousness become possible. With manageable stress levels, the change elements can be applied. Thereafter, changed consciousness at individual level is most likely to result in vicissitude.

This section focused on fundamental elements that should be included in a change framework. However, it should be stated that unmanaged or uncontrolled stress will result in WAIVE, which was discussed previously. WAIVE was depicted in figure 13.9. The change elements were visualised in figure 13.11. Unfortunately, all of the above could be negated by the actions of the anti-leader, as discussed in section 13.3.2.

#### **13.4.4 What success factors are non-negotiable to ensure successful change?**

The leadership, individual and disequilibrium triangle as displayed in figure 13.10 again applies. Leadership is a non-negotiable success factor. However, this leadership profile differs from the traditional leadership profile which advocates a top-down approach. Today's leadership requires that we recognise and harness the power vested in individuals and teams. This requires openness to different worldviews, new suggestions, diverse insights and acceptance of alternative requirements. Transparency in terms of resource allocation, information sharing, knowledge and tools could ensure the required autonomy to complete tasks. New leadership is inclusive of all, shares information and knowledge and creates an environment conducive to change. Leaders required in the new organisation are portals, willing to sacrifice and taking pride in the development of their followers.

Individuals are ultimately responsible for change. Successful change can only be achieved through vicissitude of the individual and the leader. This concept was displayed through the visualisation of the 5S strategy formulation principle, acknowledging the importance of change at an individual, team and organisational level as displayed in figure 13.6. The individual change process also pertains as



displayed in figure 13.12. The application of alternative intervention technologies may assist the individual (and leaders) towards vicissitude.

Given the prevalence of stress, it seems as if the organisational wellness function could benefit from doing things differently. Applying human niche thinking and offering relevant alternative intervention technologies (as suggested in figure 12.4) could enhance the wellness function and increase individual functioning.

The data revealed the importance of time, communication, ethics, leadership and trust. This resulted in the creation of the change formula  $[f(T \times CELT)]$  which was touched on earlier. Each of the elements within this change formula will now be discussed briefly.

#### **13.4.4.1 Time**

TIME has become the big four letter word in modern business. Generally, time is spent on the urgent, not the important. Moreover, globalisation and technology distort our view of time. Concepts such as always-available and always-connected challenge our priorities and capacity. Time can be subjective. Also, the meaning and understanding of time varies greatly in the different human niches.

This illustrates the significance of prioritising the important from the urgent. Generally speaking, the important requires significant commitment of resources. An important decision is generally not easily reversible. The important is the strategy, and the time spent on executing it. New organisational thinking realises the productivity of time spent on the important, while being cognisant of the time that individuals need for adjustment, adaptation and eventual vicissitude. Such organisational thinking should also reduce stress through the allowance for individual adaptation.

#### **13.4.4.2 Communication**

Leaders should communicate and engage, ensuring that they take individuals along on the change journey. Following 5S may greatly enhance communication and engagement. Failure to follow 5S implies that more efficient communication methods must be employed. Communication can only be effective if a shared, deep understanding of the need for change have been established by everybody involved.

Furthermore, effective communication requires listening to employees and acting on feedback.

Communication must include all stakeholders. Communication to lower levels within the organisation requires carefully considered, specific communication. Effective communication entails real, representative communication which ensures that the message is clearly understood. An awareness and understanding of different human niches may assist in the translation of messages to a level of understanding.

Within communication, an awareness of stress must again feature. Increased stress levels will result in incorrect perceptions and distorted messages. When individual stress levels are heightened, the capacity to listen, hear and engage is reduced. Utilisation of alternative intervention technologies, as applicable to different human niches, should improve the ability of individuals to listen, hear and engage in the change initiative.

Communication is the constant companion of change. Change requires constant and efficient communication. At no point is the communication function complete. No number of e-mails, memos or notice board information pin-ups can compensate for face-to-face communication. While acknowledging technological tools and their value, leaders should be aware that such tools do not necessarily ensure engagement and understanding.

#### **13.4.4.3 Ethics**

Individuals increasingly expect organisations to be ethical entities. The acceptability of the organisation to engage in ethical and responsible behaviour will increase or decrease the willingness of individuals to apply their creativity and make the effort to improve the organisation. Equally, ethical behaviour should reduce stress through increased predictability as employees know what behaviour to expect from their organisation. The ability of the organisation of the future to prosper will increasingly depend on the creativity of individuals.

#### **13.4.4.4 Leadership**

Leadership and change are interconnected. Change will not happen without leadership commitment. Leadership commitment to support the process of change as well as the change itself is imperative to ensure successful change. This implies a unified leadership front, fused together by a shared direction, purpose, voice and objectives.

The leadership task during change is huge and difficult. Leadership should create a trustful environment for individual change while limiting uncertainty. Operating from a basis of trust and ethics is an important element from which uncertainty can be removed. Once uncertainty has been minimised, individuals will be better able to interact with the change initiative at a much deeper level. Equally, as predictability increases, so individual stress may be reduced. This was discussed in detail in a previous section.

For organisations this is a time for a radical upgrade. Organisations need to upgrade their meaning, empathy, compassion, responsiveness and visions. Now is the turning point for organisations. However, individuals must lead these changes. In order to usher in this new age, individuals must speak their meaning, hearts, souls and dreams. The conduit fusing new meaning, creativity, originality and willingness with solid output will be the new leaders.

#### **13.4.4.5 Trust**

Trust generates commitment which, in turn, enhances effort. Asking moral questions, moral reasoning and moral courage are required to apply ethical principles which have the ability to minimise or reduce potential harm caused. Translating ethical principles into strategy enhances the possibility of building trust, commitment and effort.

Each human niche asks a different question about trust and requires a different outward display of trust. However, applying honesty, integrity, reliability and justice consistently, leaves less room for mistrust, distrust and incorrect interpretations. Mindfulness, attentiveness and cognisance close to the heart of the leader are most

likely to unleash the latent goodwill in the PURPLE human niche. Similarly, stress may be reduced within a trusting environment.

#### **13.4.5 What human elements relate to organisational change?**

Fear and scepticism are inherent in organisational change and should be addressed tenaciously. Without the ability to minimise human fear, organisational change is unlikely to succeed. Organisational change results in stress, anxiety and fear. If these emotions are not dealt with, the individual will react with a fight, flight or freeze response.

People are their emotions. A wide range of negative emotions comes to the fore during organisational change. Earlier chapters implicitly indicated that individuals still first use their emotional brain when in a situation that they perceive as stressful. Thereafter, an individual might engage with his or her cognitive brain. Leaders thus have to acknowledge and manage emotions. To authentically manage emotions requires empathy, understanding and compassion on the part of leaders.

Change is unpredictable and results in uncertainty. Fear follows, and is likely to impede on decision making. Thereafter information is processed and thoughts are applied to the new situation. These thoughts are generally based upon perceptions or memories or earlier, similar situations and can thus be positive or negative. Negative memories will evoke stress responses in the individual, and depending on the individual's emotional tolerance window, habit (the old way of doing things) or new behaviours will apply. This process was visualised in figure 13.4.

Hence thoughts become repetitive, reverting to known memories and perceptions. Scepticism results, again increasing stress. A vicious circle ensues. Each individual's emotional tolerance window will depend on the quality of choice that arises. A low emotional tolerance window will result in the individual falling back into habits which are comfortable and known. A high emotional tolerance window will allow new behaviour to be explored and actioned which in turn can result in newly created meaning. This same process applies to leaders and managers.

Alternative intervention technologies could enable the organisation to harness the brain's neuroplasticity and to optimise the emotional tolerance window of individuals. This in turn, may allow individual unconscious to come into consciousness; thereafter, changed perceptions and changed thoughts become possible. Emotions play a crucial role in creating meaning. The respondents in this study admitted to feelings of being overwhelmed. Alternative intervention technologies could be applied to provide a refuge from which such feelings could be re-integrated.

The relevance of stress at an individual level can and should no longer be ignored. It seems pertinent to note that this equally applies to leaders and managers. Stress plays a significant part and must be acknowledged and managed. Stress should first be reduced to manageable levels. Any form of lasting, sustainable change or vicissitude will otherwise be unlikely. Controlled stress levels increase the individual's emotional window of tolerance or range of effective functioning.

Organisations must find ways to re-engage the hearts of individuals. As long as individuals see their world through fear, the resultant output will be negative and unpredictable. If individuals are able to experience the world with less fear, the resultant output will reflect a changed perception. For individuals who are able to change their perceptions from defence to engagement and curiosity, vicissitude becomes a real possibility.

The leaders in organisations have to lead the way to re-engage the conversation between body, mind and soul. Coherence can come about when organisations engage the physical, emotional, spiritual and mental elements of the individual. Individuals need meaning. Creating individual meaning in the change process has the potential to unleash huge energy.

#### **13.4.6 How can the understanding of human niche thinking aid the change process?**

The reality of different human niche thinking within the organisation was displayed. Further, the disconnect that then results between the organisation and the individual was illustrated, as was the inevitable resistance which arises.

The impact of stress on human niches was discussed, as was the likelihood of an individual's regression as a result of stress. As a result of stress individuals feel disconnected at a physical, emotional, psychological and spiritual level. Disconnectedness and constriction constrains successful organisational change.

Alternative intervention technologies were offered in order to assist individuals to cope with their issues, emotions and stresses in an applicable manner. These whole person map in figure 12.4 displayed relevant human niche alternative intervention technologies.

Through an awareness and understanding of human niche thinking, organisational change initiatives can be designed accordingly. Such a design will alleviate feelings of isolation, fear and stress, aiding the change process.

### **13.5 META-INSIGHTS**

Leadership and organisational change go hand in hand. Only through a symbiotic, interlinked, interdependency between organisational change and leadership can successful organisational change be achieved. This was indicated through the conceptual framework in figure 13.13, which is a key contribution and outcome of this study. After reflection on the topic of organisational change and leadership, the following meta-insights emerged:

- 1) This research confirmed that organisations are complex, adaptive systems (Grant, 2008), and as such, they need disequilibrium to survive.
- 2) Individuals create organisations. Organisational change disrupts the individual's inherent need for predictability and order. The resultant stressful effect on the individual can be devastating.
- 3) Organisational change results in stress. Organisations are unable to deal with individual stress constructively. If stress is not addressed, individual functioning and productivity are compromised and individuals are likely to suffer. Furthermore, the individual's human niche is likely to regress.
- 4) This is the paradox: trauma causes us to distrust our body. Our body let us down. The trauma-releasing exercises require that you re-trust your own body completely. Once we absolutely trust our body, the same body that failed us

previously will become a bridge into the BEIGE human niche; regressing back to our human animal. From there upshift becomes possible. One must overcome cognitive knowledge or cognitive memories and allow the body to do what is needed, and what the body knows best to do. The body has the ability to heal itself.

- 5) We need to regress to BEIGE in order to expand our worldview. We require BEIGE to heal ourselves.
- 6) YELLOW believes that the only way back to homeostasis or equilibrium for individuals and the planet alike, is through large-scale tragedy/destruction (Beck and Cowan, 1996). Mass trauma (as seen daily in South Africa and Africa) is possibly the underpinning of such destruction. When we realise that we are all interconnected through trauma, we can start to transcend our inherent need for justice and retribution, which is the result of trauma. The hurt I cause another, I do unto myself. Through the healing I allow myself, I invariably heal my organisation, my society, my country and the globe. As I enlighten myself, I enlighten my organisation and my community.
- 7) BLUE becomes stuck in its own dogma. Systems – as created in BLUE – become a burden. Trauma and/or stress shake a person's faith, his or her ultimate belief system. Trauma or stress creates the trigger from where an individual can muster the strength to transcend his or her belief system. Then an individual can see this belief system as a means to a cause and not as a cause within in itself. Failing the above, individuals, organisations and communities will regress back to RED as they will once again require the strength of RED to cope with their questions of existence. When BLUE is able to transcend the burden of his/her belief system, it is ideally placed to shift into ORANGE.
- 8) Trauma and/or stress cause the individual, organisation and society to become constricted. Through the suggested alternative intervention technologies we are able to release ourselves from our own constrictions. This allows our worldviews to expand. This enables us to see the world through different eyes, allowing us to look at others differently and in a non-threatening way, with deeper empathy and understanding of our differences and similarities. When we are in this state, we are ideally placed to shift up the spiral and start dealing with more complex questions of existence.

- 9) Shared suffering creates a bond amongst individuals involved. This bond can be toxic, but is extremely strong. This bond creates a feeling of safety as we all shared the suffering. We have to break loose because this is holding us in bondage. South Africa's conscious suffering of freedom fighters is keeping them attached to their clan/tribe. What the tribe now needs is something different. We have to let go of this shared suffering in order to allow the tribe to de-constrict.
- 10) Belgian bricks are a broadly rectangular quarried stones used for paving roads. These stones are often referred to as cobbles. Newly built vehicles are driven over such a cobbled road to ensure correct fastenings. In the same way as a vehicle shakes and shudders over cobblestones to release anything that is not fastened, we have to shake ourselves to become loose. When we shake loose, what we think is not always what will come loose. It will loosen automatically that which we no longer need to operate.
- 11) In BEIGE, we access a non-verbal belonging, transcending our need for language. Language is a barrier and creator of diversity and fear. Through actions which result in a non-verbal sense of belonging we can transcend diversity and fear. We are then able to completely reposition ourselves for repurposing. Individuals, teams, organisations, societies and South Africa at large must transcend language barriers. Language barriers can be overcome if individuals are allowed a space where they can speak the universal language of the heart. This can be achieved through increased consciousness which may increase everybody's sense of belonging.
- 12) Leadership, by implication, means leading. If leaders are not being followed, they are inherently not leading. They might be managing, but they are not leading. Such "leaders" are either following, obstructing or anti-leading.

### **13.6 ENSURING QUALITY DATA**

The researcher applied a multi-model method of data collection comprising a case study, in-depth interviews, focus group sessions, solicited data, field notes and observations. The multiple sources of data gathering were advantageous and allowed organisational change and leadership to be investigated from different angles. Such a multi-model method assisted with cross-checking and data interpretation while minimising distortion. Data triangulation was thus used as a



strategy for improving the reliability of the research findings as the methods converged to ensure fit and relevance.

The researcher attempted not to simplify what was being observed. A special effort was made to recognise the multifaceted, multidimensionality relating to the topic of organisational change and leadership. Controlling definitions were applied throughout.

Validity in its traditional sense was not an issue, because of the grounded theory methodology. Given a grounded theory context, the evaluation criteria for this study involved fit, credibility, workability, relevance and modifiability.

The researcher applied constant comparison of incidents to concepts to ensure fit. Through constant comparison, the categories of theory fit the data. Data was not forced or selected to fit pre-conceived categories. The researcher constantly fitted and re-fitted categories to the data while developing an emerging fit between the data and pre-existent categories. The researcher thus derived theory which is representative of and fitting towards organisational change and leadership.

The researcher regarded the generation of theory as an ever-modifiable process, with nothing sacred, while paying priority attention to the data. She attempted to create modifiable theory related to the topic of organisational change and leadership. In this study, it helped to establish how open the resultant framework was to refinement or the degree to which the developed theory could be generalised to other contexts. The researcher attempted to ensure that the actions, interaction and processes described for the resultant framework were not prescriptive, but flexible and adaptive to fit the environmental conditions of any industry or organisation about to undergo some form of change initiative.

Through integrity, the researcher attempted to minimise errors through the process of collecting, recording and analysing data, while relevance ensured that the data remained important to users and their needs. Credibility was ensured through prolonged engagement, persistent observation, peer debriefing and progressive subjectivity.

Through the adaption of a constructivist approach, the researcher acknowledged that many possible truths may be discovered. She honoured multiple perspectives held by different individuals, and granted each of these perspectives equal validity or truth. She also attempted to derive relevant theory and a relevant framework that would acknowledge these different truths.

The researcher attempted to create workable theory that explained how the problem was being solved with much variation. This was achieved because the theory was able to explain what had happened, predict what would happen and interpret what was happening in an area of organisational change and leadership.

Through the integration and application of human niche theory, the researcher attempted to ensure transferability of the emergent, conceptual framework. This conceptualised framework, which emerged, may therefore, be transferable to both public and private sectors, to emerging economies, to Africa and even globally. Such transferability becomes possible as human niches are universal in application. While this conceptualised framework was developed within a South African context, the developed framework could thus be equally applicable given a global context.

The researcher applied triangulation where data was collected from multiple sources, combined and constantly compared to establish differences and similarities. Data triangulation was used as a strategy to improve the reliability of the research findings as the applied methods and techniques converged to ensure fit and relevance throughout the emergence of the conceptual framework for organisational change and leadership.

### **13.7 CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE**

Change has become all pervasive, permeating every aspect of organisational life. Organisations are characterised by change, which results in instability, unpredictability, a sense of loss, anxiety and even fear for individuals, leaders and organisations alike. Chaos, volatility, uncertainty, disorder, messy, turmoil, turbulent and stress are terms used to describe organisational change. In the midst of such chaos, this study attempted to bring a workable solution to enable organisations to implement change successfully.

Successful change can be achieved. Conscious and aware leadership and management can ensure successful change and mitigate resistance and stress at individual, group, organisational and even societal levels.

The unique contribution of this study relates to the phenomena of organisational change and leadership. Change is prevalent in organisations, communities, societies and individuals. Organisations increasingly have to plan for, anticipate and live with change. Change is required not only to survive, but also to remain competitive. The conceptual change framework that emerged from data, literature and logical deductions, as well as the resultant theory, in the form of a practical roadmap, as discussed in section 13.3.8 and illustrated in figure 13.13, was presented as the unique and key contribution and output of this study. This conceptualised change framework integrates the multi-faceted and multi-dimensional elements relating to organisational change and leadership. The use of such a conceptual change framework could assist organisations to better capitalise on change. However, this conceptualised framework needs to be empirically tested in order to become a roadmap that organisations may follow.

The application of this change framework, as developed by the researcher and presented in figure 13.13, will hopefully enable organisations to significantly and sustainably modify the way in which they initiate and effect change. The proposed change framework should also help to mitigate the detrimental effects of unsuccessful change. This change framework provides the basis from which organisations can implement change, enabling them to successfully utilise the waves of change through increased adaptability.

Individuals react differently to changes in the status quo and differ in their ability to deal with organisational change. Hence this study also investigated individual change perceptions. The stress, anxiety, mistrust, disillusionment and resentment individuals experience as a result of organisational change found an outlet in various negative emotions. The process of grounded theory highlighted various emotions that interact during periods of organisational change. This led to the creation of WAIVE and the extension of SCARF to SCARFS. Individuals become definitive resources in the new organisation, which requires a reduction in individual stress

levels in order to achieve individual vicissitude. This research proposed practical methods for achieving this. This study has thus contributed to the body of knowledge on the emotional experiences and behaviours of individuals during organisational change.

This study also integrated human niches into organisational change and leadership, which could provide insights to ensure success for individuals, leaders, organisations and society as a whole. The proposed change framework acknowledges the various worldviews which intersect, coincide or completely differ. This allows for a more humanistic approach towards the management and leadership of organisational change. The various change elements which form part of the conceptual change framework support such an integrated approach.

The role of leadership in the change process was emphasised. Leadership is a critical success element. Applying different thinking systems throughout the organisation should further enhance individual change experiences. As such, this research could provide leadership with a unique toolkit for tackling South Africa's unique, but diverse, challenges.

Without leadership there can be no successful and sustainable change. The antithesis of leadership was conceptualised as the anti-leader. Similarly, the anti-manager was conceptualised as a new key term. Raised awareness in terms of the potential damage caused by the anti-leader and anti-manager may assist organisations to sidestep some of the organisational change pitfalls.

Leadership and change were proven to be a unified function because neither can operate in full without the other. This study clearly aligned leadership theory with the study of organisational change. It thus identified critical leadership characteristics required during change as well as organisational change success factors.

Organisational change is not a forward or backward process, but circular and continuous. Organisations can no longer speak of punctuated equilibrium (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985) or an eight-step linear change approach (Kotter, 1995, 1996). Organisations are in constant disequilibrium. The change framework developed in

this research acknowledges this and provides a method of dealing with such volatility, non-linearity, uncertainty and flux.

The concept of vicissitude was explored and used in an attempt to deepen the extent to which the topic of change is presented. The term “change” has come to refer to anything that becomes different. Hence change is often oversimplified and reduced to single, simple fragments as applicable in the specific context. The term “vicissitude” demands for a deeper understanding of change and all the relevant elements related to the fact of change as well as the need for it. Usage of the term “vicissitude” also emphasises the reality that successful change starts at an individual level.

Change can present risks and opportunities. Providing a comprehensive account on organisational change, coupled with the role of leadership in the change effort, could help organisations to minimise the risk involved in organisational change. Individuals are crucial to organisational success. This study provided various alternative intervention technologies that could be used at an individual or group level to develop consciousness. Through expanded consciousness, individuals will be better able to interact and engage with changes in their organisations.

Individuals will become organisations’ competitive edge. Integrating leadership, human niches, the stress impact, brain research and alternative intervention technologies could help organisations and leadership to fully harness human potential to the good of the individual, the organisation and society at large.

This research should increase the current body of knowledge on organisational change, leadership and the individual change process. Critical success factors for the management of change were identified and included in the conceptual change framework. In addition, alternative intervention technologies were proposed to assist with individual stress reduction which could mitigate negative outcomes of organisational change such as resistance, stress and insecurities. The role of leadership in the change process was identified, clearly aligned and fused with the study of organisational change.

This ties in with the overall aim of this study, namely fusing organisational change and leadership into a practical roadmap for South-African organisations. The researcher achieved this through the holistic exploration of change, while remaining cognisant of the interaction between various elements as change unfolds. Through the creation of a conceptual change framework, the researcher provided flexible guidelines that could reduce uncertainty while maximising the chances of successful change.

### **13.8 POTENTIAL FUTURE RESEARCH**

The main thrust of this research was organisational change and leadership. Owing to the specific nature of the focus of this work, it became evident what the research was not about. Hence potential future research is identified.

The paucity of research in the field of organisational change remains problematic. Given the large number of variables involved in this topic, future research into the field of organisational change is still required. The proposed conceptual change framework for organisational change and leadership developed in this study serves as a stepping stone for further theory building, and should be applied, empirically tested and validated in order to become a roadmap for successful organisational change and leadership.

Many difficulties emerged related to the appointment of leaders versus managers. Given the importance of leadership for the future sustainability of organisations, future research would be required to establish a workable solution for promotion to leadership levels as opposed to managerial positions.

Closely related to the above is the concept of the anti-leader and the anti-manager. Future research could endeavour to establish the critical, detrimental characteristics of anti-leaders and anti-managers, while establishing approaches and techniques to mitigate their detrimental actions.

The stress barometer may currently serve as an individual awareness tool. However, the stress barometer should be empirically tested to validate the various stressful incidents and/or to alter the suggested rating scale.

Further research is required into the process and outcome of the tension and trauma releasing exercises™. Investigating the outcome of this process against emotional intelligence could yield interesting results on reduced individual stress and anxiety coupled with increased productivity.

Future research into human niche theory is required, specifically related to the placement of the BEIGE human niche. Given their deep spirituality, complex interrelation with nature and neighbours, their deep ecological awareness and highly developed sense of self-reliance negates placing the Bushmen or San people in the BEIGE human niche. Future research is required to position the San people correctly within human niche theory.

In addition, validation of the various brain segments and how they relate to human niche theory could prove valuable. Such research could provide valuable insights into training and learning methods. More productive training methods, tailored towards human niche theory and brain segment theory could be established on these principles with obvious benefits to organisations.

Interacting with life in general, and organisational change specifically, requires the ability to make sense of numerous variables simultaneously. Any method that is able to increase the ability of the individual to interact with an increased number of variables should improve emotional intelligence, self-regulation, stress levels and productivity could potentially assist towards more successful organisational change. The ability of alternative intervention technologies to increase the individual's ability to relate and interact with an increased number of variables should therefore be examined further.

### **13.9 CONCLUSION**

Leaders must help individuals to gain a sense of identity in a change initiative. Granting individuals new powers, new freedoms, choices and proper guidance through the nightmare of uncertainty, unpredictability and chaos is empowerment. Offering individuals anxiety, stress and fear relievers, would provide them with new tools for mood control, emotional stability, consolation and creativity.

Individuals need meaning. They cannot function optimally without knowing what they are working for or that what they are working for is bigger than them. Individuals need to know that their contributions are important. Organisations should return individuals to their rightful place in the centre of organisational change. As organisations develop, awaken consciousness and grow individuals, they will grow and flourish in equal measure.

The researcher answered the stated research questions and achieved the research aims. The conceptual framework that emerged from the data fuses organisational change and leadership into a practical and workable outline to aid organisations towards the implementation of more successful change initiatives.



## Appendix A: Ethical clearance certificate

Graduate School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa, PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa  
Cnr Janadel and Alexandra Avenues, Midrand, 1685, Tel: +27 11 652 0000, Fax: +27 11 652 0299  
E-mail: [sbl@unisa.ac.za](mailto:sbl@unisa.ac.za) Website: [www.unisa.ac.za/sbl](http://www.unisa.ac.za/sbl)

### SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (GSBL CRERC)

10 June 2014

**Ref #: 2014-SBL/DBL -015-FA**

Supervisor: Prof R C Viljoen  
Student researcher: MS T Blom (70425655@mylife.unisa.ac.za)

This is to certify that the application for ethics clearance submitted by  
**Ms T Blom (Student Number: 70425655 )**  
for the study  
**Summa Vicissitude: Fusing organisational change and leadership into a practical  
roadmap for South-African organisations**  
*has received ethics approval.*

The ethical clearance is granted to the research project as submitted to the School of Business Leadership Ethics Review Committee and is granted for the duration of the project, final approval was granted on 29 May 2014. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated to the School of Business Leadership Research Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if applicable.

It is your responsibility to ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Research Ethics Policy, which can be found at the following website:  
[http://www.unisa.ac.za/cmsys/staff/contents/departments/res\\_policies/docs/Policy\\_Research%20ethics\\_rev%20app%20Council\\_22.06.2012.pdf](http://www.unisa.ac.za/cmsys/staff/contents/departments/res_policies/docs/Policy_Research%20ethics_rev%20app%20Council_22.06.2012.pdf)

Yours faithfully,

  
Prof R Ramphal  
Chairperson  
GSBL REC

45  
years

Building leaders who go beyond



### Appendix B – Ethical clearance checklist

Checklist to ensure that the participant information sheet and consent form meet the ethical requirements.

<b>Does the participant information sheet explain the following:</b>	<b>YES</b>	<b>NO</b>
a) The identity and position of the researcher(s) and the organisation collecting the information?	X	
b) The purposes for which the information is being collected?	X	
c) Reason why the participant has been selected and procedures for selecting participants?	X	
d) Participant's actual role in the research?	X	
e) Expected duration of participation?	X	
f) Statement that participation is voluntary and that there is no penalty or loss of benefit for non-participation?	X	
g) Benefits to the participant and others?	X	
h) Potential risks <u>as well as</u> measures that will be taken if injury or harm attributable to the research occurs?	X	
i) Statement that participant can withdraw at any time without obligation to explain or any adverse effects?	X	
j) Compensation/gifts/services for participants?	Not applicable	
k) Reimbursement and any costs incurred by participants?	Not applicable	
l) Indemnity if applicable?	Not applicable	
m) The period for which the records relating to the participant will be kept?	X	
n) The steps taken to ensure confidentiality and secure storage of data?	X	
o) The types of individual or organisation to which your organisation usually discloses information of this kind?	Not applicable	
p) How privacy will be protected in any publication of the information?	X	
q) How feedback will be provided?	X	
r) Any exclusion to confidentiality? (e.g. when focus groups are used)?	X	

### **Appendix C – Consent to act as a research subject**

#### Consent to act as a research subject

Tonja Blom, a Doctoral Candidate at the Graduate School of Business Leadership University of South Africa is working on her Doctor of Business Leadership. She is conducting research entitled: *Fusing organisational change and leadership into a practical roadmap for South-African organisations*. The purpose of the research is to isolate change management and leadership elements. The aim of the research is to develop a practical change management model to assist with future change initiatives.

#### Interviewee:

I, \_\_\_\_\_, have volunteered to participate in this research study. My participation in the research is voluntary and my participation or nonparticipation will not be reported to senior management. I understand that

1. I may refuse to participate and/or withdraw at any time without consequence to my employment.
2. The research records and list of interviewees will be confidential.
3. My personal anonymity is guaranteed.
4. The results of research data will be used for presentation and publication.
5. Tonja Blom (researcher) has explained the research to me and answered my questions. If I have other questions or research related issues, I (the participant) can be reached at \_\_\_\_\_.
6. I give Tonja Blom permission to audio record the interview. I understand that the recording will be used during the transcription process in order to ensure that the data collected are accurate and properly represent what I have shared during the interview. I understand that I will review the typed data for accuracy. I understand that no one other than Tonja Blom will have access to this recording or the subsequent transcription, that the interview will be coded to protect my confidentiality, and that the consent form and subsequent data will be stored in a locked cabinet which will be off site.
7. I understand there are no foreseeable risks to me, and there may be three potential benefits of participating in the research. (a) Interview questions may help me to understand my core leadership and change management beliefs and behaviours. (b) As the research isolates leadership and change management

behaviours, this information could assist with leadership training. (c) The results may also provide some benchmarks that the industry can follow.

There are no other agreements, written or verbal, relating to the above referenced research beyond those expressed in this consent and confidentiality form. I, the undersigned, understand the above explanation, and I give consent to my voluntary participation in the research.

By signing this form, I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the research, the potential risks to me as a participant, and the means by which my identity will be kept confidential. My signature on this form also indicates that I am 18 years old or older and that I give my permission to voluntarily take part as a participant in the research described.

Signature of the interviewee \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of the researcher \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

## **Appendix D – Interview format (in-depth interviews)**

### Interview format (in-depth interviews)

1. Welcome the participant and thank him or her for participating.
2. Explain the purpose of the research again:
  - a. The purpose of the research is to understand a theory of organisational change and leadership to create a practical change model for the manufacturing industry. By highlighting the predominant beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviours among senior employees, a theory of organisational change and leadership may emerge to assist organisations with future change initiatives.
3. Review the Signed Consent to Act as a Research Subject (see appendix B) and ask if there are any questions.
4. Turn on the tape recorder.
5. Use the following flow of questions (the researcher will use her judgement to determine the exact order of the questions as well as appropriate follow-up questions).

Are you aware of any OC models?

If so, which are the most prominent ito influencing your own behaviour/attitude relating to OC?

What are the main forces driving OC?

What are the triggers for change?

What types of change have you been exposed to?

How does the organisation prepare for change (leadership and direction, planning)?

Should strategy encompass change?

Which factors are critical to successful organisational change?

What are the organisation's strengths in the area of OC?

Does the organisation have an effective process in place to understand the impact and context of business change?

Do we effectively translate the business vision into a vision of change?

How do our employees perceive change?

What contributes to resistance?

What is the importance of communication during OC initiatives?

How important is leadership in the change process?

What are critical success factors for change to be implemented successfully (managing stress, management, leadership)?

What is the role of empowerment during OC?

After the above questions have revealed answers, slowly bring the interview to a close.

Use the following ending questions:

Is there anything else about organisational change that we have not discussed?

Do you have any impressions from the information that we have discussed that are new to you or that you have found surprising?

Is there anything else that you would like to share or any questions you may have?

I will forward you the typed interview for your review and approval of its accuracy. I would appreciate it if you could return your corrected interview of the information as quickly as possible so that I may proceed with an examination of the data. Please note that no one else will see the raw data other than me, and your information will remain confidential.

Thank you for your time. I trust that you found this discussion useful.

You are welcome to contact me at [blomtonja@gmail.com](mailto:blomtonja@gmail.com).

### **Appendix E – Interview format (focus group)**

1. Welcome the participants and thank them for participating.
2. Explain the purpose of the research again: The purpose of the research is to understand a theory of organisational change and leadership to create a practical change model for the manufacturing industry. By highlighting the predominant beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviours among employees, a theory of organisational change and leadership can emerge to assist organisations with future change initiatives.
3. Review the Signed Consent to Act as a Research Subject (see appendix B) and ask if there are any questions.
4. Explain that data will be confidential and that there is no written confirmation of who attended the focus group meetings.
5. Turn on the tape recorder.
6. Use the following flow of questions (the researcher will use her judgement to determine the exact order of the questions as well as appropriate follow-up questions).

Have you ever been part of an organisational change?

Was the change explained to you?/Did you understand the change?

How did the change make you feel?

Anxious? Changed sleeping patterns? Feeling stressed?/excited/irritable/calm/secure/nervous/worried/lack of control?

Did you receive help/tools to empower you during the change process?

Were you able to fully participate in the change?

Did accept the change?/Support/resist?

Did the change have a schedule?

Were deadlines met?

Was the change implemented? (Successful or not?)

What was the role of leadership in the change?

What are crucial characteristics that leaders should display during change periods?

Which factors are critical to ensure successful change?

Which factors are detrimental to change?

Is there anything else that you would like to share or any questions you may have?

You are welcome to contact me at [blomtonja@gmail.com](mailto:blomtonja@gmail.com).

## Appendix F – Permission to conduct research

# TOYOTA

TOYOTA SOUTH AFRICA MOTORS (PTY) LTD  
PO Box 481 Bergvlei 2012, Gauteng, South Africa  
Tel +27 (0) 11 809 9111  
Fax +27 (0) 11 809 2940

PLEASE RESPOND TO:  
P O Box 28078 Springs 2007-4115  
Rivier Zuidoos: South Africa  
Tel +27 (0) 11 910 2004  
Fax +27 (0) 11 912 2858

Academic year 2014

To Whom It May Concern:

### PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AS PART OF THE DBL QUALIFICATION

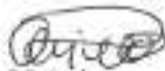
This is to confirm that permission is granted to **TONIA BLOM, Co No 1366**, to conduct practical research as part of her DBL studies. The research relates to Organisational Change.

This research is understood to be a practical problem solving exercise which necessitates data gathering through interviews. Data will also be used for case study purposes.

All data collected will remain confidential and anonymous.

Any queries can be directed to the above contact numbers.

Yours sincerely



E Rajole

General Manager: Manufacturing HR & Training

Reg. No. 19110015107  
Voke Type Registrars, 2000 Registration Number: TRREG0010AU

President & CEO: Dr. Ji van Zyl, Executive Vice-Presidents: M. Russell, H. Mosemolele, Directors: D. Piroo, C. Harrison, M. Herold, A. Kooij, M. Maritz, H. Shibata, M. Shwela, F. S. Takabayastoff, H. Wess, Secretary: Toyota South Africa (Pty) Ltd represented by Ms. PC. Reedys.  
#Japanese

02/2014





**Appendix G: Main concepts and data categories**

Categories/main concepts		
change force	excluded	org strength
accountable	fear and skepticism	org structure
accountable	good management	participation
alignment	honest conversations	perfect system
anti-leader	improved productivity	personality
anti-manager	inclusivity	planning and forecasting
bus of change	ineffectiveness	positive change
capitalist	instant gratification	pre appointment
category	interview process	principle
change environment	involvement	priorities
change failure	leadership	profit
change force	leadership appointment	promotion
change perceptions	leadership awareness	reality check
change preparation	leadership characteristics	reframed thoughts
change process	leadership commitment	regular meetings
change types	leadership disconnect	resistance
communication	leadership function	sabotage change
connection btw leader and follower	leadership vision	shared organisation
consciousness	long term goals	shareholders
consultants	long term manager	short term manager
create change understanding	management	show results
disciplined leaders	mba	split leadership
disconnect: leaders and follower	methodology	stable workforce
emotions	negative change	start point
empowerment	negative change	strategy
ethical org	negative strength	stress
time	operational perspective	successful change
trust	teams	survival
	unions	

**Appendix H: Verbatim responses**

Table A Category extract (in-depth interviews)

Category	Sub-category	Respondents and number	%
Organisational change	Communication	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%
	Ethics	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%
	Methodology	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%
	Strategy	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%
	Trust	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%
Individual change	Empowerment	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%
	Resistance	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%
	Stress	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%
Management	Management	P1, P20, P17, P2, P4, P5	75%
	Leadership	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8	100%

Table A displays the top three categories together with the respondents, the number of respondents and the percentage achieved per subcategory.

Table B Category extract (focus group sessions)

Category	Sub-category	Respondents and number	%
Organisational change	Communication	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Ethics	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Methodology	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Trust	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
Individual change	Autonomy	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Empowerment	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Inclusivity	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Resistance	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Stress	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Uncertainty	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
Management	Management	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%
	Leadership	F1(7), F2(7), F3(6), F4(6)	100%

Table B displays the top three categories together with the respondents, the number of respondents and the percentage achieved per subcategory.

### **Verbatim responses (in-depth interviews)**

#### **Are you aware of any change models? If any change models are used, which models influenced the manner in which your organisation relate to change?**

“Good models include the people”. “Good models include people more than management”. “I don’t know any change models”. “I’m not influenced by any model”. “Change models don’t resonate”. “There is no model I believe in”.

“I developed my own methodology”. “Methodology is used to determine the outcome”. “I can’t name any models”. “Organisations don’t use any methodology”. “No logical method in change”. “Organisations do more of the same”.

“Good models must include the people”. “The new organisation must be designed by the people”. “The recommended model is where the people are included”. “The recommended model is where the people make the decisions”. “All employees must be involved in the design of the new organisation. Leadership must oversee this process”.

“Inclusivity is vital”. “Good models include the people”. “We require improved methods”. “Change management needs a model”. All participants agreed that change will happen whether a methodology is followed or not.

“Change must happen in a trustful environment”. “...need to transition as smoothly as possible”. “Current organisational change models do not work”.

“We do not use or apply any change models. I know change theory, but we do not apply any methodology”.

#### **What are the main forces driving organisational change?**

“Survival”.

“Technological change, old equipment, legislation, low productivity”. “Profit”.

“Competitiveness, efficiency, survival, organisational sustainability”. “Competition”. “Without change we are moving backwards”.

“The majority of change is due to crisis. Crisis results in change”.

“Union demands, new competitors, new products, overseas competition”.

#### **What types of change have you been exposed to in the last two years?**

“Restructuring. Technological changes, product changes.” “Changes required due to a changing business environment”. “Software changes. Technological changes reduced up to 80% of the workload”.

“Organisational change specific to business requirements.” “Organisational changes to align to specific objectives”. “...always something changing”.

“Changes to align values and goals”. “Technological changes”. “General business changes”.

“Economic, political, environmental.” “We had to change due to legislation”.

“There is always something changing”. “Improvement means change”.

“If we don’t change, we die. We change with the environment”.

“Process changes. Restructuring. Organisational changes”.

#### **How does your organisation prepare for change?**

“South African business does not prepare for change. International companies prepare better for change than South African companies”.

“International companies prepare for change, not South African ones”.

“South African companies announce change late and do not prepare people for the coming changes”.

“Change preparation is important. It is important to show people what the change looks like, but we don’t do it”.

“Organisations see where they are going to and then see if the change has what is needed. If not, further change is introduced”.

“South African organisations do not plan. We normally do not plan for change. I don’t think many South African organisations plan for change”.

“Planning doesn’t happen”. “Mechanistic planning happens to an extent, but then ends up in a drawer, never to be looked at again”.

“Poor or no planning for change”. “If we don’t forecast well, we should forecast frequently, but we don’t”. “Lately business has a very short term view”.

“Planning and forecasting is important. We need to know how to change. But we do not plan or forecast very well, if at all”.

### **Should strategy encompass change? Does strategy encompass change?**

“No process regarding the impact of business change”. “Strategy does not encompass change”. “Strategic plans on change are non-existent”. “Senior staff have no strategic plans for change”. “There is no strategy for change”. “We do not have any strategy for change”. “Strategy should encompass change, but it does not”.

“You should live the strategy. The opposite is true”. “The MD should be able to tell you the strategy, what he is doing, what’s been successful and what failed. The MD doesn’t know”. “Change is not part of strategy”.

“Survival requires us to change”. “If we are not sustainable we die”. “Ineffective work ways requires change”. “Survival and competitiveness”. “Low productivity”. “The majority of change is due to crisis”. “...some impending crisis”. “Crisis results in change”. “Organisations don’t know they need change until there is a crisis”.

“A forward thinking concept is correct, but [it] is just a piece of paper and not lived”. “The end point requires change”. “We need forward thinkers”. “I’ve never seen the end picture”. “Firstly we need to deeply understand the current situation”. “You need to know where you are before you know where you want to go”. “If you don’t think about the future you can’t plan change”. “We have to think more about the future”.

“Strategy should change as the business change. Strategic objectives for the year should include business change.” “Strategy should change around business goals”. “Change should drive your strategic aim”.

“The future of the organisation is in the hands of the employees”. “Empowerment is not understood”. “We must empower people during change. We don’t”. “Leader holds up and serves the people. We draw the organisational diagram in a triangle with the apex at the top. The inverse is correct”.

“Organisational maturity determines organisational change success”. “...no organisational change strengths”.

“Change is inevitable”. “Positive change, the organisation will thrive. Negative change, the organisation will die”. “Change will happen”. “Change will happen even it means you no longer exist”. “How to change in a sustainable way”.

### **Does your organisation have effective processes in place to understand the impact and context of business change?**

All participants agreed that business is increasingly following a short-term view and increasingly yields to instant gratification. However, all the participants also reported that their organisations did not have any processes in place to understand the impact of business changes on individuals.

### **Which factors are critical for change success?**

“Preparation”. “Openness to change”. “Aware of people”. “People understand why and are communicated to”. “Trust”. “Leadership is imperative”. “Listen to the people”. “Give feedback”.

“Empowerment is autonomy”. “Empowerment is an important element of change”. “Empower the person to do the task”.

“Fundamentally you must trust your employees”. “People have to trust leadership”. “People must trust the person conveying the change”. “There can be no change without trust”. “Trust is earned”. “Trust does not just happen. Trust must be built. Trust does not happen at face value”.

“Change impacts on the individual”. “An ethical organisation has a deep situational understanding”. “Ethical organisation communicates correctly”. “Change is often unethical”. “The social engineering of change is often unethical”. “...convince people to participate in change and then potentially lose their job”. “People must like what the organisation does”.

Success related to communication, leadership, management, participation, transparency, inclusivity, trust, ethics and empowerment.

### **Which factors result in failed organisational change?**

“Organisations are not good at communication”. “Selective communication”. “Bad communication”. “Memos are not communication”. “Communication is an issue”. “Communication must speak to the receiver”. “No one wants to communicate”. “No feedback”. “The vision is not translated accurately”. “Change is not properly explained”. “Organisations are not good at communication”. “...no discussions”.

“Profits are more important than people”. “Organisations are firstly concerned about profits”. “Organisations do change quickly, with little planning and little money”. “The aim of change is to improve profit”.

“Change for sake of change”. “Bad leadership”. “Bad management”. “Empowering the wrong people”.

“Middle management is a big obstacle to change”. “Middle management obstruct change”.

“The organisation does not understand empowerment”. “We don’t empower people during change”. “Empowerment is important for decision making”. “Reduced autonomy results in change failure”. “Change reduces autonomy”.

“No involvement, no participation”. “Disempowerment”. “Reduced autonomy”. “...don’t know your employees. I don’t know their circumstances, but then I expect them to follow me”.

“Poor management. Bad communication. Bad leadership”. “Non-committed leaders”. “... no accountability”. “...no buy-in”. “Unsupportive leadership”. “...zero chance of success without leadership”.

### **What strengths does your organisation have in the area of organisational change?**

“Communication is critical”.

“Aligned leadership and aligned vision”.

“Aligned leadership understanding”.

### **How do your employees perceive change?**

“Change brings fear”. “Fear and uncertainty”.

“Change cause fear”. “Employees do not always understand change clearly”.

“Restructuring causes fear”. “Change causes harm”. “Fear and uncertainty are not handled well”.

“Perceive change to be feared”. “Employees know change means retrenchment”. “Uncertainty”. “Fear”.

“Firstly, fear of job loss”. “Fear is inherent to the change process”. “Employees know that change involves job loss”. “Employees fear change”. “Fear is obvious”.

“Fear and skepticism. Fear overrules all other emotions”.

“Organisational change creates stress”. “Stress results in irrational fear”.

### **What contributes to resistance?**

“Employees resist due to already being stressed.” “There is too much change”. “The impact of stress on the organisation is huge. The impact of stress is immeasurable”.

“People don’t want to change. People generally resist change”.

“People do not see the road. People don’t know where they are expected to go. That’s why they resist”.

“People are apprehensive and careful”. “Instinct kicks in”. “People don’t want to go to the uncertain. They rather stay where they know”.

“No buy-in will result in resistance”. “Different messages create fear. Uncertainty creates fear”. “Stress plays a huge role”.

“Employees operate from a fear perspective”. “Employees’ first reaction to change is fear. Their second reaction is skepticism. Is this change really required?”

“Management must convince people to participate in change and potentially lose their job. Change impacts on the individual.”

“People who trust your leadership might lose their jobs”. “Change is very traumatic”.

“All should benefit through the change. This does not always happen”.

### **Is communication important during change?**

“Communication is vital. Communication is an issue, which increases a lack of trust and even mistrust”.

“Organisations never announce their intentions”. “The vision is not translated accurately”.

“Communication during change is vital. Individuals must understand the change reasons”.

“We need new communication methods. Letter and memos are not communication”. “Employees generally do not feel they are getting feedback or that they are being communicated to. Employees are being communicated to all the time, but they do not perceive communication to happen. Employees do not always recognise that you are communicating with them”.

“Communication happens all the time. People don’t recognise it as communication”.

“There is correct situational communication. Situational communication speaks to the receiver. Incorrect communication does not speak to the receiver”.

“Communication cannot be done haphazardly”. “You have to explain change. Communicate”.

“Communication is very important. Communication must happen throughout the change process”. “Constant communication”.

“There is no effective communication method for thousands of employees. One on one communication is easier”.

“Communication is very difficult in a structured environment”.

### **Is leadership important during change?**

“Organisational change without leadership is difficult”. “Leadership is vital”. “Leadership is not management”. “A leader leads the people”. “People decide if a person is a leader”. “Followers decide if he is a leader or not”. “Leadership is granted by the people”.



“Leadership is counter-intuitive. A leader serves”. “Arrogance is the death of leadership”. “Leadership must explain, get the people to understand. Leadership is generally not successful with this task”.

“The impact of change is the leader’s job”. “Strengths in terms of organisational change rest on leadership”. “Poor leadership is a huge issue”. “Organisations need leaders to lead change”. “The biggest leadership challenge is the leadership of change”. “Change must come from the top”.

“There is no difference between leadership of a stable organisation and a turbulent organisation. Leadership is required regardless of organisational change”. “The fundamental need to lead people stays the same”. “Leadership skills are required regardless of the organisational circumstances”. “Change requires leadership”.

“Trust is a leadership issue”. “Leadership without trust becomes management”. “Leaders must be trusted by the people”. “A leader must be ethical”.

“Understand your people”. “Understand individual nuances”. “Know staff’s feelings”. “Know staff’s beliefs”. “...convince people to sacrifice”. “People will follow people who connect with people”. “I must feel connected to my leader”. “...connect through regular engagement and treating people like people”. “Physical action will follow if my heart is engaged”.

“Poor leadership leads to industry decline”. “Poor leadership has wrong beliefs and makes wrong decisions”. “Poor leadership creates uncertainty”. “Poor leadership implements non-workable solutions”. “Good change management does not compensate for poor leadership”. “Good leadership is an important investment”. “Good leadership needs little change management”.

“Poor leadership resulted in the decline of ... industry in 70s and 80s. Poor leadership imploded the ... industry in the 90s. The ... industry is not a shadow of what it was in the 70s”. “Change can’t fix poor leadership”. “Organisations don’t have strengths in leading change”. “Leadership must guide the change”. “Nothing can compensate for poor leadership”.

“Leaders must be strong, sensitive and people oriented”. “Good communicating leaders”. “Leaders understand there are different individuals on the change journey”. “Leadership commitment regarding the process of change for other people”. “Leaders must communicate the same message to all”.

“Leaders must acknowledge efforts from individuals”. “...pay homage to the fact that individuals embarked upon something”. “...equip teams for changes in their roles”. “How leaders handle change will determine success”. “If leaders do change wrong, change can’t be successful”.

“Enormous change is required”. “Leaders are required”.

### **Does stress impact on organisational change?**

“Change is very stressful”. “I felt very stressed because of the change”. “I could not participate in the change because I felt so stressed”. “I could not function at work because of stress”. “Change cause[s] fear”. “Change was very traumatic”. “...total shutdown...”. “I was unable to function due to changes”. “I did not want to come to work because people expected answers from me and I had none”.

“Organisational change creates stress”. “Fear”. “Anxiety”. “Changes are like going to war”. “Change is a vicious circle”. “Employees are never sure of the outcome”.

“Nobody cares about people’s personal stress”. “I felt stressed because of the uncertainty”. “There was no help available”. “The organisation does not know how to handle employee stress levels”. “Organisations do not handle stress correctly, not

even in stable times. More so during change". "Organisations pay lip service to stress".

"Organisations can't do change". "Organisations need change support".

"Organisations don't have change knowledge". "Organisations are on the back foot with change". "Change consultants are called in when things are already in a mess". "...damage to people".

"South African organisations don't believe in work-life balance". "Organisations over emphasise work". "South African organisations don't have an understanding of stress". "The management of stress is hugely lacking in South African organisations". "We don't know about employees' personal circumstances".

"The impact of stress is immeasurable". "The impact of stress on organisational change is huge". "Change results in unavoidable stress". "The doctor and social worker are left to deal with stress". "Organisations are just concerned about profit and about getting work done".

### **What is the role of empowerment/engagement during organisational change?**

"We must empower people during change. Empowerment is not understood".

"We should empower people during change. We don't empower people".

"Employees must be involved". "Good models include the employee". "Good models involve people more than management". "Involvement improves acceptance".

"Involvement makes implementation easier. Involvement improves buy-in. Involvement means change".

"Empowerment is important regardless of change. We should not only empower when we change. If you don't empower, you just tell people what to do".

"Empowerment helps change. If people are not empowered, they cannot be productive".

"Need processes to engage and empower".

"The design of the new organisation should come from the people". "Inclusivity is vital".

### **Verbatim responses (focus group sessions)**

#### **What types of change have you been exposed to in the last two years?**

"Organisational changes". "Structure changes". "Leadership changes". "Market changes". "Continuous change". "Radical changes in the past 18 months". "Project based change". "Team changes". "Structural, team and continues changes during the past year and a half".

#### **How does your organisation prepare for change?**

"Change is done roughly". "Deadlines are always missed". "There is no planning". "Lack of planning". "No schedule for changes".

"Poor planning". "There is no change preparation". "Sometimes there is a plan, but the plan is never shared".

"The organisation is mostly reactive to change".

#### **Which factors are critical for successful change?**

"Involve all". "Change models must include the people". "Recommended model is where people are involved".

"Communication is vital". "A lack of communication contributes to resistance". "Constant communication". "I need to understand the change".

"Authentic leadership". "Awareness of people". "Increased transparency".

"Not doing any harm". "Solve the real problems".

"Create workable solutions. We all want to feel like co-owners".



“Communicate, empower and enable”. “Improve communication”. “Improved understanding”.

“Proper management”. “Management must understand the employee and his/her job”. “Management must know what to communicate”.

“Integrity”. “Honesty”. “Participation”.

**Does your organisation have a process in place to understand the impact of change?**

“Change was all over the show”.

“Change was very messy”.

“No one understands why”. “Things are just done”.

“Organisations don’t plan well for change”.

“There is no change preparation”.

**How do you perceive change?**

“Change is about empires, power games and then spending a lot of money on damage control in the end. It demotivates me”.

“Fear. Nobody knew I was struggling. Nobody cares. I’m ashamed of how we do change. Nobody in HR can do change”.

“Skepticism”. “Increased anxiety”. “Anxious”. “Confused”. “Uncertainty”.

“I perceived this as another change for which I don’t have answers. I know this will be like previous changes”. “I don’t want to come to work when people expect answers from me and I have none”.

“I prayed a lot”. “I went to gym”. “Change is very stressful”.

“I come to work and leave”.

“We do change backwards”.

“Change is a vicious circle”.

**Were you resistant to change, if so why?**

“Poor communication worsened my resistance”. “I felt helpless because nobody explained the change”. “...resisted as a result of a loss of autonomy”. “I resisted because I did not understand why”. “...resistant to the process”. “My change attitude was negative”. “I resisted because of past experiences”. “I felt skeptic[al]”. “Reduced autonomy resulted in negativity”.

“There is too much change”. “Employees fear change”. “Fear is obvious”. “Employees perceive change firstly with fear”. “The initial and first reaction to change is fear”. “Fear overrides other emotions”. “Rational fear is justified”.

“I felt demotivated and disempowered”. “I was not empowered to deal with the change”. “I was uninvolved”. “I would have followed if I understood”. “I have my way of thinking, but I did not understand the changes”.

“Employees expect answers from me, but I don’t even understand or know what is happening”.

**Is communication important during change?**

“Communication is critical”. “Communication is vital”.

“Explanations are very vague”. “Lack of communication contributes to resistance”. “Lack of feedback worsens things”. “There is no communication”.

“Nobody can explain”. “Nobody wants to communicate honestly”. “There is not enough communication”. “Communication is problematic”.

**Is leadership important in the change process?**

“Not all managers are leaders”. “Managers should be part of the team”. “Managers are short-sighted, but should have a multi-faceted view. Managers are short-sighted and only concerned with instant gratification”. “Management have a short-term view and only looks at the bottom line”. “Management has no time”. “...no

time”. “...can't afford half an hour to spend with his people”. “Change can't fix poor leadership”.

“Management can't do change”. “...crisis management”. “Managers don't listen”. “Management does not have strengths in leading change”. “Change needs time. Management never has time”. “Management wants instant fixes”. “Senior management does not explain properly”.

“Organisations don't have change knowledge”. Organisations need change based on projects that went wrong”. “...don't have any change knowledge”. “Organisations can't support change internally”. “Organisations need change support”.

“There is no planning for change and everybody think they are change managers”. “Managing change is an art”. “No change knowledge can cause harm”. “Managers don't have change knowledge which makes change worse”. “...ashamed of what change managers do”. “Not everybody in HR can do change. HR often does not help change”.

“Unsuccessful managers wastes money and creates disaster”. “...no planning or preparation”. “...no time”. “We don't plan for change”. “Planning doesn't happen”. “You see that there is no planning for change”. “Poor or no planning for change”. “Management look at plant productivity before people productivity”.

“Organisations can't manage change”. “Change managers are clueless and ineffective”. “HR requires change management”. “Change wrong things”.

“Management does not handle stress correctly”. “...narrow view”. “...instant gratification and power games”. “Archaic management”. “Middle managers are sceptical”. “Unsuccessful managers”. “Managers seek instant gratification”.

“Poor managers don't plan or prepare”. “Poor management does not spent time on the right things”. “Poor management creates disaster”. “We don't plan for change”. “...no early start on change”. “Shortcuts results in difficulties for employees”. “You see that there is no planning for change”. “South African organisations do not plan for change”.

“Change was done roughly”. “Change was all over the show”. “Things are just done with no one understanding why”. “Messy change can't move the organisation forward”. “Messy change is a result of poor leadership”.

“...understand what motivates people”. “Management must show the end picture”. “Management must know their employees”. “Management needs to know staff expectations”. “Involved management”.

One participant commented: “This change will result in my fifth manager in seven years, but nothing really changes. A lot of instability is caused, but in the end nothing really changes”.

### **What impact, if any, does individual stress have on organisational change?**

“Fear and resistance”. “My anxiety increased”. “My job changed without any consultation and I don't understand the assignment of responsibilities”. “The change narrowed my view”. “...increased dependency”. “Lots of confusion...”. “Structural changes was highly stressful”. “I felt very stressed because of the uncertainty”. “I don't want to come to work...”. “I eventually resigned because of the stress of change”. “Fearful – what does this change mean”.

“Insecure”. “We have to do more with less”. “Vague explanations demotivated me”. “Lack of personal interest in employees”. “No one knew I was struggling”. “Survival instinct kick[s] in. Am I needed? Does this change include me?”.

“Change impacts on the individual”. “I felt demotivated and disempowered”. “...uncertain”. “...no reasoning of the changes”.

“There are always changes. This lack of stability creates fear”. “Unsure why we needed change again”. “Change reduced my ability”. “I felt very stressed because of the changes. I could not function and just came to work and left. At home I totally shut down”.

“We can’t accept change if we don’t understand the change. This creates fear and anxiety”. “I tried...”. “I felt unhappy and unsure”. “I prayed a lot”. “The organisation have a very bad understanding of employees”. “Continuous change is unproductive”. “Change will happen anyway...”.

“I resisted the change because I did not understand why”. “...reduced autonomy”. “Anxiety”. “Stressed”. “Extremely stressed”. “I had no answers”. “I had no decision making power”. “Fear”. “Insecurity”. “Negativity”. “...total shutdown”.

“...loss of autonomy”. “Reduced autonomy results in resistance”. “Loss of autonomy...management decides”. “...the unknown”. “I felt inconsequential after the change”. “Nobody listened”.

“There are always changes”. “My anxiety increased”. “I was unsure why the change was needed...I came to work and left”. “Anxious”. “Change is very stressful”. “Change made me feel stressed”. “...stress levels spirals”. “Change is chaotic”.

“Change reduced my ability”. “I feel unimportant after the change”. “...felt very stressed because of change”. “I could not fully participate due to my high stress levels”. “I could not function at work due to stress”. “...increased dependency”. “...lots of confusion”.

“Inclusivity would be nice”. “I was not part of any discussions”. “...no participation”. “...lack of involvement and participation”.

#### **Is involvement/empowerment important during change?**

“Empowerment must come after communication. Empowerment is a very important element of change”. “Empowerment is important for decision making”.

“I experienced a lack of empowerment”. “There was no empowerment”. “We must relook at empowerment”.

“Change must be enablement”.

“Inclusiveness would have been nice”. “No involvement”. “...lack of participation”. “No participation”. “I was not involved”.

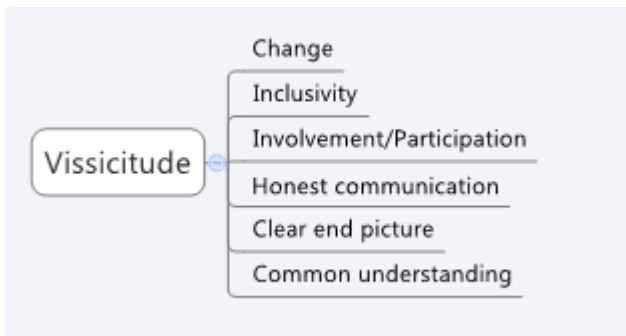
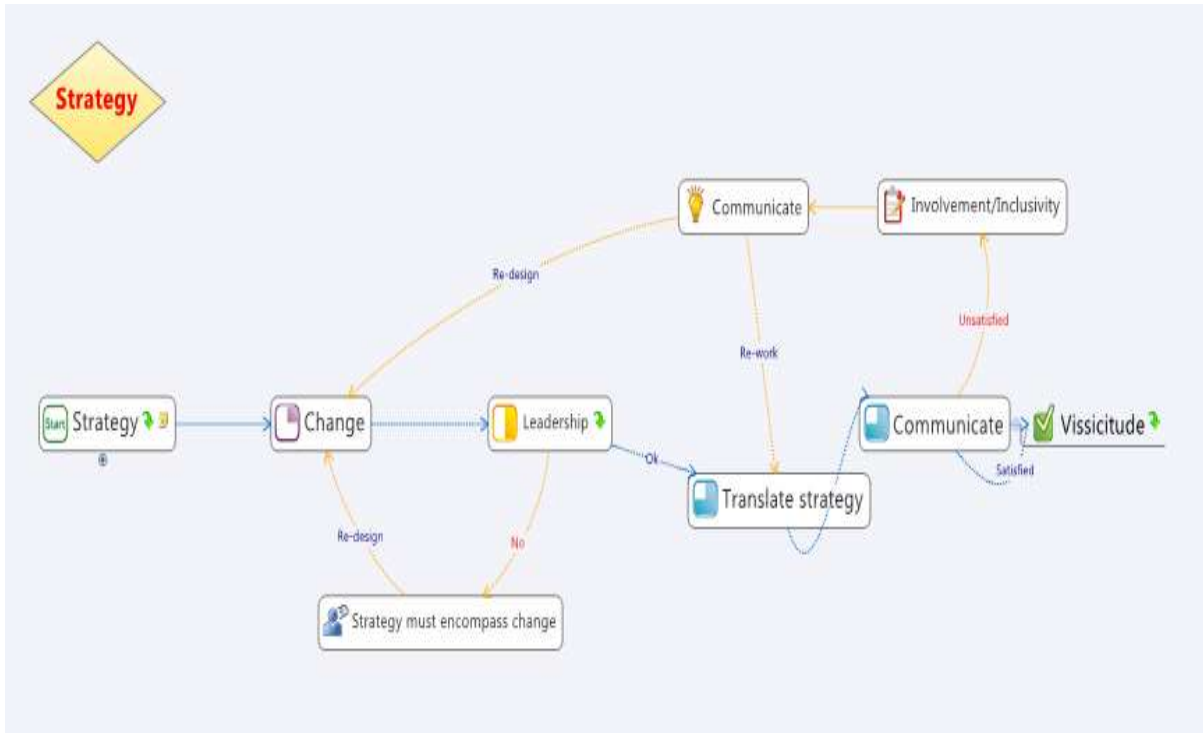
**Appendix I: Category extract**

SUMMARY OF CATEGORIES		
No	Category	Identifier
1	Change force	P4, F6, C1, C2,C3
2	Autonomy	F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, C1, C2,C3
3	Blinkered view	P5
4	Build trust	P4, P5, C1, C2,C3
5	Bus of change	P4, P5, P6
6	Capitalism/profit	P17, P1, P2, P4
7	Change	F4, F4, F5, C1, C2,C3
8	Difficulty of change	P3, P5, P6, C1, C2,C3
9	Change driver	F6, P4, P5
10	Change failure	P17, P4, P5, P20, C1, C2,C3
11	Change force	F1, F2, P20, P17, P1, P2, P4, P5
12	Change perceptions	P4, P5, P6, C1, C2,C3
13	Change process	P4, P5, C1, C2,C3
14	Change success	P1, P2, P20
15	Change trigger	F6
16	Change types	F1
17	Communication	P4, P5, P6, F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, P20, P17, P2, C1, C2,C3
18	Competition	F1, P5
19	Consultants	P20, F2
20	Damage control	F4, F2, F3
21	Demotivated	F2, F1, F3, F4, C1, C2, C3
22	Detrimental change	F4, F6
23	Disconnect	P17, P20, C1, C2
24	Disempowerment	F1, F2, F4, F3, C1, C2, C3
25	Empathy	F3, F5, F2
26	Empowerment	F1, F3, F4, P20, P1, P17, P2, P3, P4
27	Enablement	F1
28	Ethical organisation	P17, P1, P4, P5, P3
29	Excluded	F4

No	Category	Identifier
30	Expense	F1
31	Exploitation	F1
32	Failure	P5
33	Flat structure	P5
34	Force	P4
35	Frequency of change	F2, F3, F4
36	Future view	P17, P4, P5, P20
37	High staff turnover	P4, P5
38	High staff turnover	P4
39	How do we change?	P5
40	Hr	F5
41	Immediate gratification	P5, P4
42	Inclusivity	F4, F2, P20, P17, P2, P4, P5
43	Information	F4, P5, F2
44	Involvement	F2
45	Leadership	F1, F2, F3, F4, P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P20, P17, C1, C2, C3
46	Leadership characteristic	F6, P4, P5
47	Management	F2, F1, F3, F4, P1, P20, P17, P2, P4, P5, C1, C2, C3
48	Methodology	F1, F6, F3, F4, P20, P17, P1, P2, P4, P5
49	Methodology	F1
50	No change knowledge	F1, F2, F3, P1, P5, C1, C2, C3
51	Org maturity	F1, P17, P1, P5
52	Org strength	P5
53	Org values	F1
54	Participation	F4, F2, F3, F1, C1, C2, C3
55	Planning	F4
56	Poor management	F3, F5, F2, P4, P5, C1, C2, C3
57	Positive	P5
58	Positive change	P4, P5
59	Prayer	F4, C1, C2

No	Category	Identifier
60	Profit	F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, P5
61	Reactive	F4
62	Resignation	F3, F5
63	Resistance	F3, F1, F2, F4, P20, P17, P4, P5, P1, P2, C1, C2
64	Resistance/stress	P17, F1, F2, F3, F4, P4, P5, P20, C1, C2, C3
65	Skepticism	F3, F5, P20, P17, F4
66	Strategy	F3, F5, P20, P4, P5, P17
67	Stress	F4, F1, F3, F2, P20, P17, P4, P5, P2, P3, C1, C2, C3
68	Success factor	F1, F2, F3, F4, P4, P5, P6, P17, P20
69	Successful change	P4, P5
70	Training	F3, F2, P2, F4, C1
71	Trauma	F4, F3, F1, C1, C2
72	Trust	P5, P4, P17, P20
73	Uncertainty	F4, F3, F2, F1, C1, C2, C3
74	Understanding	F3, F2, F4, F1, P4, P5, P20, C1, C2, C3
75	Unethical	F1
76	Unions	P4, P3, P5
77	Unplanned	F3, F5, F6
78	Unsuccessful managers	P5, P4, P20, C1, C2
79	Vicious circle	F4
80	Vision	P4
81	Vicissitude	P20, P17, P1
82	Wasting money	P5
83	Workable solutions	F1, F2, F3, C1, C2, C3
84	Wrong leadership	P5, P4, P20, P3, P17

**Appendix J: Relational map example (strategy example)**



**Appendix K: Positive, negative and neutral categories**

<b>Positive, neutral and negative categories</b>		
Positive	Neutral	Negative
Accountable	Business of change	Non-accountable
Alignment	System (capitalist/perfect)	Misalignment
Change success	Change environment	Anti-leader
Understanding	Change forces	Anti-manager
Sell burning platform	Change preparations	Change failure
Show change (visible)	Change process	Survival
Connection btw leader and follower	Management (+/-)	Emotions: fear, guilt, mistrust, expectations, rejection, skepticism
Create change understanding	Change happens	Enormous change required
Good managers	Change (+/-)	Disconnect btw leader and follower
Honest conversations	Change reasons	Excluded
Improved productivity	Communication	Unengaged leadership
Inclusivity	Change dynamics	Instant gratification
Involvement	Change steps	Organisational change not happening
Emotions: trust	Change types	Leadership characteristics (-)
Empowerment	Organisational structure	Leadership disconnect
Ethical organisation	Change frequency	Short term view
Leadership characteristics (+)	Unions	Resistance
Long-term view		Stress
Regular meetings		
Organisational strengths		
Participation		
Planning		
Forecasting		
Change principles		
Priorities		
Reframed thoughts		
Change start point		
Strategy		



## Appendix L: Example of fractured and reworked data by theme

### Theme 1: Senior management



### Theme 2: Change types



### Theme 3: Change frequency



### Theme 4: Leadership tasks



### Theme 5: Leadership characteristics



### Theme 6: Change drivers



### Theme 7: Success Factors



### Theme 8: Change failure



### Theme 9: Strategy



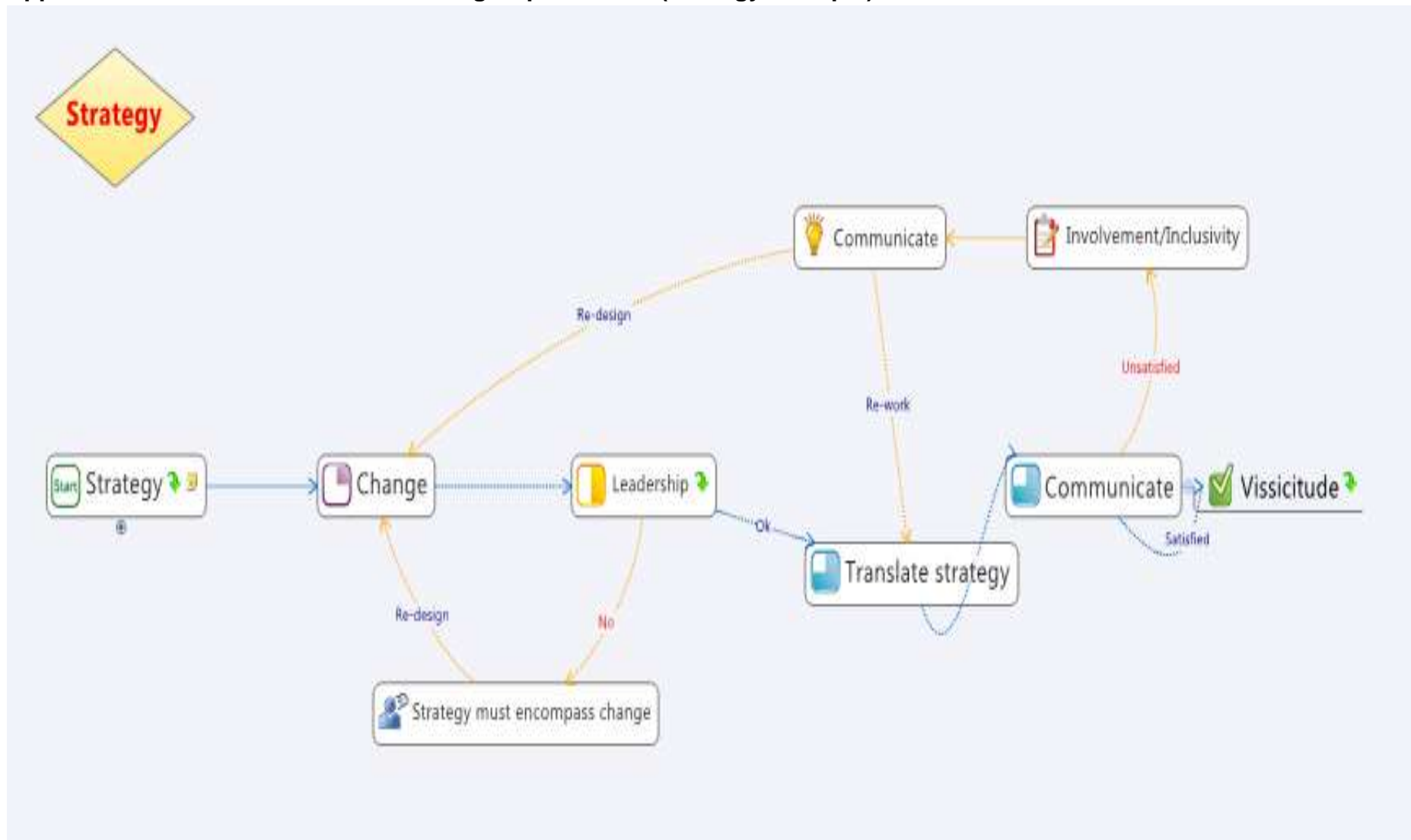
## Theme 10: Methodology



## Theme 11: Emotions



Appendix M: Reworked data from focus group sessions (strategy example)





## **Appendix N: The BEIGE human niche**

BEIGE is a survival and a reactive system. This system is reactive within itself and with nature. The world is based upon biological imperatives. Living consists of being in passive compliance to the will of nature (Graves, 1978). The BEIGE human niche is herd-like with no future view; strong members support weaker ones and groups band together for mating and food. Movement is determined by the weather as well as by food and water availability. Biological imperatives drive this system for which living consists of being in passive compliance to the will of nature. In this system nobody is in charge (Beck and Cowan, 1996).

Beck and Cowan (1996) insisted that changing life conditions lead to adaptation. The BEIGE human niche might have adapted from its origins; however, BEIGE is not extinct.

### **N-1 The first people or San**

The San have traditionally been identified as an example of peoples operating within the BEIGE human niche. Through engagement with stress, trauma and the Trauma Releasing Exercises™, the researcher studied tremors and vibrational healing practices. This path necessarily led to the San.

Evidence suggests that the San were the first human inhabitants of Southern Africa. Thousands of years ago, they were a scattered race of hunters, formed into small family groups. They had no other formal hierarchy or structure and did not build permanent structures. Their bodies adapted so that they could survive in the harshest of conditions. With their ability to survive, the early San also brought an ancient holistic philosophy of life to Africa. Their music was not only entertainment, but also the stuff of life itself. Their music celebrated the elements of life and was used for healing, for communicating to animals to facilitate the hunt and to ease the passing of stages of human and family life (Qwii, 1999).

San rock art is internationally famed and underlines the deeply spiritual nature of the San people. The paintings reflect the mystic respect with which the people approached the land and the animals they hunted and are unique art forms in themselves. The San are known to be wonderful storytellers, weaving tales of magic, of mystical gods and characters, and lessons of life, along with the dances and music with which they communicate to their ancestors (Qwii, 1999).

For the San life and all its elements – land, vegetation, animals and birds – are all part of a whole. If the San is separated from life, he feels that he will die. The music and dance of the San, as with their art, have a distinct function in the circle of life. The rituals of the Kalahari San where shamans (healers) enter a trance in order to cure the sick, is well known. A fire is lit, woman clap and sing the powerful medicine song Kukama which begins a dance which goes on all night. It is believed that that the dancers have access to the god who causes illness, and that they draw on a

supernatural potency believed to reside in various substances (Katz, Biesele & St Denis, 1997).

The Ju/'hoan people are one language group of San. Their culture is practical; its beauty and mystery embedded in spiritual strength. Many have challenged the European ethic of bringing civilisation to primitive peoples; however, European culture might be enriched by primitive cultures (Katz, 1982).

Elaborating further on the Ju/'hoan people, they are pragmatic, living in isolation and independence. In times of wealth when produce is reliable and healthy the spoils are shared amongst all. In times of scarcity, subsistence is still shared among all (Katz, 1982).

These peoples continue to use hundreds of plants, animals and insect species on a rotational basis through the seasons. Such rotation ensures preservation of the species, allowing usage during seasons to come. The men utilise spears, knives and poisoned arrows and they have uncanny tracking skills (Katz, 1982). Again, these tools and skills do no harm, but rather conserve the environment, the land and the animals. These methods ensure future availability of resources while displaying a deep concern for the environment. These methods also reveal a deep knowledge that skills and strengths are sufficient for the tasks of life.

For the Ju/'hoan people, healing involves health and growth at the physical, psychological, social and spiritual levels; it affects the individual, the group, the surrounding environment and the cosmos. Healing is an integrating and enhancing force, touching far more levels and forces than simply curing an individual illness.

The Ju/'hoan people consist of nuclear families. Despite such nuclear families, they are organised into extended family bands to sustain the arduous activities relating to a hunting and gathering lifestyle (Katz, *et al.*, 1997).

Their conservation practices, healing methods and extended family bands are strongly rooted in sharing and inclusivity of all. Their approach to healing is highly spiritual, yet the approach includes everybody whether ill or not. Furthermore, they make no distinction between their physical, emotional and spiritual needs (Katz, 1982).

The healing dance of the Ju/'hoan people heats up the *n|om* which is spiritual energy. When *n|om* boils, it vaporises and rises up the spine up into the skull. When the *n|om* reaches the base of the healers' skulls, they enter a state of transcendence called *!aia* (Katz, 1982). This state of *!aia* closely resembles a deep meditative state and corresponds to the philosophy of kundalini yoga where the coiled energy moves up from the base of the spine to the medulla oblongata which is at the base of the skull.

During this trance dancing a healer may shudder and shake violently and laughing is never far away. This process closely resembles the Trauma releasing exercises™, where an individual's entire body tremors. During this process of trauma releasing, the extremely thin divide between laughter and tears is amplified.

Their healers' power is not hoarded, to be doled out for a fee; it is freely given to the community as the need arises. The spiritual strengths of the healers are drawn from the community and the community, in turn, benefits from the lonely battles healers carry on with the malevolent ghosts of ancestors and with their own inner fears. The net effect is a body of protective spiritual energy endlessly recycled from healer to community and back in a process that extends deep into the past (Katz, 1982).

The Kung is another hunter-gatherer society living in the Kalahari Desert. More than one-third of the adult Kung, another tribe in the Kalahari Desert, routinely and without drugs alter their state of consciousness; thereby releasing energy to the entire community. The state of consciousness is the key to healing; this state is nonverbal, even beyond words and language. The resolution of conflict by fission or parting company is common, as opposed to confrontation (Katz, 1982).

Through the healing dance, members of the group stimulate each other's well-being. Through the dance, each person receives more healing than would be derived through individual effort. A synergy prevails in which the group's healing efforts becomes more than the sum of the individual efforts. There is a deep awareness of the interconnectedness between each member and with the cosmos.

Ju/'hoan philosophy draws explicit parallels between the necessity of respecting natural providence and the necessity of sharing with others. They also teach that their most important resource is the goodwill of their neighbours. There is an imperative to share. Mothers teach small children that part of whatever is put into one of their hands must immediately go out the other hand to someone else. Equalising and levelling are two main themes in Ju/'hoan society (Katz, *et al.*, 1997).

Although the Ju/'hoan are hunters-gatherers, their entire living is based on the premise of sharing collected wild food resources. The accumulation of food has distinct disadvantages in the Kalahari Desert; people here gather when food is needed, but what they collect is immediately distributed and consumed fresh (Katz, *et al.*, 1997).

## **N-2 Re-assessment of BEIGE**

The philosophy of the San, albeit verbal, compares with age old Eastern philosophies. This led the researcher to re-examine their culture and way of life. Following the path of the San invariably led to more questions.



Beck and Cowan (1996) argue that BEIGE is a reactive, survival system, based on biological imperatives. This level has been explained to correspond with animalistic, instinctive, pre-societal behaviour (Beck, 2013). However, examining the San shows deep levels of spirituality, sharing and exchange of gifts as well as a long-term conservation view. Deeper investigation revealed that equalising and levelling are two main themes in Ju/'hoan society (Katz, *et al.*, 1997). BEIGE as a reactive, survival system is unable to engage in behaviour as described above, which led the researcher to question the San's predominant human niche.

For the Ju/'hoan people the exchanging of gifts convey a significant cultural message, expressing the fluid quality of social relationships and confirming the commitment to maintaining harmony (Katz, *et al.*, 1997). Such exchange of gifts is a continuous, open-ended process of giving and receiving in no logical order. Such giving establishes an organic network among persons.

It was further argued that BEIGE is reactive within itself and with nature (Beck and Cowan, 1996), where living consists of being in passive compliance to the will of nature (Graves, 1978). For the San, hunting is unpredictable; humans may hunt actively for a week and then cease hunting for several weeks. The simple technology of poison arrows made it necessary for hunters to be in superb physical shape to track and even chase down animals on foot. This stands in stark contrast to the lethargy of the PURPLE human niche. However, this does mean that time is available for resting, talking, visiting, entertaining, craftwork, and the hall-night healing dances (Katz, 1982). Again, the BEIGE human niche is unable to engage in such activities.

Furthermore, the BEIGE human niche was identified as herd-like with no future view; strong members support weaker ones and groups band together for mating and food (Beck and Cowan, 1996). The San possess a wealth of herbal knowledge. They are also acutely aware of preservation; when something is finished there is nothing left. This clearly demonstrates a long-term view. The herbal knowledge, deeply entrenched in San culture, also comprises intellectual knowledge; knowing which plant to use for which ailment goes much deeper than mere copying behaviour. BEIGE is not able to absorb and retain such knowledge.

In addition, the Kung have a mutual and flexible use of land; sharing being one of the predominant philosophies of their group structure. Positive social meaning of sharing is clearly understood and underlies all decision making. The Kung are egalitarian people with a marked absence of disparities in wealth (Katz, 1982).

In the BEIGE human niche, nobody is in charge (Beck and Cowan, 1996). For the Kung peoples, no individual has authority over any others. Sexual egalitarianism characterises the relationship between male and female. Women have much autonomy and influence. The relationship between male and female is balanced and

informal leadership is based upon personality, coupled with a low degree of task specialisation by sex. Life is absolutely transparent (Katz, 1982).

The San are highly spiritual people. Religion or spirituality is their way of living and cannot be separated from them. Symbols are not merely symbolic; they are also real. People are encouraged to act and believe in ways to increase the common good, within respect for individual differences (Katz, 1982). This level of complexity again, cannot resonate with the BEIGE human niche.

Their healing dance results in an intense religious-spiritual dimension. The Kung word for heal and cure is the same (twe) as the word for illness and sickness (xai); healing means curing. A healing dance increases group cohesion and treats the full range of physical, psychological, emotional, social and spiritual illnesses (Katz, 1982). The San gives healing to whomever, as required. Using the same word for heal and cure further illustrates that healing encompasses the holistic person; healing is holistic and available to all. For a reactive, survival system, such holistic, inclusive behaviour is too complex and thus impossible.

The San further view healing as a process of transition toward meaning, balance, wholeness and connectedness, both within and between individuals and their environment (Katz, 1982). Such a deep philosophy is too complex for BEIGE.

The researcher had to conclude that the San are not reactive and do not live in passive compliance with nature. There is a deep interconnectedness between the San and the land. However, there is also a deep respect for the land and animals. The San follow a philosophy of sustainability, conservation and eco-awareness. In addition, the San aspire to harmonious existence with all neighbouring tribes. This also entails not harming their surroundings.

The above discourse indicates that we need to re-assess the position of the San as a tribe, against human niche theory. The San's ability to sustain and conserve indicates a deep ecological awareness of their environment. There is a deep awareness that once things are finished, they are no longer available; this speaks loudly against the short-term future view of PURPLE and RED. Furthermore, their deep belief in a harmonious existence with neighbouring tribes, animals and the environment implies highly developed self-reliance as well as a fit-for-purpose ingredient.

Despite challenges, including exclusion, as a tribe, the San remain highly functional and highly spiritual in holistic communities. In order to clear up this misclassification and/or confusion, further human niche research is required.

## Appendix O: Chakra (tantra) healing

### **The root chakra** (“I trust the power of the earth and feel my body”)



The central theme of the root or muladhara chakra is stability, the will to live, self-preservation, a sense of trust and security and groundedness. The root chakra is symbolised by four petals that correspond to four Sanskrit syllables: vam, am, sham, and sam. The primary mantra to activate this chakra is lam (pronounced lang). The element is earth. The red colour of the root chakra represents life energy, passion and strength. The basic symbol is the square. People with a strongly developed root chakra have enormous energy and stamina. Blockages in the root chakra account for apathy, lack of trust and lassitude (Govinda, 2002).

### **The sacral chakra** (“I take pleasure in life with all of my senses”)



The central theme of the second chakra (sacral or svadhisthana chakra) is sexuality, sensuality, fertility and creative life energy. The sacral chakra is symbolised by six petals and the colour orange. The primary mantra to activate this chakra is vam (pronounced vang). The six petals correspond to the Sanskrit syllables of bam, bham, mam, yam, ram and lam. The element is water and the basic symbol is the crescent moon which expresses its close association with the feminine aspect. People with a strongly developed sacral chakra display great vitality and *joie de vivre*. A blocked sacral chakra can lead to jealousy, persistent anxiety, ambivalence, addiction, feelings of guilt and aggression (Govinda, 2002).

### **The naval chakra** (“I trust my own feelings and spontaneity”)



The naval chakra (manipura chakra) is the third chakra with the central themes of willpower, self-confidence, personality, self-development, self-control, feelings, sensitivity, power and forcefulness. The naval chakra is symbolised by 10 petals and the colour yellow. The primary mantra to activate this chakra is ram (pronounced rang). The 10 petals correspond to the Sanskrit syllables of da, dha, na, ta, tha, da, dha, na, pa and pha. The element is fire and the basic symbol is the triangle. People with a strongly developed naval chakra are able to achieve their goals, and actively engage within their surroundings; they are spontaneous, follow their gut instinct and do not hold back emotionally. A blocked naval chakra can lead to apathy, arrogance, an obsession with power, insecurity, a need to control and thoughtlessness as well as fits of rage (Govinda, 2002).

### **The heart chakra** (“I send myself and others love and compassion”)



The heart chakra (anahata chakra) is the fourth chakra with the central themes of love, compassion, humanity, empathy, tolerance, openness and warm-heartedness. The heart chakra links the three lower chakras with the three higher centres of awareness. The heart chakra is symbolised by 12 petals and the colour green. The primary mantra to activate this chakra is yam (pronounced yang). The 12 petals correspond to the Sanskrit syllables of kam, kham, gam, gham, ngam, cham, chham, jam, jham, nyam, tam and than. The element is air and the basic symbol is the hexagon. People with a strongly developed heart chakra go beyond selfish interests and can transcend their own limitations. They can easily take responsibility for others and accept themselves despite their weaknesses and failings. A blocked heart

chakra can lead to heartlessness and bitterness, loneliness and a feeling of disconnect, being overwhelmed easily and a loss of identity (Govinda, 2002).

***The throat chakra*** (“I open myself to the power of truth”)



The throat chakra (vishuddha chakra) is the fifth chakra with the central themes of communication, verbal ability, inspiration, truthfulness, intelligence, synthesis, creativity and musical talent. The heart chakra is symbolised by 16 petals and sky blue colour. The primary mantra to activate this chakra is ham (pronounced hang). The element is ether and the basic symbol is the circle. People with a strongly developed throat chakra are gifted with great verbal ability. The throat chakra also represents hearing; sound can change a person’s mood in an instant. A blocked throat chakra is often accompanied by speech disturbances such as stuttering and stammering and difficulties expressing oneself as well as a distorted thirst for fame, the desire to manipulate and a tendency to gossip (Govinda, 2002).

***The forehead chakra*** (“I open myself to my inner light”)



The forehead or ajna chakra is the sixth chakra with the central themes of intuition, wisdom, realisation, awareness, fantasy, power of imagination and self-knowledge. The forehead chakra is symbolised by two petals and the colour violet blue. The primary mantra to activate this chakra is ksham (pronounced kshang) or Om. The basic symbol is the winged circle. This chakra is often referred to as the third eye. People with a strongly developed forehead chakra have mental clarity, enhanced visualisation and self-knowledge. A blocked forehead chakra can result in weakened concentration, forgetfulness, spiritual confusion, selfishness, greed and the lust for power (Govinda, 2002).

***The crown chakra*** (“I am aware in every moment”)



The crown chakra (sahasrara chakra) is the seventh chakra with the central themes of spirituality, experience of higher planes, knowledge of God, enlightenment, self-realisation and cosmic consciousness. The crown chakra is symbolised by 1000 petals and the colour violet. The primary mantra to activate this chakra is Om. The basic symbol is the lotus blossom. People with a strongly developed crown chakra reaches a sense of the sacred unity of the cosmos. The development of this centre leads the personality to the highest level and results in a profound transformation (Govinda, 2002).

**General chakra healing**

Table O-1 indicates the chakra symbols and sensory functions. This table also displays central themes and colours. These colours do not relate to the colours assigned to spiral dynamics or human niches.

Table O-1 displays the colour for the root chakra as red, the sacral as orange, the naval as yellow and the heart chakra as green. The throat chakra is sky blue, the forehead chakra is violet blue and the crown chakra is violet. The sensory function of the root chakra is smell with the central themes being the will to live, security, trust and self-preservation. The sacral chakra’s sensory function is taste and the central themes are sexuality, sensuality, fertility and creativity. The naval chakra relates to sight with themes relating to will power, personality and self-control. The heart

chakra responds to touch and the important themes are love, empathy and humanity. The throat chakra relates to hearing, communication, truth and inspiration. The sensory functions of the forehead chakra is reason and intuition, perception and fantasy. The crown chakra relates to cosmic consciousness, spirituality, enlightenment and self-realisation.

Table O-1 Chakra symbols, sensory functions, central themes and colours (Govinda, 2002)














Chakra	Symbol	Sensory function	Central theme	Colour
6.Crown		Cosmic consciousness	Spirituality, enlightenment, self-realisation	Violet
6.Forehead		Reason, intuition	Intuition, perception, fantasy	Violet blue
5.Throat		Hearing	Communication, truth, inspiration	Sky blue
4.Heart		Touch	Love, empathy, humanity	Green
3.Naval		Sight	Will power, personality, self-control	Yellow
2.Sacral		Taste	Sexuality, sensuality, fertility, creativity	Orange
1.Root		Smell	Will to live, security, trust, self-preservation	Red

Table O-2 indicates the various bodily functions, glandular functions, mental and spiritual levels related to each chakra. The crown chakra connects to the entire organisms and particularly to the brain and pineal gland. Self-realisation and enlightenment are the mental and spiritual outcome of this chakra.

Table O-2 Chakra bodily function, glandular function, mental and spiritual level (Govinda, 2002)

Chakra	Bodily function	Glandular function	Mental level	Spiritual level
	Brain, entire organism	Pineal gland	Self-realisation	Enlightenment
	Cerebellum, nervous system, hormonal system, eyes, ears, nose, sinuses	Pituitary gland	Fantasy	Wisdom
	Throat, neck, oesophagus and windpipe, shoulders, jaw	Thyroid and parathyroid	Communication	Truth

Chakra	Bodily function	Glandular function	Mental level	Spiritual level
	Heart, lungs, blood, arms and hands	Thymus	Empathy	Love
	Digestion, intestine, autonomic system, small liver, nervous	Pancreas	Emotion	Sense of self
	Sexual organs, kidneys, bladder, blood circulation	Testicles and ovaries	Awareness of one's own body	Creativity
	Pelvis, bones, large intestine, nails, teeth	Suprarenal glands	Will to live	Basic trust

According to table O-2, the forehead chakra connects the nervous system and the pituitary glands. Mental and spiritual levels relate to fantasy and wisdom. The throat chakra correlates to the throat, neck, oesophagus and windpipe and the thyroid. Communication and truth are the mental and spiritual level of the throat chakra. The heart chakra corresponds to the heart, lungs, blood, arms and hands as well as to the thymus. Emotion and love speaks strongly to the heart chakra. The naval chakra relates to digestion and the autonomic nervous system; emotion and a sense of self are important.

Table O-2 indicates that the sacral chakra corresponds to the sexual organs, kidneys and bladder and awareness of one's own body. Creativity relates to this chakra. The bodily functions of the root chakra relates to the pelvis, bones, nails and teeth. The will to live and basic trust are inherent into this chakra.

Table O-3 displays the correspondences in nature, rhythms, tonalities, musical instruments and notes. The crown chakra corresponds to mountain peaks, stillness, silence, the sound of the gong and the musical notes and scales of B and B#(sharp). The forehead chakra corresponds to the night sky, varied rhythms, major or minor keys, woodwinds and the musical scales of A and A#(sharp).

Table O-3 Chakra correspondences in nature, rhythms, tonalities and musical instruments (Govinda, 2002)

Chakra	Correspondence in nature	Rhythms	Tonalities	Musical instruments	Musical notes
	Mountain peaks	Stillness	Silence	Gong	B, B#
	Night sky, stars	Varied	Major/minor	Woodwinds	A, A#
	Blue sky, calm sea, still water	Gliding	Major/minor	Voice	G, G#












Chakra	Correspondence in nature	Rhythms	Tonalities	Musical instruments	Musical notes
	Forests, fields, wilderness	Calm	Minor	Bowed instruments	F, F#
	Sunlight, fire, yellow flowers	Fiery	Major	Stringed instruments	E, E#
	Moonlight, flowing water	Dance	Pentatonic	Percussion	D, D#
	Dawn and sunset, red earth	pulsating	Overtone	Drums	C, C#

Table O-3 indicates that the throat chakra relates to blue sky, calm water, gliding rhythms, voice and the notes G and G#(sharp). The heart chakra resonates with forests, fields, wilderness, calmness, bowed instruments and the scales of F and F#(sharp). The naval chakra corresponds to sunlight, stringed instruments and the notes of E and E#(sharp). The sacral chakra corresponds to moonlight, dance, percussion and the scales of D and D#(sharp). The root chakra resonates with dawn, sunset, red earth, pulsating rhythms and drums.

Table O-4 indicates the strengths and weaknesses of the various chakras and their physical and mental disorders. The strength of the crown chakra lies in spirituality which can be weakened by superstition. Chronic illness, depression, confusion and flight from reality could afflict this chakra. Table O-4 shows the strength of the forehead chakra to be intuition, the weakness irresponsibility. Headaches and sinus as well as poor concentration are weaknesses. The throat chakra is musical, needs admiration and could be hampered by speech defects, neck pain, shyness and an inability to express the self. The strength of the heart chakra is love and empathy; lack of feeling and blood pressure or respiratory disease could weaken this chakra.

Table O-4 Chakra strengths and weaknesses, physical and mental disorders (Govinda, 2002)

Chakra	Strength	Weakness	Physical disorders	Mental disorders
	Spirituality	Superstition, apathy, illusion	Chronic illness, cancer, immune system disorders	Depression, confusion, flight from reality
	Self-confidence, intuition, imagination	Lust for power, arrogance, irresponsibility	Headaches, sinusitis	Poor concentration, learning disabilities, anxiety
	Discrimination, musicality	Need for admiration, intolerance	Thyroid ailments, neck pain, speech defects	Shyness, inability to express self

Chakra	Strength	Weakness	Physical disorders	Mental disorders
	Love, empathy	Narcissism, bitterness	High or low blood pressure, coronary and respiratory disease	Lack of feeling, problems with relationships, poor boundaries
	Sensitivity, spontaneity	Sentimentality, self-pity, jealousy	Digestive problems, stomach ailments, diabetes, obesity	Aggression, insecurity, nightmares, sleep disorders
	Vitality, creativity	Uncontrolled drives, impulsiveness	Impotence, kidney disease, prostate disease	Addiction, lack of sexual drive, mental weakness
	Life energy, endurance, rhythm, nature connection	Egoism, lack of self-control	Constipation, back pain, diseases of the bones	Basic fear, lack of trust, disorientation

According to table O-4, the sacral chakra is spontaneous, sentimental and weakened by digestive problems and aggression. The naval chakra is creative and impulsive. The strength of the root chakra is life energy, endurance and a strong connection to nature.



## Appendix P: Researcher's grounded theory journey

My initial instinct when I started my DBL was to conduct quantitative research. My initial thoughts were to circulate a questionnaire and then to subject the data to statistical tests. This method fell within my comfort zone.

However, the deeper I became involved in my topic of organisational change and leadership, the more I realised that I had to reconsider my research stance. Quantitative research would not yield the appropriate results. I realised that I had to be specific in the respondents I targeted. I needed to target senior employees and/or chief executive officers with experience in organisational change and leadership.

Gradually, my thinking changed from quantitative to qualitative. I read up on various qualitative techniques such as appreciative enquiry. However, the moment I read about grounded theory I realised that was the correct method to follow. Given the lack of theory in the field of organisational change and leadership, this method resonated immediately.

I read Glaser, Glaser and Strauss, Strauss and Corbin and Charmaz. I also read the *Sage handbook of grounded theory* as well as Lessem and Schieffer's integral research and innovation. The more I read on grounded theory, the more I became convinced that this was the correct methodology to follow.

I also read a couple of PhD theses that had used grounded theory. From the outset I was concerned about the risk of data inundation as this was pertinent in these documents. I was also keenly aware of the importance of finding the correct respondents to ensure rich data.

As soon as I obtained my ethical clearance I started with interviews. Given my fear of data inundation, I immediately wrote a memo subsequent to each interview. I also transcribed the recorded data within a week of having the interview. I am fortunate to have reasonable typing skills; this helped a lot! As soon as I had transcribed the interview, I started to fracture the data, creating categories and themes. These categories and themes were reworked after every additional interview.

Every surface was cluttered with paper, notes, sketches, diagrams and more paper. My husband dusted off the easel which stood unused in the garage. Now I drew pictures on huge A0 sheets! We started eating on our laps because every flat surface was occupied. My husband asked whether he should build more surfaces ...

Once I had combined all the data, I started drawing relational maps by theme. After I had achieved data saturation, I started to combine the various relational maps in one document. My husband made a makeshift easel on which I worked. Every flat surface in the house was under papers, drawings, prints and pictures ....

Despite my keen awareness, working with such a huge amount of data became challenging. Everything was interconnected. Everything related to everything else. Everything had a connecting line to everything else. It became quite overwhelming.

This was the first time I had embarked upon qualitative research. I am generally quiet and reserved; however, I really enjoyed the interviews. It added a rich dimension to my own world views as I heard about the experience and opinions and

listened to the practicalities of their knowledge and involvement of senior managers. This added dimension really made the data alive.

After starting my DBL studies, it had been my habit to work on my studies every evening after work. Saturdays and Sundays were used to integrate. However, while working with the data, I had to step back and stop in order to find clarity and direction.

Qualitative research is extremely time consuming. Patience, patience and more patience are needed to sift through all the complexities. All the data I had gathered was interconnected; the number of variables increased exponentially. This made the process even more difficult.

Given the complexities and number of variables, I had to focus on the essence. At times, I felt swamped. It was difficult to determine what was important and what not because everything seemed to relate to everything else.

When I returned to the data, I found different answers. Again, I had to stop and take a step back in order to return with a different eye. Again, I needed patience with myself, the data and the grounded theory process.

And then I had all this information in my head .... Writing up a multitude of data was truly challenging. At first, I tried to say everything. That resulted in too many words, too little synchronisation ... I had to extract the essence.

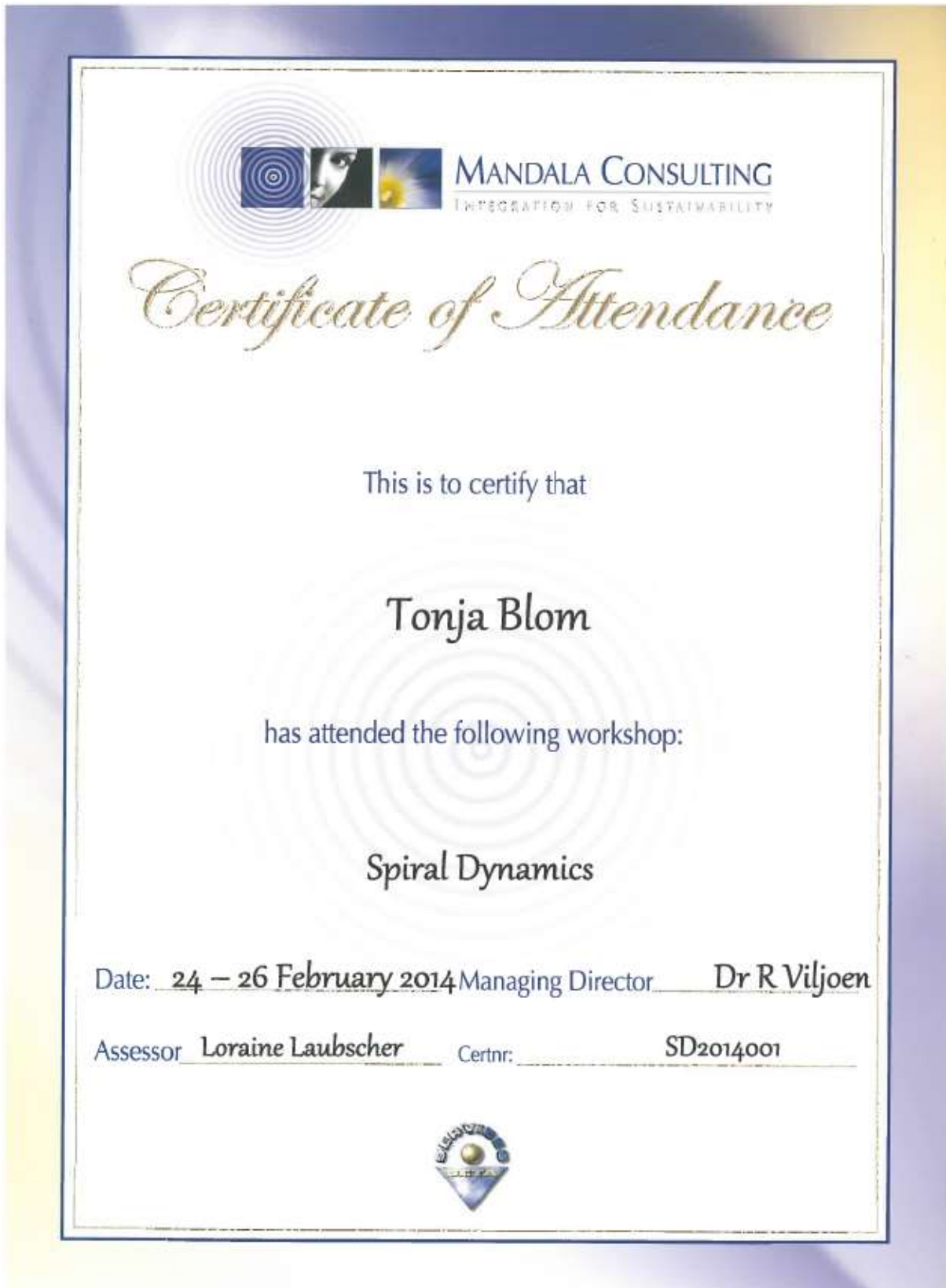
Extracting the essence required reworking, re-reading, distilling and synchronising. This was a really tough job.

During the course of this study, I experienced many ups and downs, which reminded me (and confirmed) the human reactions to change that I described in the text. I also became aware of my own regression when under stress.

Following a grounded theory methodology was rewarding. Grounded theory helped me to stop, think consider and not to judge too quickly. Grounded theory taught me that despite my best planning and preparation, tasks can still be challenging. This relates directly to the way individuals experience organisational change!

PS: I never imagined the completed change framework would look anything like the final product.

**Appendix Q: Spiral dynamics training certificate**



Appendix R: Tension and trauma releasing certification (individuals)



In recognition of the completion of requirements  
for **Trauma Releasing Exercises Level One Training Program**

.....  
*Tonja Blom*  
.....

has achieved the level of:

**Certified Practitioner for Individuals**

.....  
*[Signature]*  
.....  
**Dr. David Berceci**  
*Founder and Developer of TRE LLC*  
*S. Powers*

.....  
*October 18, 2014*  
.....  
Date

**Tension and trauma releasing certification (groups)**



In recognition of the completion of requirements  
for **Trauma Releasing Exercises Level Two Training Program**

.....  
**Tonja Blom**  
.....

has achieved the level of:

**Certified Practitioner for Groups**

.....  
*David Bercei*  
**Dr. David Bercei**  
.....  
*April 18 2015*  
**Date**  
.....  
*Dr. David Bercei*  
**Founder and Developer of TRE LLC**

## **Appendix S: Literature review keyword search**

### Change

- Change competencies
- Change success factors
- Change types
- Change management
- Change implementation
- Organisational change
- Organisational change models
- Organisational change theories
- Organisational culture

### Communication

Emotional intelligence

Empowerment

Grounded theory

Individual stress

Inertia

Leadership

Neuro-leadership

Perceptions of change

Readiness for change

Resistance

Trust

## REFERENCES

- Abdellah, A.S. 2009. 'Eye vs text movement: Which technique leads to faster reading comprehension?', Centre for Developing English Language Teaching, *Occasional Papers*, 48:1-27
- Achterberg, J., Cooke, K., Richards, T., Standish, L.J., Kozak, L. & Lake, J. 2005. 'Evidence for correlations between distant intentionality and brain function in recipients: a functional magnetic resonance imaging analyses', *Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 11(6):965-961
- Ackoff, R.L. 2003. 'Iconoclastic management authority, advocates a "systemic" approach to innovation', *Strategy & Leadership*, 31(3):19–26.
- Adams, P. 1993. *Gesundheit!* Rochester, VT: Healing Arts Press.
- Adams, S., Savahl, S., Isaacs, S. & Carels, C.Z. 2013. 'Alcohol consumption amongst young adults living in a low socioeconomic status community in Cape Town', *Social Behaviour and Personality*, 41(6):971-980.
- Adler, P.A. and Adler, P. 1987. 'Membership roles in field research'. *Qualitative Research Methods* (6), London: Sage.
- Aftanas, L. and Golosheykin, S. 2005. 'Impact of regular meditation practice on EEG activity at rest and during evoked negative emotions', *International Journal of Neuroscience*, 115(6):893-909.
- Ahn, M.J., Adamson, J.S.A. & Dornbusch, D. 2004. 'From leaders to leadership: Managing change', *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 10(4):112-123.
- Ahonen, P., Tienari, J., Meriläinen, S. & Pullen, A. 2014. 'Hidden contexts and invisible power relations: a Foucauldian reading of diversity research', *Human Relations*, 67(3):263-286.
- Ahuja, P. and Ahuja, G.C. 2007. *Communication skills: how to increase your reading speed*, Sterling Publishers, New Delhi.
- Allan, G. 2003. 'A critique of using grounded theory as a research method', *Electronic Journal of Business Research Method*, 2(1).
- Almaraz, J. 1994. 'Quality management and the process of change', *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 7(2):6–14.
- Altschuler, I.A. 1948. 'A psychiatrist's experience with music as a therapeutic agent', In: Altschuler, I. ed. *Music and Medicine*, New York, NY: Books for Libraries Press: 250-265.



- American Psychiatric Association [APA]. 2000. *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders DSM-IV-TR* (Text Revision). Washington, DC:APA.
- Amis, J., Slack, T. & Hinings, C.R. 2004. 'The pace, sequence, and linearity of radical change', *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(1):15–39.
- Antonovsky, A.1979. *Health, Stress, and Coping: New Perspectives on Mental and Physical Well-being*, San Francisco:Jossey-Bass.
- April, K.A. and April, A.R. 2007. 'Growing leaders in emergent markets: leadership enhancement in the new South Africa', *Journal of Management Education*, 31(2):214-44.
- Arden, N. 1996. *African Spirit Speaks*, Claremont: Destiny books.
- Armenakis, A., Harris, S. & Mossholder, K.W. 1993. 'Creating readiness for organizational change', *Human Relations*, 46:681-703.
- Armenakis, A. and Bedeian, A. 1999. 'Organisational change: a review of theory and research', *Journal of Management*, 25(3):293-315.
- Armenakis, A. and Harris, S. 2009. 'Reflections: our journey in organisational change research and practice', *Journal of Change Management*, 9(2):127–142.
- Armstrong, M. 2006. *A handbook of human resource management practice*, 10<sup>th</sup> edition. London: Kogan, 343–357.
- Armstrong-Stassen, M. 2005. 'Coping with downsizing: a comparison of executive-level and middle managers', *International Journal of Stress Management*, 12: 117–141.
- Asch, S.E. 1956. 'Studies of independence and conformity: a minority of one against a unanimous majority', *Psychological Monographs*, 70(9):566-575.
- Ashby, F.G., Isen, A.M. & Turken, A.U. 1999. 'A neuropsychological theory of positive affect and its influence on cognition'. *Psychological Review*, 106(3): 529-550.
- Ashford, S.J. 1988. 'Individual strategies for coping with stress during organisational transitions', *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 24(1):19.
- Aspect, A., Dalibard, J. & Roger, G. 1982. 'Experimental test of Bell's inequalities using time-varying analyzers', *Physical Review Letter*, 49:1804.
- Aspinwall, L. 1998. 'Rethinking the role of positive affect in self-regulation'. *Motivation and Emotion*, 22(1):1-32.
- Assagioli, R. 1961. *Psychosynthesis*. New York: Viking.

- Astin, J.A., Harkness, E. & Ernst, E. 2000. 'The efficacy of distant healing: a systematic review of randomised trials', *American College of Physicians-American Society of Internal Medicine*, 132:903-910.
- Atkinson, P. 2005. 'Managing resistance to change', *Management Services*, 49(1):14–19.
- Atmanspacher, H., Primas, H. & Wertenschlag-Birkhäuser, E. 1995. (Eds). *Der Pauli-Jung Dialog und seine Bedeutung für die moderne Wissenschaft*, New York: Springer.
- Atwoli, L., Stein, D.J., Williams, D.R., McLaughlin, K.A., Petukhova, M., Kessler, R.C. & Koenen, K.C. 2013. 'Trauma and posttraumatic stress disorder in South Africa: analysis from the South African Stress and Health Study', *BMC Psychiatry*, 13:182.
- Aurelius, M. [S.a.]. *The meditations by Marcus Aurelius* [online]. Translated by G. Long. Provided by the Internet Classics Archive.  
Available from: <<http://classics.mit.edu/Antoninus/meditations.html>>  
[Accessed 25 November 2013].
- Avey, J.B., Wernsing, T.S. & Luthans, F. 2008. 'Can positive employees help positive organisational change?' *Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 44(1):48-70.
- Axley, S.R. 1984. 'Managerial and organizational communication in terms of the conduit metaphor', *Academy of Management Review*, 9:428-37.
- Aylott, R. and Mitchell, V-W. 1998. 'An exploratory study of grocery shopping stressors', *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 26(9):362-373.
- Babyak, M., Blumenthal, J., Herman, S., Khatri P, Doraiswamy, M., Moore, K., Craighead, W., Baldewicz, T. & Krishnan, K. 2000. 'Exercise treatment for major depression: maintenance of therapeutic benefit at 10 months', *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 62(5):633-638.
- Baker, B.A. 2006. 'Art speaks in healing survivors of war: the use of art therapy in treating trauma survivors', In: Garrick, J. and Williams, M.B. eds. *Trauma treatment techniques: innovative trends*. Routledge: Haworth Maltreatment and Trauma Press (HMTP).
- Balogun, J. and Johnson, G. 2004. 'Organizational restructuring and middle manager sensemaking', *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(4):523-549.

- Bareil, C., Savoie, A. & Meunier, S. 2007. 'Patterns of discomfort with organisational change'. *Journal of Change Management*, 7(1):13-24.
- Barker, R.A. 2001. 'The nature of leadership'. *Human Relations*, 54(4):469–494.
- Barling, J., Slater, F. & Kelloway, E.K. 2000. 'Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: an exploratory study', *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal*, 21(3):157-161.
- Barlow, D., Chorpita, B. & Turovsky, J. 1996. 'Fear, panic, anxiety, and disorders of emotion'. In: Hope, D.A. ed., *Nebraska Symposium of Motivation*, 43. Perspectives on anxiety, panic, and fear. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press: 251-328.
- Barnard, C. 1938. *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bar-On, R. 1988. *The development of a concept of psychological well-being*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa.
- Bar-On, R. 1997a. *The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): technical manual*. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. 1997b. *The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): a test of emotional intelligence*. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. 2000. 'Emotional and social intelligence: insights from the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)'. In: Bar-On, R. and Parker, J.D.A. eds. *Handbook of emotional intelligence*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass: 363–388.
- Bar-On, R. 2004. 'The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): rationale, description, and summary of psychometric properties'. In: Geher, G. ed. *Measuring emotional intelligence: Common ground and controversy*. Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science: 111–142.
- Bar-On, R. 2006. The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence. *Psicothema*, 18(Suppl.):13–25.
- Baron, C. and Cayer, M. 2010. 'Fostering post-conventional consciousness in leaders: why and how?' *Journal of Management Development*, 30(4):344-365.
- Barre, W.L. 1979. 'Shamanic origins of religion and medicine', *Journal of Psychedelic drugs*, 11:1-2.

- Barrett, D.J. 2002. 'Change communication: using strategic employee communication to facilitate major change', *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 7:219-231.
- Bartholow, B.D., Fabiani, M, Gratton, G. & Bettencourt, B.A. 1999. *Gazing into the cognitive toolbox: Expectancy violations and event-related brain potentials*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Bartlett, C., Ghoshal, S. & Beamish, P. 2008. *Transnational management*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Bar-Yam, T. 2002. 'General features of complex systems', *Encyclopaedia of life support systems*. Oxford: EOLSS UNESCO Publishers.
- Bass, J.W. 1975. *Transcendental meditation*. Berkeley, CA.
- Bass, B.M. 1984. 'Issues involved in relations between methodological rigor and reported outcomes in evaluations of organisational development', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68:179-199.
- Bass, B.M. 1985. 'Leadership: good, better, best', *Organization Dynamics*, 13:26-40.
- Bateh, J., Castaneda, M.E. & Farah, J.E. 2013. 'Employee resistance to organisational change', *International Journal of Management and Information Systems*, 17(2):113-116.
- Baumeister, R.F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C. & Vohs, K.D. 2001. 'Bad is stronger than good', *Review of General Psychology*, 5:323-370.
- Baumeister, R.F., Twenge, J.M. & Nuss, C.K. 2002. 'Effects of social exclusion on cognitive processes: anticipated aloneness reduces intelligent thought', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(4):817-827.
- Beck, D.E. 2004. *What is spiral dynamics integral?* [online]  
Available from: <<http://www.integralnaked.org>>  
[Accessed 27 October 2013].
- Beck, D.E. 2008. *Stages of social development: the cultural dynamics that spark violence, spread prosperity, and shape globalization*, Spiral Dynamics Integral, [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.spiraldynamics.net/DrDonBeck/essays/>>  
[Accessed 29 October 2013].
- Beck, D.E. 2013. 'The master code: spiral dynamics integral: Lincoln & Polarisation', *Integral Leadership Review*, January.

- Beck, D.E. and Cowan, C.C. 1996. *Spiral dynamics: mastering values, leadership and change*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Beck, D.E. and Linscott, G. 1991. *The crucible: forging SA's future*, Denton, TX: New Paradigm Press.
- Beehr, T.A., Jex, S.M., Stacy, B.A. & Murray, M.A. 2000. 'Work stressors and coworkers support as predictors of individual strain and job performance'. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21:391–405.
- Beer, M. and Nohria, N. 2000a. 'Cracking the code of change', *Harvard Business Review*, May/June: 133–141.
- Beer, M. and Nohria, N. 2000b. *Breaking the code of change*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Bell, R.L. and Bodie, N.L. 2012. 'Leaders as catalysts for organisational change: How popular press business books address this topic', *Journal of Organisational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, 16(1):49-70.
- Bem, D.J. 2011. 'Feeling the future: experimental evidence for anomalous retroactive influences on cognition and affect'. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 100:406–425. Doi:10.1036/a0021524.
- Bem, D.J. and Honorton, C. 1994. 'Does psi exist? Replicable evidence for an anomalous process of information transfer', *Psychological Bulletin*, 115:4-18.
- Bennis, W.G. and Nanus, B. 1985. *Leaders: the strategies for taking chances*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Benoiel, J., McCorkle, R., Georgiadu, F., Denton, T. & Spitzer, A. 1990. 'Measurement of stress in clinical nursing'. *Cancer Nursing*. 13(4):221-228.
- Benson, H. 2000. *The relaxation response*. New York: Harper Torch.
- Berceli, D. 2006. 'Evaluating the Effects of Stress reduction exercises', PhD thesis. Arizona State University. Arizona.
- Berceli, D. 2012. *The revolutionary trauma release process: transcend your toughest times*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition. Vancouver: Namaste Publishing.
- Bercovitz, J. and Feldman, M. 2008. 'Academic entrepreneurs: organisational change at the individual level', *Organisation Science*, 19(1):69-89.
- Berg, B.L. 1998. *Qualitative research methods*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Berger, W., Coutinho, E.S., Figueira, I., Marques-Portella, C., Luz, M.P., Neylan, T.C., Marmar, C.R. & Mendlowicz, M.V. 2012. 'Rescuers at risk: a systematic review and meta-regression analysis of the worldwide current prevalence and

- correlates of PTSD in rescue workers'. *Social Psychiatry Epidemiol*, 47(6):1001–1011.
- Bergson, H. 1941. *Henri Bergson – philosopher – biography* [online], Available from: <<http://egs.edu>> [Accessed 2 June 2014].
- Berk, L.S. 1994. 'New discoveries in Psychoneuroimmunology', *Humor and Health Letter*, 3(6):1-8.
- Bernerth, J.B., Walker, H.J. & Harris, S.G. 2011. 'Change fatigue: development and initial validation of a new measure', *Work and Stress*, 25(4):321-337. Doi:10.1080/02678373.2011.634280.
- Besio, C. and Pronzini, A. 2014. 'Morality, ethics, and values outside and inside organisations: an example of the discourse of climate change', *Journal of Business Ethics*, 119(3):287-300.
- Bews, N. and Uys, T. 2002. 'The impact of organisational restructuring on perceptions of trustworthiness', *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 28:19-26.
- Bhagat, R.S. 1983. 'Effects of stressful life events on individual performance effectiveness and work adjustment processes within organizational settings: a research model'. *Academy of Management Review*, 8:660–671.
- Bierman, D.J. 2000. 'Anomalous baseline effects in mainstream emotion research using psychophysiological variables'. *Proceedings of Presented Papers: the 43rd Annual Convention of the Parapsychological Association*:34–46.
- Biermann, U. 2009. 'Black Sea files', Exhibit at the Arnolfini Gallery, Briston, September 12 – November 8.
- Blackmore, S.J. 2004. *Consciousness: an introduction*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Blaikie, N. 2007. *Approaches to social enquiry*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Cambridge: Norman Polity Press.
- Blakeslee, T. 1996. *The attitude factor: extend your life by changing the way you think*. London: Thorsons/HarperCollins.
- Block-Lerner, J., Adair, C., Plumb, J.C., Rhatigan, D.L & Orsillo, S.M. 2007. 'The case for mindfulness-based approaches in the cultivation of empathy: does non-judgemental, present-moment awareness increase capacity for



- perspective-taking and empathic concern?' *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 33(4):501-516.
- Bloom, H. 2000. *Global brain. The evolution of mass mind from the big bang to the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. New York: Wiley.
- Bloom, H. 2010. *The genius of the beast. a radical re-vision of capitalism*, New York: Prometheus Books.
- Bolman, L.G. and Deal, T.E. 2001. *Leading with soul: an uncommon journey of the spirit*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Boohene, R. and Williams, A.A. 2012. 'Resistance to Organisational Change: a case study of OtiYeboah Complex Limited', *International Business and Management*, 4(1):135-145
- Booyesen, L. and Nkomo, S. 2006. *Think manager – think female: a South African perspective*, ACSG Conference. 14 – 16 March 2007. Belville, Stellenbosch.
- Bordia, P., Hunt, E., Paulsen, N., Tourish, D. & DiFonzo, N. 2004a. 'Uncertainty during organisational change: is it all about control?', *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 13(3):345-365.
- Bordia, P., Hobman, E., Jones, E., Gallois, C. & Callan, V.J. 2004b. 'Uncertainty during organisational change: types, consequences and management strategies', *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 18(4):507-532.
- Bordia, P., Jones, E., Gallois, C., Callan, V.J. & DiFonzo, N. 2006. 'Management are aliens! Rumours and stress during organisational change', *Group and Organisational Management*, 31(5):601-621.
- Bosley, S., Arnold, J. & Cohen, L. 2007. 'The anatomy of credibility: a conceptual framework of valued career helper attributes', *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70(1):116-34.
- Bovey, W.H. and Hede, A. 2001. 'Resistance to organisational change: the role of defence mechanisms', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16(7/8):534.
- Boyatzis, R.E. and Goleman, D. 2005. *The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)*. [online].  
Available from: <[http://www.eiconsortium.org/pdf/ECI\\_2\\_0\\_Technical\\_Manual\\_v2.pdf](http://www.eiconsortium.org/pdf/ECI_2_0_Technical_Manual_v2.pdf)>  
[Accessed 28 November, 2014].
- Brabant, E., Falzeder, E. & Giampier-Deutsch, P. 1993. *The correspondence of Sigmund Freud and Sándor Ferenczi*, Cambridge. MA: Harvard University Press.



- Bradt, J. and Dileo, C. 2009. 'Music for stress and anxiety reduction in coronary heart disease patients'. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, 2(CD006566). Doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD006566.pub2.
- Branson, C.M. 2007. 'Achieving organisational change through values alignment', *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(3):376-395.
- Braud, W.G. 2003. *Distant mental influence: its contributions to science, healing, and human interactions*. Charlottesville, VA: Hampton Roads.
- Breslau, N., Kessler, R.C., Chilcoat, H.D., Schultz, L.R., Davis, G.C. & Andreski, P. 1998. 'Trauma and posttraumatic stress disorder in the community: the 1996 Detroit area survey of Trauma', *Arch Gen Psychiatry*, 55(7):626–632.
- Bridges, W. and Mitchell, S. 2000. 'Leading transition: a new model for change', *Leader to Leader*, 16(3):30–36.
- Brodbeck, P. 2002. 'Implications for organizational design: teams as pockets of excellence', *Team Performance Management: an International Journal*, 8(1):21-38.
- Broughton, R.S. 1992. *Parapsychology: the controversial science*. London: Rider & Co.
- Brown, S.L. and Eisenhardt, K.M. 1998. *Competing on the edge*, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Brown, A.D. and Humphreys, M. 2003. 'Epic and tragic tales, making sense of change', *Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 39(2):121-144.
- Bryant, A. and Charmaz, K. 2012. *The Sage handbook of grounded theory*. London: Sage.
- Bull, N. 1951. *Attitude theory of emotion*. New York: Nervous & Mental Disease Monographs.
- Bunker, K.A. 1997. 'The power of vulnerability in contemporary leadership'. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 49(2):122–136.
- Burke, W. 2002. *Organisational Change: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Burke, W. 2004. *Organisational development: what we know and what we need to know going forward* [online].  
Available from: <[www.g-rap.org/docs/ICB/WarnerBurke20200420-20](http://www.g-rap.org/docs/ICB/WarnerBurke20200420-20)>  
[Accessed 13 May 2013].

- Burke, W.W. 2009. 'Understanding organisations: The process of diagnosis'. In: Burke, W.W., Lake, D.G. & Paine, J.W. eds. *Organisation change: A comprehensive reader*. San Francisco: Wiley: 259–272.
- Burnes, B. 1996. 'No such thing as ... a "one best way" to manage organizational change', *Management Decision*, 34(10):11-18.
- Burnes, B. 2004. 'Kurt Lewin and the planned approach to change: a re-appraisal', *Journal of Management Studies*, 41:977–1002.
- Burnes, B. 2009. *Managing change*. 5<sup>th</sup> edition. London: FT/Prentice Hall.
- Burnes, B. and Todnem-By, R. 2012. 'Leadership and Change: the case for greater ethical clarity', *Journal of Business Ethics*, 108:239-252.
- Burns, N. and Grove, S.K. 2001. *The practice of nursing research: conduct, critique and utilization*. Philadelphia: Saunders.
- Burns, N. and Grove, S.K. 2003. *Understanding nursing research*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Philadelphia, W.B. Saunders Company.
- Butler, M. 2003. 'Managing from the inside out: drawing on "receptivity" to explain variation in strategy implementation', *British Journal of Management*, 14:S47-S60.
- Buzan, T. 1993. *The mind map book*. Pearson Education. New York: Plume.
- Byrne, R. 2006. 'He thinks different', *Business Week*, November:20.
- Byrd, J.T. 2009. 'Stress, organisational change and management planning', *The Business Review*, Cambridge, 13(2):8-15.
- Byron, K. and Peterson, S. 2002. 'The impact of a large-scale traumatic event on individual and organisational outcomes: exploring employee and company reactions to September 11, 2001', *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 23: 895-910.
- Cacioppe, R. and Edwards, M. 2004. 'Seeking the Holy Grail of organizational development: a synthesis of integral theory, spiral dynamics, corporate transformation and action inquiry', *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 26(2):86-105.
- Cahn, R. 2006. 'Polich J. Meditation states and traits: EEG, ERP, and neuroimaging studies'. *Psychology Bulletin*.132:180-211.
- Caldwell, D., Chatman, J., O'Reilly, C., Ormiston, M. & Lapiz, M. 2008. 'Implementing strategic change in a health care system: the importance of

- leadership and change readiness', *Health Care Management Review*, 33(2):124-133.
- Cambray, J. 2009. *Synchronicity. nature and psyche in an interconnected universe*, Texas: Texas A&M University Press.
- Cannon, W. 1929. 'Organization for physiological homeostasis', *Physiological Review*, 9:399–431.
- Caplan, G. 1981. 'Mastery of stress: psychosocial aspects'. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 138:413-420.
- Card, R.F. 2005. 'Individual responsibility within organisational contexts', *Journal of Business Ethics*, 62(4):397-405.
- Cardwell, K. 2000. 'Electronic assessment', *Learning and Leading with Technology*, 27(7):22–26.
- Carlson, E.R. 1966. The affective tone of psychology. *Journal of General Psychology*, 75:65-78.
- Caroselli, M. 2009. *Design as attitude: critical analysis of Bruno Munari's design as art* [online].  
Available from: <[http://design.cca.edu/graduate/uploads/pdf/Caroselli\\_Munari\\_essay.pdf](http://design.cca.edu/graduate/uploads/pdf/Caroselli_Munari_essay.pdf)>  
[Accessed 19 October, 2014].
- Carpenter, S. 1965. *Wild heritage*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Carr, J.B. and Brower, R.S. 2000. 'Principled opportunism', *Public Affairs Quarterly*, Vol. Spring:109-138.
- Carter, O.L., Presti, D.E., Callistemon, C., Ungerer, Y., Liu, G.B. & Pettigrew, J.D. 2005. 'Meditation alters perceptual rivalry in Tibetan Buddhist monks', *Current Biology*. 15:R412-R413.
- Carter, R., Williams, S. & Silverman, W.K. 2008. 'Cognitive and emotional facets of test anxiety in African American school children', *Cognition and Emotion*, 22: 539–551.
- Cartwright, S. and Schoenberg, R. 2006. 'Thirty years of mergers and acquisitions research: recent advances and future opportunities', *British Journal of Management*, 17(1):1-5.
- Carver, R.P. 1990. *Reading rate: a review of research and theory*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Celes, C. 2009. *Map of consciousness: a powerful framework for your personal growth* [online].

- Available from: <<http://personalexcellence.co/blog/map-of-consciousness/>>  
[Accessed 29 June 2014].
- Certo, S.C. 2003. *Supervision: concepts and skill building*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Chalmers, D.J. 2002. *Philosophy of mind: classical and contemporary readings*, Arizona, Oxford University Press.
- Charman, R.A. 2006. 'Has direct brain to brain communication been demonstrated by electroencephalographic monitoring of paired or group subjects?' *The Journal of the Society for Psychical Research* 60:1-24.
- Charmaz, K. 2006. *Constructing grounded theory: a practical guide through qualitative analysis*, London: Sage.
- Chatterjee, D. 1998. *Leading consciously: a pilgrimage toward self-mastery*, Woburn, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Chen, I.S. 2011. 'Choosing the right channels of communication and moderating stress levels during organizational change', *International Journal of Management and Innovation*, 3(1):43-44.
- Chesebro, J.W. and Borisoff, D.J. 2007. 'What makes qualitative research qualitative?' *Qualitative Research Reports in Communication*, 8(1):3–14.
- Childre, D. and McCraty, R. 2001. 'Psychophysiological Correlates of Spiritual Experience', *Biofeedback*, Winter.
- Chodron, P. 2010. *You are always in sacred space* [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.mysticmamma.com>>  
[Accessed 31 October 2014].
- Christensen, M. 2014. 'Communication as a strategic tool in change processes', *International Journal of Business communication*, 51(4):359-385.
- Chrousos, G. and Gold, P. 1992. 'The concepts of stress system disorders: overview of behavioral and physical homeostasis. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 267:1244 - 1252.
- Churches, A. 2006. *Bloom's taxonomy Blooms digitally*. [online].  
Available from: <[www.edorigami.com/bloomsicttools](http://www.edorigami.com/bloomsicttools)>  
[Accessed 10 July 2014].
- Churches, A. 2008. *Bloom's taxonomy', Educational Origami, Bloom's and ICT tools* [online].  
Available from: <[www.edorigami.com/bloomsicttools](http://www.edorigami.com/bloomsicttools)>

[Accessed 10 July 2014].

Clark, A. 2008. *Feds charge bear pair with fraud over \$1.4bn sub-prime collapse* The Guardian [online].

Available from: <[www.guardian.co.uk](http://www.guardian.co.uk)>

[Accessed 29 October 2013].

Coch, L. and French, J.R.P. 1948. 'Overcoming resistance to change', *Human Relations*, 1:512–532.

Code, S. and Langan-Fox, J. 2001. 'Motivation, cognitions and traits: predicting occupational health, well-being and performance', *Stress and Health*, 17:159-74.

Coetzee, P.H. and Roux, A.P.J. 2002. *Philosophy from Aferika. A text with readings*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Cape Town. Oxford University Press.

Cohen, D. 1980. 'The functional neuroanatomy of a conditioned response'. In: Thompson, R., Hicks, L. & Shvyrkov, B. eds., *Neural Mechanisms of Goal-directed Behavior and Learning*. New York: Academic Press:283-302.

Cohen, S. 2004. 'Social relationships and health' *American Psychologist*, 59:676-684.

Colcombe, S.J., Kramer, A.F., Erickson, K.I., Scalf, P. McAuley, E., Cohen, N.J., Webb, A., Jerome, G.J., Marquez, D.X. & Elavsky, S. 2004. 'Cardiovascular fitness, cortical plasticity and aging', *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 101:3316-3321.

Coldwell, D. and Herbst, F. 2004. *Business Research*. 1<sup>st</sup> edition. Cape Town: Juta.

Cole, B. 1993. *Music and morals: a theological appraisal of the moral and psychological effects of music*, New York: Alba House.

Coles, R. 2000. *Lives of moral leadership*, New York: Random House.

Colinvaux, P. 1980. *The fate of nations: a biological theory of history*, New York: Simon and Schuster.

Collins, J. 2001. *Good to great*. New York: HarperCollins.

Collins, J. and Porras, J.I. 1998. *Built to last: successful habits of visionary companies*, New York: Harper Business.

*Concise Oxford dictionary of current English*. 1964. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Conger, J.A. 1989. *The charismatic leader*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Cooper, D.R. and Schindler, P.S. 2011. *Business research methods*, 11<sup>th</sup> (international) edition. Shanghai, Singapore: McGraw Hill.
- Corbitt, C.M. 2005. 'The cost of job stress', *Meditation Media*, July.
- Cosmides, L. and Tooby, J. 1996. 'Are humans good intuitive statisticians after all? Rethinking some conclusions from the literature on judgment under uncertainty'. *Cognition*. 58:1-63.
- Cotman, C.W. and Berchtold, N.C. 2002. 'Exercise: a behavioural intervention to enhance brain health and plasticity', *Trends in Neuroscience*, 25(6):295-301.
- Cousins, N. 1981. *Anatomy of an illness*. New York: Bantam.
- Coy, P. 2008. 'Surviving the storm', *Business Week*, 3 November:48 – 50.
- Craft, L. 1997. The effect of exercise on clinical depression and depression resulting from mental illness: a meta-analysis. Unpublished master's thesis, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona.
- Crane, A. and Matten, D. 2007. *Business ethics*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Crawford, C.C., Jonas, W.B., Nelson, R., Wirkus, M. & Wirkus, M. 2003. 'Alterations in random event measures associated with a healing practice', *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 9(3):345-353.
- Crawford, L. and Nahmais, A.N. 2010. 'Competencies for managing change', *International Journal of Project Management*, 28(4):405-412.
- Creasy, T. 2007. 'Defining change management: helping others understand change management in relation to project management and organisational change', Prosci. Change management learning centre. [online].  
Available from: < <http://www.change-management.com/tutorials.htm> >  
[Accessed 20 February, 2014].
- Creswell, J.W. 2009. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crofts, N. 2008. 'Spiral Dynamics – a map of the evolution of human consciousness', [online].  
Available from: <[Themagicofbeing.squarespace.com/spiral-dynamics](http://Themagicofbeing.squarespace.com/spiral-dynamics)>  
[Accessed 6 April 2014].
- Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D.E. & Byrne, Z.S. 2003. 'The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organisational citizenship behaviors'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88:160-169.

- Crotty, M. 1998. *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process*. London. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cummings, T.G. and Worley, C.G. 2005. *Organisation development and change*, , Mason, OH: Thomson.
- Cunningham, S. 2001. *Wicca: a guide for the solitary practitioner*, 29<sup>th</sup> edition. UK: Llewellyn.
- Curtis, A.M. 2001. 'Schtick happens: the power of humour, part II', *Trauma Lines Newsletter*:7-8.
- Czapinski, J. 1985. 'Negativity bias in psychology: an analysis of Polish publications'. *Polish Psychological Bulletin*, 16:27-44.
- Dahl, M.S. 2009. 'The cancer of organizational change', *Preliminary Draft*, 28 February.
- Daft, D. 2008. *The leadership experience*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Boston, MA: Thomson/South Western.
- Daly, F., Teague, P. & Kitchen, P. 2003. 'Exploring the role of internal communication during organisational change', *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 8:153-62.
- Daniels, J.D. and Cannice, M.V. 2004. 'Interview Studies in international business research', In: Daniels, J.D. and Cannice, M.V. eds. *Handbook of qualitative research methods for international business*, Marschan-Piekkari and Welch.
- Danner, D.D., Snowdon, D.A., & Friesen, W.V. 2001. 'Positive emotions in early life and longevity: findings from the nun study'. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80(5):804-813.
- Darling, J.R. and Heller, V.L. 2011. 'The key for effective stress management: importance of responsive leadership in organisational development', *Organisational Development Journal*, 29(1):1-26.
- Davis, M. 1992. 'Analysis of aversive memorisensing the fear-potentiated startle paradigm'. In: Squire, L.R. and Butters, N. eds. *Neuropsychology of memory*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. New York: Guilford Press.
- Dawkins, R. 1989. *The selfish gene*. Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Dawlabani, S. 2013. *MEMEnomics: The Next Generation Economic System*. New York: Select Books.
- Dean, J. 2013. *10 magical effects music has on the mind*. [online]. Available from: <http://www.PsyBlog>



[Accessed 24 June 2014].

- De Bono, E. 1992. *Teach your child to think*. Penguin.
- De Jaegher, H. and Di Paolo, E. 2007. 'Participatory sense-making: an enactive approach to social cognition', *Phenomenology and the Cognitive Sciences*, 6(4):485-507.
- Dennett, D.C. 1978. 'Towards a cognitive theory of consciousness'. In *Brainstorms: Philosophical essays in mind and psychology*. Montgomery, VT: Bradford Books.
- Dennett, D.C. 2005. *Sweet dreams: philosophical obstacles to a science of consciousness*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Denton, M. and Vloeberghs, D. 2003. 'Leadership challenges for organisations in the New South Africa', *Leadership and Organization Development*, 24(2):84-95.
- Dey, I. 1999. *Grounding grounded theory*, San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Diamond, J. 1989. *Your body doesn't lie; a new simple test measures impacts upon your life energy*. New York: Grand Central Publishing.
- Diamond, J. 2001. 'The Therapeutic power of music', In: Shannon, S. Ed. *Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health*, Academic Press.
- Dibella, A.J. 2007. 'Critical perceptions of Organisational Change', *Journal of Change Management*, 7(3/4):231-242.
- Dickerson, S.S. and Kennedy, M.E. 2004. 'Acute stressors and cortisol responses: a theoretical integration and synthesis of laboratory research', *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(3):355-391.
- DiFonzo, N. and Bordia, P. 1998. 'A tale of two corporations: managing uncertainty during organisational change', *Human Resource Management*, 37:295-303.
- DiFonzo, N. and Bordia, P. 2000. 'How top PR professionals handle hearsay: corporate rumours, their effects, and strategies to manage them', *Public Relations Review*, 26:137-190.
- DiFonzo, N. and Bordia, P. 2002a. 'Corporate rumour activity, belief and accuracy', *Public Relations Review*, 28:1-19.
- DiFonzo, N. and Bordia, P. 2002b. 'Rumours and stable-cause attribution in prediction and behaviour', *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 88:785-800.

- Dillon, K.M., Minchoff, B. & Baker, K.H. 1985. 'Positive emotional states and enhancement of the immune system', *International Journal of Psychiatry Medicine*, 15(1):13-18.
- Di Virgilio, M.E. and Ludema, J.D. 2009. 'Let's talk: creative energy for action through strategic conversations', *Journal of Change Management*, 9(1):76-85.
- Dodd, L. 2004. *Learning to think – thinking to learn* [online].  
Available from: <[www.thebrainandlearning.com](http://www.thebrainandlearning.com)>  
[Accessed 26 June 2014].
- Dominguez, I. 2012. *Casting sacred space: the core of all magical work*, San Francisco, CA: Weiser Books.
- Donny, E.C., Bigelow, G.E. & Walsh, S.L. 2006. 'Comparing the physiological and subjective effects of self-administered vs yoken cocaine in humans', *Psychopharmacology*, 186(4):544-552.
- Doolin, B. 2003. 'Narratives of change: discourse, technology and organization', *Organization*, 10:751-70.
- Doppelt, R. 2003. 'Overcoming the seven sustainability blunders', *The systems thinker*, 14(5).
- Dossey, L. 2009. *The power of premonitions*. New York: Dutton Adult.
- Dunne, B.J. and Jahn, R.G. 2005. 'Consciousness, information and living systems', *Cellular and Molecular Biology*, 51:603-614.
- Dunphy, D.C. and Stace, D.A. 1988. 'Transformational and coercive strategies for planned organisational change: beyond the OD model'. *Organisation Studies*, 9(3):317–334.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. & Lowe, A. 1991. *A management research: an introduction*. London: Sage.
- Ebon, M. 1964. 'A history of parapsychology', In: Mitchell E.D. and White, J. eds. *Psychic Exploration*, New York: Putnam.
- Eby, L.T., Adams, D.M., Russell, J.E.A. & Gaby, S.H. 2000. 'Perceptions of organisational readiness for change: factors related to employees' reactions to the implementation of team-based selling', *Human Relations*, 53(3):419-442.
- Eccles, J. 1986. *Proceedings of research social*. London, Covington:226:411.
- Edwards, J.R. 2008. 'Person-environment fit in organizations: an assessment of theoretical progress'. *Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1):167-230.

- Eerola, P.S. and Eerola, T. 2013. *Extended music education enhances the quality of school life*. Music Education Research, [online]. 1 Doi: [10.1080/14613808.2013.829428](https://doi.org/10.1080/14613808.2013.829428).
- Egan, T.M. 2002. 'Grounded theory research and theory building', *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4(3):277-295.
- Ehrensaft, M.K., Moffit, T.E. & Shallom, C. 2006. 'Is domestic violence followed by an increased risk of psychiatric disorders among women but not among men? A longitudinal cohort study'. *American Journal of Psychiatry*.
- Einstein, A., Podolsky, B. & Rosen, N. 1935. 'Can quantum-mechanical description of physical reality be considered complete?' *Physics Review*, 46:666–680.
- Eisenbach, R., Watson, K. and Pillai, R. 1999. 'Transformational leadership in the context of organisational change', *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 12(2):80–88.
- Elhamdani, A., Palfrey, C. & Artalejo, R. 2002. 'Ageing changes the cellular basis of the "fight-or-flight" response in human adrenal chromaffin cells'. *Neurobiology of Aging*, 23: 287-293.
- Elving, W.J.L. 2005. 'The role of communication in organisational change', *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 10:129-138.
- Emig, J. 1971. *The composing processes of twelfth graders*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Encyclopedia of philosophy*, 1967, vol(3). University of Michigan: Macmillan.
- Engardio, P. 2008. 'Forget Adam Smith - whatever works', *Business Week*, October:22-24.
- Epperson, G. 1967. *The musical symbol: a study of the philosophic theory of music*. Ames, IA: Iowa State University Press.
- Eric, R. 2000. 'The quest for a unified theory of information', *World Futures*, 49:3/4.
- Erwin, D.G. and Garman, A.N. 2010. 'Resistance to organisational change: linking research and practice', *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal*, 31(1):39-56.
- Eysenck, H.J. 1995. *Genius: the natural history of creativity*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Fallon-Cyr, M. and Fallon-Cyr, M, 2001. 'The Hakomi method and body-centered psychotherapies'. In: Shannon, S. ed. *Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health*, Academic Press.

- Farb, N.A.S., Segal, Z.V., Mayberg, H., Bean, J., McKeon, D., Fatima, Z. & Anderson, A.K. 2007. 'Attending to the present: mindfulness meditation reveals distinct neural modes of self-reference', *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, 2(4): 313-322.
- Feinstein, A., Owen, J. & Blair, N. 2002. 'A hazardous profession: war, journalists, and psychopathology', *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 159(9):1570–1575.
- Feldman, S. 2004. *Biomechanical stimulation web by Spencer Feldman* [online]. Available from: <[http://www.vibraboard.com/research\\_study.html](http://www.vibraboard.com/research_study.html)> [Accessed 20 May 2014].
- Ferguson, Y. and Sheldon, K. 2013. *Trying to be happier really can work: Two experimental studies*. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(1):23-33 [online]. DOI: [10.1080/16439660.2012.646000](https://doi.org/10.1080/16439660.2012.646000).
- Field, P.A. and Morse, J.M. 1985. *Nursing research: the application of qualitative approaches*. London. Chapman & Hall.
- Fincham, D., Korthals Altes, L., Stein, D.J. & Seedat, S. 2007. 'Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms among adolescents: risks factors versus resilience moderation'. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Fischer, R. 1971. 'A cartography of the ecstatic and meditative states', *Science*, 1164:896-904.
- Fischer, R. 2005. 'Roland Fischer's cartography of ecstatic mystical states: A reappraisal', *Transpersonal psychology review*, 4(2):4–16.
- Fisher, J. 2006. *Process of personal change*. [online]. Available from: <[www.BusinessBalls.com](http://www.BusinessBalls.com)> [Accessed 4 June 2014].
- Fiss, C. and Zajac, E.J. 2006. 'The symbolic management of strategic change: sensegiving via framing and decoupling', *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(6):1173-1193.
- Flamholtz, E.G. and Randle, Y. 1998. *Changing the game: organizational transformation of the first, second, and third kinds*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fleming, P. and Spicer, A. 2003. 'Working at a cynical distance: implications for power, subjectivity and resistance', *Organisation*, 10(1):157-179.
- Ford, J.D. and Ford, L.W. 1995. 'The role of conversations in producing intentional change in organizations', *The Academy of Management Review*, 20:541-571.

- Ford, J.D. and Ford, L.W. 2009. 'Resistance to change: a re-examination and extension', *Research in Organisational Change and Development*, 17:211-239.
- Ford, J.D. Ford, L.W. & D'Amelio, A. 2008. 'Resistance to change: the rest of the story', *Academy of Management Review*, 33(2):362–377.
- Forge, A. 1969. *Primitive art and society*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Forgeard, M., Winner, E., Norton, A. & Schlaug, G. 2008. 'Practicing a musical instrument in childhood is associated with enhanced verbal ability and nonverbal reasoning' *PLoS ONE*, 3(10):23566.
- Foy, H. 1980. *The yin and yang of organisations. A scintillating guide to the best in current management thinking*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. New York: Grant McIntyre.
- Fram, E.H. 1992. 'Stressed out consumers need timesaving innovations', *Marketing News*, 26(5):10-11.
- France-Presse, A. 2009. *How juggling rewires your brain* [online]. Available from: <[www.cosmosmagazine.com](http://www.cosmosmagazine.com)> [Accessed 4 June 2014].
- Franz, S. and Hamilton, V. 1905. 'The effects of exercise upon retardation in conditions of depression'. *American Journal of Insanity*, 62:239-256.
- Fredrickson, B. 1990. 'Positive emotions'. In: Snyder, C. and Lopez, S. eds. *Handbook of positive psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Freeman, J. 2010. *Spiral dynamics* [online]. Available from: <<http://www.freemanj.com/jonfreeman/spiral-dynamics/>> [Accessed 17 June 2014].
- French, E. and Delahaye, B. 1996. 'Individual change transition: moving in circles can be good for you', *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 17(7):22-28.
- Freud, S. 1914. *Lectures, and beyond the pleasure principle*. International Psycho-Analytic Press. New York: Norton.
- Freud, S. 1964. *Jokes and their relationship to the unconscious*, New York: Norton.
- Fry, W.F. and Salameh, W.A. 1987. *Handbook of humor and psychotherapy*, Sarasota, FL: Professional Resource Press.
- Fukukawa, K., Spicer, D., Burrows, S.A. & Fairbrass, J. 2013. 'Sustainable change', *Journal of Corporate Citizenship*. 49:71-99.
- Gadamer, H.G. 1989. *Truth and method*. London: Continuum.

- Gallagher, K. and Vandebosch, B. 2000. 'A systemic view of continual change'. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1–6.
- Gallese, V., Keysers, C. & Rizzolatti, G. 2004. 'A unifying view of the basis of social cognition', *Trends in Cognitive Science*, 8(9):396-403.
- Gardner, H. 1985. *Frames of mind*. New York: Basic Books.
- Garrick, J. 2006. 'The humor of trauma survivors: its application in a therapeutic milieu', In: *Trauma treatment techniques: Innovative trends*, Garrick, J. and Williams, M.B. eds. HMTP, The Haworth Maltreatment and Trauma Press.
- Garvey, J. and Stangroom, J. 2013. *The story of philosophy: A history of Western thought*. UK: Quercus.
- Geist, V. 1978. *Life strategies, human evolution, environmental design*. Springer.
- Gellhorn, E. 1968. 'Central nervous system tuning and its implications for neuropsychiatry', *Journal of Nervous Mental Disorders*:146.
- George, B. 2003. *Authentic leadership: rediscovering the secrets of creating lasting value*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gersick, C.J.G. 1991. 'Revolutionary change theories: a multilevel exploration of the punctuated equilibrium paradigm', *Academy of Management Review*, 16(1):10–36.
- Gilley, A. 2005. *The manager as change leader*. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Gilley, A., Gilley, J.W. & McMillan, H.S. 2009a. 'Organizational change: motivation, communication, and leadership effectiveness', *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 21(4):7-94.
- Gilley, A., Gilley, J.W. & McMillan, H.S. 2009b. 'Organizational change and characteristics of leadership effectiveness'. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 16(1):38-47.
- Girod, J. and Brotman, D. 2004. 'Does altered glucocorticoid homeostasis increase cardiovascular risk?' *Cardiovascular Research*, 64:217-226.
- Glaser, B.G. 1978a. *Advances in the methodology of grounded theory: theoretical sensitivity*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B.G. 1978b. *Theoretical sensitivity*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B.G. 1992. *Basics of grounded theory analysis: emergence vs forcing*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B.G. 2005. *The grounded theory perspective: theoretical coding*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.



- Glaser, B.G. and Strauss, A.L. 1967. *The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research*. New Brunswick, NJ: Aldine Transactions.
- Glick, W.G., Huber, G.P., Miller, C.C., Harold, D. & Sutcliffe, K.M. 1990. 'Studying changes in organisational design and effectiveness: retrospective event histories and periodic assessments'. In: Huber, G.P. and Van de Ven, A.H. eds. *Longitudinal field research methods: Studying processes of organisational change*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage:126-154.
- Gloor, P. 1997. *The temporal lobe and limbic system*. Oxford University Press.
- Godnig, E.C. 2003. 'The tachistoscope: its history and uses', *Journal of Behavioral Optometry*, 14:39-42.
- Golafshani, N. 2003. 'Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research'. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4):597-607.
- Goldman, S.L., Kraemer, D.T. & Salovey, P. 1996. 'Beliefs about mood moderate the relationship of stress to illness and symptom reporting', *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 41(2):115-128.
- Goldsmith, M. and Reiter, M. 2007. *What got you here won't get you there*. New York: Hyperion.
- Goleman, D. 1995. *Emotional intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. 1998. *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. 2003. *Destructive emotions*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. 2006. *Social intelligence: the new science of human relationships*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. and Boyatzis, R. 2008. 'Social intelligence and the biology of leadership', *Harvard Business Review*, September:74-81.
- Goodheart, G. 2008. 'About George Goodheart', *International College of Applied Kinesiology*, Archived from the original, March 18.
- Gordon, E., Barnett, K.J., Cooper, N.J., Tran, N. & Williams, L.M. 2008. 'An integrative neuroscience platform: application to profiles of negativity and positivity bias', *Journal of Integrative Neuroscience*, 7(3):345-366.
- Gordon, E. 2013. 'Neuroleadership and integrative neuroscience: "It's about validation, stupid!" In: Rock.D. and Ringleb, A.H. eds. *Handbook of Neuroleadership*. Neuroleadership Institute.



- Gordon, E. and Williams, L. 2008. 'An integrative neuroscience platform: applications to profiles of negativity and positivity bias', *Journal of Integrative Neuroscience*, 7(3):345-366.
- Goswami, A. 1990. 'Contemporary models of consciousness: part I', *Journal of mind behaviour*:407-420.
- Goulding, C. 2002. *Grounded theory: a practical guide for management, business and market researchers*, London: Sage.
- Govender, K. and Killian, B.J. 2001. 'The psychological effects of chronic violence on children living in South African townships', *South African Journal of Psychology*, 31:1-11.
- Govinda, K. 2002. *A handbook of chakra healing: spiritual practice for health, harmony and inner peace*. Old Saybrook, CT: Konecky and Konecky.
- Grady, J. and Grady, V. 2011. 'Organisational mistrust: exploring the issues, pondering its fate...', *Organisational and Social Dynamics*, 11(1):41-58.
- Graham-Pole, J. 2001. 'The creative arts: what role do they play?' In: Shannon, S. Ed. *Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health*, Academic Press.
- Grant, R.M. 2008. *Contemporary strategy analysis*, 6<sup>th</sup> edition. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Graves, C.W. 1974. 'Human nature prepares for a momentous leap', *The Futurist*, April:72-87.
- Graves, C.W. 1978. *Up the existential staircase: seminar on the development, nature, meaning and management of the levels of existence*. The emergent, cyclical, double helix model of adult human psychosocial coping systems. Canada.
- Greenwood, R. and Hinings, C.R. 1988. 'Organisational design types, tracks and the dynamic of strategic change', *Organisation Studies*, 9(3):293–316.
- Grinberg-Zylberbaum, J. 1988. *Creation of experience*. Mexico: INPEC.
- Grinberg-Zylberbaum, J., Delaflor, M., Attie, L., and Goswami, A. 1994. 'The Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen Paradox in the brain: the transferred potential'. *Physics Essays*, 6:422-426.
- Grof, S. and Bennett, H. 1992. *The holotropic mind: the three levels of human consciousness and how they shape our lives*. Pennsylvania: Harper Collins.

- Grof, S. 2003. 'Physical manifestations of emotional disorders: observations from the study of non-ordinary states of consciousness', In: Taylor, K. ed. *Exploring holotropic breathwork: selected articles from a decade of the inner door*. San Francisco: Hanford Mead.
- Grof, S. 2013. *Holotropic breathing technique used in holotropic breathwork workshops* [online].  
Available from: <<http://holotropicbreathworkla.com/>>  
[\[Accessed 10 July 2014\]](#).
- Gross, J.J. and John, O.P. 2003. 'Individual differences in two emotion regulating processes: Implications for affect, relationships and well-being', *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 85(2):348-362.
- Grossman, P., Nieman, L., Schmidt, S. & Walach, H. 2004. 'Health related benefits of mindfulness-based stress reduction: a meta-analysis', *Journal of Psychosomatic research*, 57:35-43.
- Guba, E. and Lincoln Y.S. 1988. 'Do inquiry paradigms imply inquiry methodologies?' In: Fetterman, D.M. ed. *Qualitative approach to evaluation education*. New York:88-115.
- Guba, E. and Lincoln, Y.S. 1989. *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Guillory, W.A. 2007. 'The future perfect organisation: leadership for the twenty-first century – part I', *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 39(1):52-58.
- Guo, L.C. and Sanchez, Y. 2005. 'Workplace communication', *Organizational Behavior in Health Care*, edited by Borkowski. Jones and Bartlett:77-110.
- Hackett, M. 2009. 'Commentary: trauma and female inmates: why is witnessing more traumatic?' *Journal of American Academic Psychiatry Law*, 37(3):310–315.
- Haines, S., Aller-Stead, G. & Mckinlay, J. 2005. *Enterprise wide change - superior results through systems thinking*. San Francisco: Wiley.
- Halaweh, M. 2012. 'Integration of grounded theory and case study: an exemplary application from e-commerce security perception research', *Journal of Information Technology Theory and Application*, 13(1):31-51.
- Halbesleben, J.R.B. and Buckley, M.R. 2004. 'Burnout in organisational life', *Journal of Management*, 30:859-879.

- Hales, C. 2005. 'Rooted in supervision, branching into management: continuity and change in the role of first-line manager', *Journal of Management Studies*, 42(3):471-506.
- Hall, G.S. 1899. 'A study of anger', *American Journal of Psychology*, 10:543.
- Hallencreutz, J. and Turner, D.M. 2011. 'Exploring organisational change best practice: are there any clear-cut models and definitions?' *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences*, 3(1):60-68.
- Handy, C. 1995. *The empty raincoat: making sense of the future*. London: Arrow Books.
- Hannan, M.T. and Freeman, J. 1989. *Organizational ecology*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Hannan, M.T., Baron, J.N., Hsu, G. & Koğcak, Ö. 2006. 'Organizational identities and the hazard of change', *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 15:755-784.
- Hanson, R. 2004. *Law of attraction for business*. Victoria BC, Canada: Rebecca Hanson.
- Hansson, A., Vingard, E., Arnetz, B.B. & Anderzen, I. 2008. 'Organisational change, health, and sick leave among health care employees: a longitudinal study measuring stress markers, individual, and work site factors'. *Work and Stress*, 22:69-80.
- Hardy, C. and Thomas, R. 2014. 'Strategy, discourse and practice: the intensification of power', *Journal of Management Studies*, 51(2):320-348.
- Harman, W. and Rheingold, H. 1984. *Higher creativity: liberating the unconscious for breakthrough insights*. Los Angeles.
- Harner, M. 1963. *Hallucinogens and shamanism*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Harner, M. 1982. *The way of the shaman*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Hartig, T., Mang, M. & Evans, G.W. 1991. 'Restorative effects of natural environmental experiences', *Environment and Behaviour*, 23:3-26.
- Harung, H., Travis, F., Blank, W. & Heaton, D. 2009. 'Higher development, brain integration, and excellence in leadership', *Management Decision*, 47(6):872-894.
- Harvie, R. 1963. 'Probability and serendipity'. In: Hardy, A., Harvie, R & Koestler, A. eds. *The challenge of chance*. London: Hutchinson.
- Hassed, D. 2013. 'Mindfulness, well-being, and performance'. In: Rock, D. and Ringleb, A. eds. *Handbook of Neuroleadership*, Neuroleadership Institute.

- Hatum, A. and Pettigrew, A. 2004. 'Adaptation under environmental turmoil: organizational flexibility in family-owned firms', *Family Business Review*, 17: 237-58.
- Hawkins, D.R. 2005. *Map of the scale of consciousness, transcending the levels of consciousness* [online].  
Available from:  
<[Satsang Series #6: November 8, 2006 \(Held at the Sedona Creative Life Center in Sedona, Arizona\)](#)>  
[Accessed 19 October, 2014].
- Hawkins, D.R. 2009. *The key to happiness – map of consciousness* [online].  
Available from: <<http://happy-firewalker.blogspot.com/2009/06/>>  
[Accessed 10 July 2014].
- Hayles, N.K. 1991. *Chaos bound: orderly disorder in contemporary literature and science*, Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Hedden, T. and Gabrieli, J.D.E. 2006. 'The ebb and flow of attention in the human brain', *Nature Neuroscience*, 9(7):863-865.
- Heifetz, R., Grashow, A. & Linsky, M. 2009. 'Leadership in a (permanent) crisis', *Harvard Business Review*, 87(7/8):62-69.
- Hekkala, R. 2007. 'Grounded theory—the two faces of the methodology and their manifestation in IS research', Proceedings of the 30th Information Systems Research Seminar in Scandinavia IRIS, Tampere, Finland, 11–14. August.
- Heller, D. and Heller, L. 1977. *Treatment of automobile accident trauma* [online].  
Available from: <[http://www.traumahealing.com/art\\_Auto.html](http://www.traumahealing.com/art_Auto.html)>  
[Accessed 20 May 2014].
- Helms Mills, J., Dye, K. & Mills, A.J. 2009. *Understanding organizational change*, London: Routledge.
- Henry, R.C. 2005. 'The mental universe', *Nature*, 43(6/6) July.
- Hicks, E. and Hicks, J. 2006. *The law of attraction*, Carlsbad, CA: Hay House.
- Hiley, B.J. and Pylkkänen, P. 2005. 'Can mind affect matter via active information?' *Mind and Matter*, 3(2):6-26.
- Hind, P., Wilson, A. and Lenssen, G. 2009. 'Developing leaders for sustainable businesses', *Corporate Governance*, 9(1):7-20.
- Hoflund, A.B. 2013. 'Exploring the use of grounded theory as methodological approach to examine the “black box” of network leadership in the national

- quality forum', *Journal of Health and Human Services Administration*, 35(4):469-504
- Hogan, R. 2007. *Personality and the fate of organisations*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Holland, J.H. 1998. *Hidden order*, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hollis, J. 2013. *Hauntings*. Asheville: Chiron.
- Holloway, I. and Wheeler, S. 2002. *Qualitative research in nursing*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Science.
- Holmes, T.H. and Rahe, R.H. 1967. 'The social readjustment rating scale', *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 11(2):213-218.
- Holt, D., Armenakis, A., Field, H. & Harris, S. 2007. 'Readiness for organizational change: the systematic development of a scale', *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43:232-252.
- Holton, J.A. 2009. 'Qualitative tussles in undertaking a grounded theory study', *The Grounded Theory Review*, 8(3):37-49.
- Holton, J.A. 2012. 'The coding process and its challenges', In: Bryant, A. and Charmaz, K. eds. *The Sage handbook of grounded theory*:265-289.
- Hölzel, B. K., Carmody, J., Vangel, M., Congleton, C., Yerramsetti, S. M., Gard, T. & Lazar, S. W. 2011. 'Mindfulness practice leads to increases in regional brain gray matter density', *Psychiatry Research: Neuroimaging*, 191(1):36-43.
- Honorton, C. and Ferrari, D.C. 1989. "'Future telling": a meta-analysis of forced-choice precognition experiments, 1935-1986', *Journal of Parapsychology*, 53: 281-308.
- Hopson, B. and Adams, J. 1966. 'Towards an understanding: defining some boundaries of transition dynamics', In: Adams, J., Hayes, J. & Hopson, B. eds. *Transition: understanding and managing personal change*. London: Martin Robertson.
- House, R.J. 1995. 'Leadership in the twenty-first century: a speculative inquiry', In: Howard, A. ed., *The Changing Nature of Work*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Houtkooper, J.M. 2002. 'Arguing for an observational theory of paranormal phenomena', *Journal of Scientific Exploration*, 16(2):161-185.
- Hsu, G. and Hannan, M.T. 2005. 'Identities, genres, and organizational forms', *Organization Science*, 16:474-490.

- Huang, H-M. 2007. *Family care of Taiwanese patients who had attempted suicide: a grounded theory study* [online].  
Available from: <[www.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111](http://www.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111)>  
[Accessed 20 May 2014].
- Hudson, L.A. and Ozanne, J.L. 1988. 'Alternative Ways of Seeking Knowledge in Consumer Research', *Journal of Consumer Research*:508-521.
- Hughes, R.L., Ginnett, R.C. & Curphy, G.J. 2009. *Leadership: enhancing the lessons of experience*. 6<sup>th</sup> edition. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.
- Hugly, P. and Sayward, C. 1987. 'Relativism and ontology', *Philosophical Quarterly*, 37(148):278-290.
- Hultman, K. and Gellermann, B. 2002. *Balancing individual and organizational values: walking the tightrope to success*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer.
- Huy, Q.N. 1999. 'Emotional capability, emotional intelligence, and radical change', *Academy of Management Review*, 24:325-345.
- Huy, Q.N. 2001. 'Time, temporal capability, and planned change', *Academy of Management Review*, 26:601-623.
- Huy, Q.N. 2002. 'Emotional balancing of organizational continuity and radical change: the contribution of middle managers', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47(1):31-69.
- Iacoboni, M. 2008. *Mirroring people: the new science of how we connect with others*. New York: Farrar, Strauss & Giroux.
- Iacoboni, M. and McHaney, R.W. 2013. 'Applying empathy and mirror neuron concepts to neuroleadership', In: Rock, D. and Ringleb, A. eds. *NeuroLeadership*.
- Ilardi, S., Rand, K., and Karwoski, L. 2006. 'The cognitive neuroscience perspective allows us to understand abnormal behaviour at multiple levels of complexity'. In: Lillienfeld, S. and O'Donohue, T. eds. *The great ideas of Clinical Science. 16 principles that every mental health professional should understand*. New York: Routledge:243-261.
- Imberman, W. 2003. 'What's your ROI on human assets?' *The Magazine of Foundry Management and Technology*. April:35-37.
- Irny, S.I. and Rose, A.A. 2005. 'Designing a strategic information systems planning methodology for Malaysian institutes of higher learning (isp- ipta)', *Issues in Information System*, VI(1):2005.



- Irwin, H.J. and Watt, C.A. 2006. *Introduction to Parapsychology*. 5<sup>th</sup> edition. Jefferson, NC: McFarland.
- Isabella, L. 1990. 'Evolving interpretations as a change unfolds: how managers construe key organizational events', *Academy of Management Journal*, 33:7–41.
- Isen, A. 1986. 'Positive affect, cognitive processes, and social behavior', *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 20:203-253.
- Isen, A. 1999. Positive affect. In: Dalgleish, T. and Power, M. eds. *Handbook of cognition and emotion*. New York: Wiley.
- Isen, A. M., Daubman, K. A., & Nowicki, G. P. 1986. 'Positive affect facilitates creative problem solving', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(6):1122-1131.
- Isern, J. and Pung, C. 2007. 'Harnessing energy to drive organisational change', *McKinsey Quarterly*, 1:1-4.
- Ito, T.A., Larsen, J.T., Smith, N.K., & Cacioppo, J.T. 1998. 'Negative information weighs more heavily on the brain: the negativity bias in evaluative categorizations'. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(4):886-900.
- Iyengar, B.K.S. 1969. *Light on yoga*. New York: Schocken Books.
- Jackson, S.J. 2000. 'A qualitative evaluation of shared leadership barriers, drivers and recommendation', *Journal of Management in Medicine*, 14(3):166-178.
- Jahn, R.G. 1982. 'The persistent paradox of psychic phenomena: An engineering perspective', *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 60(2).
- Jamal, M. 1985. 'Relationship of job stress to job performance: a study of managers and blue-collar workers', *Human Relations*, 5:409–424.
- Jamali, D., Khoury, G. & Sahyoun, H. 2006. 'From bureaucratic organizations to learning organizations: an evolutionary roadmap', *The Learning Organization*, 13(4):337-352.
- James, W. 1890. *The principles of psychology*. New York: Henry Holt.
- James, M. and Johnson, D.R. 1997. 'Drama therapy in the treatment of combat-related post-traumatic stress disorder', *The Arts in Psychotherapy*, 23(5):383-395.
- Jewkes, R. 2002. 'Intimate partner violence causes and prevention', *Lancet*, 359 (9315):1423-1429.



- Jimmieson, N.L., Terry, D.J. and Callan, V.J. 2004. 'A longitudinal study of employee adaptation to organisational change: the role of change-related Information and change-related self-efficacy', *Journal of Occupational health Psychology*, 9(1):11-27.
- Johansen-Berg, H. 2009. 'Juggling enhances connections in the brain', *Nature Neuroscience*, 12:1360-1361, Oxford University Press. [online]. Available from: <[http://www.ox.ac.uk/media/news\\_releases\\_for\\_journalists/](http://www.ox.ac.uk/media/news_releases_for_journalists/)> [Accessed 24 June 2014].
- Johansson, C. and Heide, M. 2008. 'Speaking of change: three communication approaches in studies or organizational change', *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 13(3):288-305.
- Jolij, J. and Meurs, M. 2011. 'Music alters visual perception', *PLoS ONE*, 6(4):18861.
- Jones, E., Watson, B., Gardner, J. & Gallois, C. 2004. 'Organizational communication: challenges for the new century', *Journal of Communication*, 54:722-750.
- Jones, L., Watson, B., Hobman, E., Bordia, P., Gallois, C. & Callan, V.J. 2008. 'Employee perceptions of organizational change: impact of hierarchical level', *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 29(4):294-316.
- Jones, C. and O'Doherty, D. 2005. *Manifestos for the business school of tomorrow*, London: Dvalin Books.
- Josipovic Z. 2010. 'Duality and nonduality in meditation research', *Conscious Cognition*, 19:1119-1121.
- Josipovic, Z. 2013. 'Freedom of the mind', *Frontiers in Perception Science*, 4:538.
- Judge, W. and Douglas, T. 2009. 'Organisational change capacity: the systematic development of a scale', *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 22(6):635-649.
- Judge, T.A., Thoresen, C.J., Pucik, V. & Welbourne, T.M. 1999. 'Managerial coping with organisational change: a dispositional perspective', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84:107-122.
- Judson, A.S. 1991. *Changing behaviour in organizations: minimizing resistance to change*. Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell.
- Jung, C.G. 1953. *Collected works*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Jung, C.G. 1959. *The archetypes and the collective unconscious*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Translated by R.F.C. Hull. London: Routledge.

- Jung, C.G. 1961. *Psychological types*. A revision by R.F.C. Hull of the translation by H.G. Baynes. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Jung, C.G. 1966. *Collected works of C.G. Jung*. Translated by Hull, RFC. Princeton, NJ: Random House, Princeton University Press.
- Jung, C.G. 1971. *Psychological types*. A revision by R.F.C. Hull of the translation by H.G. Baynes. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Jung, C.G. 1983. *Memories, dreams, reflections*. London: Flamingo.
- Jung, C.G. 1990. *Man and his symbols*. London: Arkana.
- Kabat-Zinn, J., Lipworth, L. & Burney, R. 1985. 'The clinical use of mindfulness meditation for the self-regulation of chronic pain', *Journal of Behavioural medicine*, 8(2):163-190.
- Kaisler, S.H. and Madey, G. 2009. Complex adaptive systems: emergence and self-organisation. Tutorial presented at HICSS-42, University of Notre Dame, Big Island, Hawaii.
- Kaje, R. 1977. 'Bringing the feminine into forecasting: foreseeing and learning', In: *Futures Research: New Directions*, Linstone, H.A. and Simmonds, W.H.C. eds. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Kakabadse, A. and Korac-Kakabadse, N. 1999. *Essence of leadership*. London: International Thomson.
- Kakigi, R., Nakata, H., Inui, K., Hiroe, N., Nagata, O., Honda, M., Tanaka, S., Sadato, N. & Kawakami, M. 2005. 'Intracerebral pain processing in a yoga master who claims not to feel pain during meditation', *European Journal of Pain*, 9:581-589.
- Kaminer D., Grimsrud, A., Myer, L., Stein, D.J. & Williams, D.R. 2008. 'Risk for posttraumatic stress disorder associated with different forms of interpersonal violence in South Africa', *Social Sciences Medicine*, 67(10):1589–1595.
- Kanter, R.M., Stein, B.A., & Jick, T.D. 1992. *The challenge of organizational change: how companies experience it and leaders guide it*. New York: Free Press.
- Kanungo, R.N. and Mendonca, M. 1996. *Ethical dimensions of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kaplan, R.S. and Norton, D.P. 2006. *Alignment: using the balanced score card to create corporate synergies*. Boston, MA: HBS Press Book.

- Kärreman, D. and Alvesson, M. 2009. 'Resistance to change: counter-resistance, consent and compliance in a consultancy firm', *Human Relations*, 62(8):1115-1144.
- Kasl, S. 1984. 'Stress and Health'. *Annual Review of Public Health*. 5: 319-341.
- Kataria, M. 2002. *Laugh For No Reason*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition Madhuri International. India.
- Kataria, M. 2013a. *Allergy and asthma – laughter yoga international*. [online].  
Available from: <[Laughteryoga.org](http://Laughteryoga.org)>  
[Accessed 16 July 2014].
- Kataria, M. 2013b. *Laughter yoga and arthritis – laughter yoga international*. [online].  
Available from: < [Laughteryoga.org](http://Laughteryoga.org) >  
[Accessed 16 July 2014].
- Kataria, M. 2013c. *Laughter yoga checks diabetes – laughter yoga international*. [online].  
Available from: < [Laughteryoga.org](http://Laughteryoga.org) >  
[Accessed 16 July 2014].
- Kataria, M. 2013d. *Laughter yoga for healing – laughter yoga international*. [online].  
Available from: < [Laughteryoga.org](http://Laughteryoga.org) >  
[Accessed 16 July 2014].
- Katz, R. 1982. *Boiling Energy*. *Ethos*, 10:344-368,  
doi: 10.1525/eth.1982.10.4.02a00050.
- Katz, R., Biesele, M. & St. Denis, V. 1997. *Healing makes our hearts happy: Spirituality and Cultural Transformation among the Kalahari Ju|'hoansi*, Inner Traditions, Bear & Co.
- Kauffman, S.A. 1998a. *At home in the universe*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Kauffman, S.A. 1998b. *The origins of order: self-organisation and selection in evolution*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ke, J. and Wenglesky, S. 2010. 'Grounded theory – handout', February.[online].  
Available from: <[http://www. Anatgarde-jing.blogspot.com/2010/03/grounded-theory.html](http://www.Anatgarde-jing.blogspot.com/2010/03/grounded-theory.html)>  
[Accessed 13 December 2013].
- Keeney, B. 2006. *Shaking medicine. the healing power of ecstatic movement*. South Africa, Destiny Books.
- Kelly, E.F., Kelly. E.W., Crabtree, A., Gauld, A., Grosso, M. & Greyson, B. 2007. *Irreducible mind: towards a psychology for the 21<sup>st</sup> century*, Rowman & Littlefield.

- Kelly, E.F. 2010, 'Introduction'. In: Kelly, E.F., Kelly, E.W., Crabtree, A., Gauld, A., Grosso, M. & Greyson, B. eds. *Irreducible mind: towards a psychology for the 21<sup>st</sup> century*, Rowman & Littlefield.
- Kemery, E.R., Bedeian, A.G., Mossholder, K.W. & Touliatos, J. 1985. 'Role stress, physical symptomatology, and turnover intentions: a causal analysis of three alternative specifications', *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 8:11–23.
- Kemper, T.D. 1984. 'Power, status and emotions: A sociological contribution to a psychophysiological domain', In: Schere, K.R. and Ekman, P. Hillsdale, N.J. eds. *Approaches to emotion*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kessler, R.C., Sonnega, A., Bromet, E., Hughes, M. & Nelson, C.B. 1995. 'Posttraumatic stress disorder in the national comorbidity survey', *Arch Gen Psychiatry*, 52(12):1048–1060.
- Kets De Vries, M.F.R. 2001a. *The leadership mystique*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Kets De Vries, M.F.R. 2001b. 'Creating authentic organizations: well functioning individuals in vibrant companies', *Human Relations*, 54 (1):101-111.
- Kets De Vries, M.F.R. and Engellau, E. 2011. 'A clinical approach to the dynamics of leadership and executive transformation', *Harvard Business Review*, Unpublished. Presented at the colloquium, Leadership: Advancing an Intellectual Discipline.
- Kettinger, W., Teng, J., & Guha, S. 1997. 'Business process change: a study of methodologies, techniques, and tools', *MIS Quarterly*, 21(1).
- Keyes, C.L.M. 2002. 'The mental health continuum: from languishing to flourishing in life', *Journal of Health and Social Research*, 43:207–222.
- Khan, A.A. 2014. 'Qualitative Research: A case for a multi-angle view to enhance validity', *International Journal of Business and Management*, 9(9):29-40.
- Kibler, T.E. and Rider, M.S. 1983. 'Effects of progressive muscle relaxation and music on stress as measured by finger temperature response', *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 39(2):213-215.
- Kiefer, T. 2005. 'Understanding the emotional experience of organizational change: evidence from a merger', *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4:39–61.
- Kim, J. 1999. 'Re-thinking organisational stress: the transition to the new employment age', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 14(7/8):545-557.
- Kim, E.Y. 2006. *The Yin Yang of American culture: a paradox*. [online].

Available from: <<http://www.yinyangamerica.com>>

[Accessed 28 October 2014].

- Kinkade, T. 2002. 'Sharing the light', *American Artist*, April.
- Kinnear, C. and Roodt, G. 1998. 'The development of an instrument for measuring organisational inertia', *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 24(2):44-54.
- Kirschbaum, C. and Hellhammer, D. 1994. 'Salivary cortisol in psychoneuroendocrine research: recent developments and applications'. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*, 19:313-333.
- Klein, S. 2002. *The science of happiness*. New York: Avalon.
- Knapp, N. 1997. 'Interviewing Joshua: on the importance of leaving room for serendipity', *Qualitative Inquiry*, 3(3):326-342.
- Knoche, H. B. 2006. 'The emergence of organizational change: a nonlinear dynamical systems perspective'. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, S1–S6.
- Kobasa, S.C. 1979. 'Stressful life events, personality, and health – inquiry into hardiness', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37(1):1-11.
- Koch, L. 1981. *The psaos book*, Felton, CA: Guinea Pig.
- Korzybski, A. 1933. *Science and sanity: an introduction to non-Aristotelian systems and general semantics*. Lancaster, PA: International Non-Aristotelian Library.
- Kotter, J.P. 1995. 'Leading change: Why transformational efforts fail', *Harvard Business Review*, March/April:59-67.
- Kotter, J.P. 1996. *Leading change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kotter, J.P. 2008. *A sense of urgency*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Krone, K.J., Jablin, F.M. and Putnam, L.L. 1987. 'Communication theory and organizational communication: multiple perspectives', In: Jablin, F.M., Putnam, L.L., Roberts, K.H. & Porter, L.W. eds. *Handbook of Organizational Communication*, Newbury Park, CA:Sage:18-40.
- Krucoff, M.W., Crater, S.W., Gallup, D., Blankenship, J.C., Cuffe, M., Guarneri, M., Krieger, R.A., Kshetry, V.R., Morris, K., Oz, M., Pichard, A., Sketch Jr, M.A., Koenig, H.G., Mark, D., & Lee, K.L. 2005. 'Music, imagery, touch, and prayer as adjuncts to interventional cardiac care: the monitoring of noetic trainings (mantra) II randomised study', *Lancet*, 366: 211-216.
- Krueger, D.A. and Casey, M.C. 2000. *Focus groups: a practical guide for applied research*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Thousand Oaks, CA:Sage.

- Kubitz, K., Landers, D., Petruzzello, S. & Han, M. 1996. 'The effects of acute and chronic exercise on sleep', *Sports Medicine*, 21:277-291.
- Kübler-Ross, E. 1963: *On death and dying*. New York: MacMillan.
- Lake, J. 2001. 'Qigong', In: Shannon, S. ed. *Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health*, Academic Press.
- Lam, C.S. and O'Higgins, E.R.E. 2011. 'Enhancing employee outcomes: the interrelated influences of managers' emotional intelligence and leadership style', *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal*, 33(2):149-174.
- Landers, D. 2002. *The influence of exercise on mental health*. Research Digest. Series 2(12).[online].  
Available from: <<http://www.fitness.gov/mentalhealth.htm>>  
[Accessed 20 April 2014].
- Landeweerd, J.A. and Boumans, N.P.G. 1994. 'The effect of work dimensions and need for autonomy on nurses work satisfaction and health', *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 67:207–217.
- Lang, P.J. 1977. 'Imagery in therapy: an information processing analysis of fear', *Behaviour Therapy*, 8:862-886.
- Latener, T. and Leon, M. 2005. *The illustrated encyclopedia of Confucianism*, vol 12, New York: Rosen.
- Lattuch, F. and Young, S. 2010. 'Young professionals' perceptions toward organisational change', *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 32(6):605-627.
- Laubscher, L. 2011. Notes on the value systems and South Africa value circles. Unpublished.
- Laubscher, L. 2013 Human niches – spiral dynamics for Africa. Unpublished Doctoral thesis. The Da Vinci Institute for Technology Management. Johannesburg.
- Laubscher, L. 2014. Human niche expert. Personal interview, Johannesburg, 16 July.
- Laurin, D., Verreault, R., Lindsay, J., MacPherson, K. & Rockwood, K. 2001. 'Physical activity and risk of cognitive impairment and dementia in elderly persons', *Archives of Neurology*, 58:498-504.



- Lawrence, S.A. and Callan, V.J. 2011. 'The role of social support in coping during the anticipatory stage of organisational change: A test of an integrative model', *British Journal of Management*, 22:567-585.
- Lazar, S. 2009. *Neuroplasticity: Your brain's amazing ability to form new habits*. 4 April 2009. [online].  
Available from: <[www.refocuser.com/2009/05/neuroplasticity](http://www.refocuser.com/2009/05/neuroplasticity)>  
[Accessed 12 July 2014].
- Lazar, S. 2014. *Yoga and meditation can reshape your brain*. [online].  
Available from: <[www.spiritscience.net](http://www.spiritscience.net)>  
[Accessed 5 November 2014].
- Lazar, S.W., Kerr, C.E., Wasserman, R.H., Gray, J.R., Greve, D.N., Treadway, M.T. & Fischl, B. 2005. 'Meditation experience is associated with increased cortical thickness'. *Neuroreport*, 16(16):1893-1896.
- Lazarus, R.S. 1991. *Emotion and adaptation*, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lazarus, R.S. and Folkman, S. 1984. *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Leaf, C.M., Louw, B. & Uys, I. 1997. 'The development of a model for Geodesic learning: The geodesic information processing model', *Suid Afrikaanse Tydskrif vir Kommunikasieafwykings*, 44: 53-70.
- Leaf, C. 2013. *Switch on your brain: The key to peak happiness, thinking, and health*. United States. Baker Books.
- Leana, C.R. and Barry, B. 2000. 'Stability and change as simultaneous experiences in organisational life', *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4):753–759.
- LeDoux, J. 1996. *The emotional brain: The mysterious underpinnings of emotional life*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- LeDoux, J. 1998. *The emotional brain: The mysterious underpinnings of emotional life*, New York: Simon & Schuster.
- LeDoux, J. 2002. *Synaptic self: how our brains become who we are*, New York: Viking.
- Lee, T.W. 1999. *Using qualitative methods in organisational research*. London & Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage.
- Lee, G.J. 2011. 'Mirror, mirror: preferred leadership characteristics of South African Managers', *International Journal of Manpower*, 32(2):211-232.



- Leedy, P.D. and Ormrod, J.E. 2008. *Practical research: planning and design*. 8<sup>th</sup> edition. Columbus, OH: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Le Fevre, M., Matheny, J. & Kolt, G.S. 2003. 'Eustress, distress and interpretation in occupational stress', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(7):726-744.
- Legewie, H. and Schervier-Legewie, B. 2004. *Research is hard work, it's always a bit suffering. therefore on the other side it should be fun*. Anselm Strauss in conversation with Heiner Legewie and Barbara Schervier-Legewie. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 5(3), Art. 22. [online].  
Available from: <<http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs0403222>>  
[Accessed 17 October 2013].
- Lempert, L.B. 2007. 'Cross race, cross culture, cross national, cross class, but same gender: musings on research in South Africa', *NWSA Journal*.
- Lempert, L.B. 2012. 'Asking questions of the data: memo writing in the grounded theory tradition', In: Bryant, A. and Charmaz, K. eds. *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory*. London: Sage:245-264.
- Lencionis, P. 2002. *The five dysfunctions of a team*. London: Wiley.
- Lenton, S.R. and Martin, P.R. 1991. 'The contribution of music vs instructions in the musical mood induction procedure', *Behavioural Resource Therapy*, 29(6):623-625.
- Leskowitz, E. 2001. 'Medical Intuition', In: Shannon, S. ed. *Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health*, Academic Press.
- Lessem, R. and Schieffer, A. 2010. *Integral research and innovation: transforming enterprise and society*. Aldershot, UK: Gower.
- Lessem, R. [S.a.]. *Excerpts from a summary of spiral dynamics*. Compiled by Lessem, R. Reader in International Management City University Business School, London. [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.spiraldynamics.com/book/LESMSmry.html>>  
[Accessed 29 Oct 2013].
- Levine, J. 1966. 'Humor as a form of therapy', In: Chapman, A.J. and Foot, N.D. eds. *It's a funny thing, humor*, New York: Cornell University Press.
- Levine, P. 1997. *Waking the tiger: healing trauma. The innate capacity to transform overwhelming experiences*. Berkeley, CA: North Atlantic Books.

- Levine, P. 2010. *In an unspoken voice: how the body releases trauma and restores goodness*. Berkeley, CA: North Atlantic Books.
- Lewin, K. 1951. *Field theory in social science*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Lewin, K. 1952. 'Frontiers in group dynamics'. In: Cartwright, D. ed. *Field Theory in Social Science: Selected Theoretical Papers by Kurt Lewin*, London: Tavistock:188-237.
- Lewis, L.K. 1999. 'Disseminating information and soliciting input during planned organizational change: implementers' targets, sources, and channels for communicating'. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 13:43-75.
- Lewis, L.K. 2000. "Blinded by that one" and "I saw that one coming": the relative anticipation and occurrence of communication problems and other problems in implementers' hindsight', *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 28:44-67.
- Lewis, L.K. 2006. 'Employee perspectives on implementation communication as predictors of perceptions of success and resistance', *Western Journal of Communication*, 70(1):23-46.
- Lewis, E., Romanaggi, D. & Chapple, A. 2010. 'Successfully managing change during uncertain times', *Strategic HR Review*, 9(2):12-18.
- Lewis, L.K. and Seibold, D.R. 1998. 'Reconceptualizing organizational change implementation as a communication problem: a review of literature and research agenda', In: Roloff, M.E. ed. *Communication yearbook 21*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage:21:93-151.
- Lieberman, M.D. and Eisenberger, N. 2013. 'The pains and pleasures of social life: a social-cognitive neuroscience approach', In: Rock, D. and Ringleb, A. eds. *Handbook of Neuroleadership*. Neuroleadership Institute.
- Lieberman, M.D., Eisenberger, N., Crockett, M., Tom, S., Pfeifer, J. & Way, B. 2007. 'Putting feelings into words: affect labelling disrupts amygdala activity in response to affective stimuli', *Psychological Science*, 18(5):421-428.
- Lillienfeld, S., and O'Donohue, W. 2006. *The great ideas of clinical science: 16 principles that every mental health professional should understand*. New York: Routledge.
- Lines, R. 2004. 'Influence of participation in strategic change: resistance, organizational commitment, and change goal achievement', *Journal of Change Management*, 4(3):193-215.

- Lippman, E. 1965. *Musical thought in ancient Greece*. New York: DaCapo.
- Liu, D. 1981. *The tao and Chinese culture*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Locke, K. 2001. *Grounded theory in Management Research*. London: Sage.
- Lockitt, B. 2004. *Change management* [online].  
Available from: <[www.learninglab.org.uk/papers/CHANGE\\_MANAGEMENT\\_3t.pdf](http://www.learninglab.org.uk/papers/CHANGE_MANAGEMENT_3t.pdf)>  
[Accessed 29 October 2013].
- Loftus, E. 1980. *Memory: surprising new insights into how we remember and why we forget*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Loh, S.Y., Than, W. & Quek, K.F. 2011. 'Occupational pressure: targeting organisational factors to ameliorate occupational dysfunction', *Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation*, 21:493-500.
- Losier, M. 2006. *Law of attraction*. Victoria, BC, Canada: Losier Enterprises.
- Luders, E., Toga, A. W., Lepore, N., & Gaser, C. 2009. 'The underlying anatomical correlates of long-term meditation: larger hippocampal and frontal volumes of gray matter', *Neuroimage*, 45(3):662-668.
- Luhmann, N. 1992. *Paradigm lost: uber die ethische reflexion der moral*, Frankfurt am Main. New York: Free Press.
- Luscher, L.S. and Lewis, M.W. 2008. 'Organisational change and managerial sensemaking: working through paradox', *Academy of Management Journal*, 51(2):221-240.
- Lussier, R.N. 2002. *Human relations in organizations: applications and skill building*. 5<sup>th</sup> edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Luu, P., Collins, P. & Tucker, D.M. 2000. 'Mood, personality, and self-monitoring: negative affect and emotionality in relation to frontal lobe mechanisms of error monitoring'. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 129:43-60.
- Mabin, V., Forgeson, S. & Green, L. 2001. 'Harnessing resistance: using the theory of constraints to assist change management', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 25(2-4):168-191.
- MacDonald, R. 2014. *Overcoming self-imposed limitations: mind training strategies from Gym Jones*. [online].  
Available from: <<http://breakingmuscle.com/oped/overcoming-self-imposed-limitations-mind-training-strategies-from-gym-jones>>  
[Accessed 16 July 2014].

- MacLean, P. 1997. 'The Brain and subjective Experience: Question of multilevel role of resonance', *Journal of Mind and Behaviour*, 18(2/3):247-268.
- MacLean, K.A., Ferrer, E., Aichele, S.R., Bridwell, D.A., Zanesco, A.P., Jacobs, T.L., King, B.G., Rosenberg, E.L., Sahdra, B.K., Shaver, P.R., Wallace, B.A., Mangun, G.R. & Saron, C.D. 2010. 'Intensive meditation training improves perceptual discrimination and sustained attention', *Psychological Science*, 21:829-839.
- Maddi, S.R. 2006. 'Hardiness: The courage to grow from stresses', *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 1(3):160-168.
- Madu, S.N., Ndom, J.E. & Ramashia, C.L. 2010. 'Depression among female survivors of domestic violence in Thohoyandou, South Africa', *Gender and Behaviour*, 8(1):2872-2885.
- Maes, G. and van Hootegem, G. 2011. 'Toward a dynamic description of the attributes of organisational change', *Research in Organisational Change and Development*, 19:191-231.
- Maitlis, S. and Lawrence, T.B. 2007. 'Triggers and enablers of sensegiving in organisations', *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(1):57-84.
- Manne, S.L., Taylor, K.L., Dougherty, J. & Kemeny, N. 1997. 'Supportive and negative responses in the partner relationship: Their association with psychological adjustment among individuals with cancer', *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 20:101-125.
- Marks, M.L. 2003. *Charging back up the hill: workplace recovery after mergers, acquisitions, and downsizings*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Marrow, A.J. 1969. *The practical theorist: the life and work of Kurt Lewin*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Marshak, R.J. 2002. 'Changing the language of change: how new contexts and concepts are challenging the ways we think and talk about organisational change', *Strategic Change*, 11:279-286.
- Marshall, C. and Rossman, G.B. 1999. *Designing qualitative research*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. London: Sage.
- Martin, A., Jones, E. & Callan, V. 2006. 'Status differences in employee adjustment during organisational change', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(2):145–162.

- Martino, J. 2014. *What happens to your brain when you meditate*. Wakingtimes. [online].  
Available from: <<http://consciouslifeneeds.com/happens-brain-when-meditate-neuroscientist-explains/1164389/>>  
[Accessed 19 June 2014].
- Maslach, C.A. and Jackson, S.E. 1981. 'The measurement of experienced burnout', *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 2:99-113.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W.B. & Leiter, M.P. 2001. 'Job burnout', *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52:397-422.
- Mason, L.I. and Orme-Johnson, D.W. 2010. 'Transcendental consciousness wakes up in dreaming and deep sleep', *International Journal of Dream Research*.3: 28-32.
- Massironi, C. and Guicciardi, M. 2011. 'Investment decision making from a constructivist perspective', *Qualitative research in financial markets*, 3(3):158-176.
- Masters, K.S. and Spielmanns, G.I. 2007. 'Prayer and health: review, meta-analysis and research agenda', *Journal of Behavioural Medicine*, 30:329-338.
- Mathers, C.D., Vos, E.T., Stevenson, C.E. & Begg, S.J. 2000. 'The Australian burden of disease study: measuring the loss of health from diseases, injuries and risk factors', *Medical Journal of Australia*, 172(12):592-596.
- Mathews, S., Abrahams, N., Martin, L. J., Vetten, L., Van der Merwe, L. & Jewkes, R. 2004. 'Every six hours a woman is killed by her intimate partner: A national study of female homicide in South Africa', *MRC Policy Brief*.
- Matteson, M.T. and Ivancevich, J.M. 1979. 'Organizational stressors and heart disease: a research model', *Academy of Management Review*, 4:347-357.
- Matthews, V. 1995. 'It'll send you off your trolley', *Marketing Week*, 11 August.
- Matthews, G. and Campbell, S.E. 2010. 'Dynamic relationships between stress states and working memory', *Cognition and Emotion*, 24(2):357-373.
- Mayer, E.A. 2000. 'The neurobiology of stress and gastrointestinal disease', *Gut*, 47:861.
- Mayer, E.L. 2008. *Extraordinary knowing: science, skepticism, and the inexplicable powers of the human mind*. New York: Bantam Books.

- Mayosi, B.M., Lwan, J.E., van Niekerk, A., Bradshaw, D., Karim, S.S.A. & Coovadia, H. 2012. *Health in South Africa: changes and challenges since 2009*. Lancet, 2012:380:2029-2043. [online].  
Available from: <[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(12\)61814-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(12)61814-5)>  
[Accessed 2 June 2014].
- Mbigi, L. 2000: 'Managing social capital', *Training and Development*, 1:36-40.
- McAllister, M. and McKinnon, J. 2009. 'The importance of teaching and learning resilience in the health disciplines: a critical review of the literature', *Nurse Education Today*, 29:371-379.
- McCann, T. 2011. 'An evaluation of the effects of a training programme in Trauma Release Exercises on Quality of Life', Unpublished MA dissertation. University of Cape Town. Cape Town.
- McCraty, R., Atkinson, M., Tiller, W.A., Rein, G. & Watkins, A. 1995.' The effects of emotions on short term heart rate variability using power spectrum analysis', *American Journal of Cardiology*, 66:1089-1093.
- McCraty, R., Atkinson, M. & Bradley, R.T. 2004a. 'Electrophysiological evidence of Intuition. Part I. The surprising role of the heart', *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary medicine*, 10(1):133-143.
- McCraty, R., Atkinson, M. & Bradley, R.T. 2004b. 'Electrophysiological evidence of Intuition. part II. A system-wide process?', *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary medicine*, 10(2):325-336.
- McEwan, B.S. 2004. 'Protection and damage from acute and chronic stress: Allostasis and allostatic overload and relevance of the pathophysiology of psychiatric disorders', *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, USA 1032:1-7.
- McGuire, D. and Hutchings, K. 2006. 'A Machiavellian analysis of organisational change', *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 19(2):192-209.
- McLeod, R. 2002.'A model for cultural change in schools: an evaluation of some learning organisation methodologies', Paper presented at the 20<sup>th</sup> international conference in systems dynamics society. Palermo, Italy.
- McMurray, M. 1988. *Illuminations: The healing image*. Berkeley, CA: Winglow.
- Mead, V. 2004. 'A new model for understanding the role of environmental factors in the origins of chronic illness: a case study of type 1 diabetes mellitus', *Medical Hypotheses*. 63:1035-1046.



- Meaney, M., O'Donnell, D., Rowe, W., Tannenbaum, B., Silverman, A. & Walker, M. 1995. 'Individual differences in hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal activity in later life and hippocampal aging', *Experimental Gerontology*, 30:299-251.
- Meaney, M. and Pung, C. 2008. 'McKinsey global results: creating organisational transformations', *The McKinsey Quarterly*, August, 1–7.
- Merriam, S.B. 1998. *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*, San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam-Webster dictionary*. 2013. [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.merriam-webster.com>>  
[Accessed 22 October 2013].
- Meyer, A.D., Bettenhausen, K.R. & Tayler, B.B. 1993. 'Organisations reacting to hyperturbulence', Huber, G.P. and Glick, W.H. eds. In: *Organisational change and redesign: Ideas and insights for improving performance*. New York: Oxford University Press:66-104.
- Michelson, G. and Mouly, V.S. 2002. 'You didn't hear it from us but...': Towards an understanding of rumour and gossip in organisations', *Australian Journal of Management*, 27:57-65.
- Miles, R.H. 2000. 'Accelerated organizational transformation: balancing scope and Involvement'. In: Beer, M. and Nohria, N. eds. *Breaking the code of change*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press:381–389.
- Millar, C., Hind, P. & Magala, S. 2012. 'Sustainability and the need for change: organisational change and transformational vision', *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 25(4):489-500.
- Mina, S. 2014. 'Managing the strategic decision in governmental organisation within chaos theory', *Managerial Challenges of the contemporary society*, 4.
- Moch, M.K. and Bartunek, J. 1990. *Creating alternative realities at work: the quality of work life experiment at foodcom*. New York: Harper Business.
- Moilanen, R. 2005. 'Diagnosing and measuring learning organizations', *The Learning Organization*, 12:71-89.
- Mokgoro, J.Y. 1998. 'Ubuntu and the law in South Africa'. *Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal*, 1(1):1–11.
- Möllering, G. 2001. 'The nature of trust: from Georg Simmel to a theory of expectation, interpretation and suspension', *Sociology*, 35:403-20.
- Morgan, G. 1979. *Focus groups as qualitative research*. London: Sage.



- Morin, E. 1986. *La méthode III: La connaissance de la connaissance*. Editions du Seuil, Paris.
- Morris, W.N., Worchel, W., Bios, J.L., Pearson, J.A., Rountree, C.A., Samaha, G.M., Wachtler, J. & Wright, S.L. 1976. 'Collective coping with Stress', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 33(6):674-679.
- Morrison, J.D. 2014. *Transformative Interface* [online]. Available from: <<http://www.spinbitz.net>> [Accessed 20 July 2014].
- Morse, J.M. 2012. 'Sampling in grounded theory', In: Bryant, A. and Charmaz, K. eds. *The Sage handbook of grounded theory*:229-244.
- Mosakowski, E. and Earley, P.C. 2000. 'A selective review of time assumptions in strategy research', *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4):796–812.
- Mossbridge, J., Tressoldi, P. & Utts, J. 2012. 'Predictive physiological anticipation preceding seemingly unpredictable stimuli: a meta-analysis', *Frontiers in Psychology*, 3(1):1-18.
- Moustakas, C.E.1994. *Phenomenological research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mouton, J. 1996. *Understanding social research*. Pretoria: JL van Schaik.
- Moyo, N.T. 2012. *Industrial and Organisational Psychology in South Africa: Research and practice*. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of the Witwatersrand. Johannesburg, South Africa.
- Mumby, D.K. 2012. *Organisational communication: critical approaches*. Google Books, DOI: 10.1111/b.9781405131995.2008.x.
- Munhall, P.L. 2011. 'A phenomenological method', In: Munhall, P.L. ed. *Nursing Research: A Qualitative Perspective*, 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. Ontario. Canada: Jones & Bartlett Learning. 113-175.
- Munro, R. 1997. 'Riding the fourth wave of change', *Management Today*, July: 35-37.
- Myers, D.G. 2002. *Intuition: its powers and perils*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Naccache, L., Gaillard, R.L., Adam, C., Hasboun, D., Clemenceau, S., Baulac, M., Dehaene, S. & Cohen, L. 2005. 'A direct intracranial record of emotions evoked by subliminal words', *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 102(21):7713-7717.

- Nadler, D. and Tushman, M. 1995. 'Types of organizational change: from incremental improvement to discontinuous transformation', In: D. A. Nadler, R.B. Shaw & E. Walton, eds. *Discontinuous Change: Leading Organizational Transformation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 15-34.
- Nahavandi, A. 2000. *The art and science of leadership*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Naidu-Hoffmeester, R. 2014. *Convocation discusses SA's leadership challenges* [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.wits.ac.za/alumni/alumni%20news%20items/>>  
[Accessed 3 November 2014].
- Narayan, S. 2014. *Forget brain workouts – chanting mantras takes half the time and is more effective* [online].  
Available from: <[www.qz.com/188695/forget-brain-workouts](http://www.qz.com/188695/forget-brain-workouts)>  
[Accessed 25 June 2014].
- Nastase, M., Giuclea, M. & Bold, M. 2012. 'The impact of change management in organisations – a survey of methods and techniques for a successful change', *Review of International Comparative Management*, 13(1):1-16.
- Nater, U., Rohleder, N., Gaab, J., Berger, S., Jud, A., Kirschbaum, C. & Ehlert, U. 2005. 'Human salivary alpha-amylase reactivity in a psychological stress paradigm'. *International Journal of Psychophysiology*, 55:333-342.
- Nelson, R. and Bancel, P. 2011. 'Effects of mass consciousness: changes in random data during global events', *Explore*, 6(6):363-383
- Neumann, E. 1971. *The origins and history of consciousness*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Newberg, A., Alavi, A., Baime, M., Pourdehnad, M., Santanna, J. & D'Aquili, E. 2001. 'The measurement of regional cerebral blood flow during the complex cognitive task of meditation: a preliminary psychiatry research study', *Neuroimaging*.106:113-122.
- Newell, S., Robertson, M. & Swan, J. 2001. 'Management fads and fashions', *Organization*, 8:5-15.
- Ngawang, T. 2010. *The body is a mandala* [online].  
Available from: <[www.circularsounds](http://www.circularsounds)>  
[Accessed 20 July 2014].

- Ngwenya, N. 2014. *How effective leadership influences sustainable productivity improvement initiatives*. UNISA SBL: Leaders are responsible for the productivity of their organisation. [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.unisa.ac.za/sbl/news/index.php/2014/11/leaders-are-responsible-for-the-productivity-of-their-organisation/>>  
[Accessed 12 December 2014].
- Nikolaou, I., Gouras, A., Vakola, M. & Bourantis, D. 2007. 'Selecting change agents: exploring traits and skills in a simulated environment', *Journal of Change Management* 7(3/4):291-313.
- Nkuna, O.K. 2003. *The perceived causes of women battering*. Masters thesis. University of the North, Sovenga.
- Noblet, A., Rodwell, J & McWilliams, J. 2006. 'Organisational change in the public sector: augmenting the demand control model to predict employee outcomes under new public management', *Work and Stress*, 20:335-352.
- No Name, 2015. Colloquium. University of South Africa: SBL. April 2015 Colloquium. Midrand.
- Norris, F.H. 1992. 'Epidemiology of trauma: frequency and impact of different potentially traumatic events on different demographic groups', *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 60:409–418.
- North, T., McCullagh, P. & Tran, Z. 1990. 'Effect of exercise on depression', *Exercise and Sport Science Reviews*, 18:379-415.
- Nutt, P.C. 1999. 'Surprising but true: half the decisions in organizations fail', *Academy of Management Executive*, 13:75-90.
- Oakland, J.S. and Tanner, S.J. 2007. 'A new framework for managing change', *The TQM Magazine*, 19(6):572–589.
- O'Connor, M., Cooper, J.N., Williams, L.M., DeVarney, S. & Gordon, E. 2013. 'Neuroleadership and the productive brain', In: Rock, D. and Ringleb. A. eds. *Neuroleadership*: 481.
- Ohman, A. and Mineka, S. 2001. 'Fears, phobias, and preparedness: toward an evolved module of fear and fear learning'. *Psychological Review*, 108(3):483-522.
- Olupona, J. [S.a.]. *African spirituality; forms, meanings and expressions* [online].  
Available from: <[www.ancestralvoices.co.uk](http://www.ancestralvoices.co.uk)>  
[Accessed 18 June 2014].

- Oreg, S. 2006. 'Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change', *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 15(1):73 - 101.
- Orme-Johnson, D., Clements, G., Haynes, C. & Badaoui, K. 1966. In: Orme-Johnson, D. and Farrow, J. eds. *Scientific Research on the Transcendental Meditation Program*, Maharishi European Research University Press, 1:605.
- Ormrod, J. 2014. *Human learning*, 6<sup>th</sup> edition. Pearson new international edition.
- O'Shea, M. 2008. *Science made simple: the brain*. Booklet distributed with the independent newspaper in association with Oxford University Press.
- Overton, I. 2013. Managing change in project environments. Training course by ChangeAbility. South Africa.
- Oxford paperback dictionary*, 1994. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Oxford universal dictionary illustrated*, 1959. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pacák K. and Palkovits M. 2001. 'Stressor specificity of central neuroendocrine responses: implications for stress-related disorders', *CNS Spectrums*, 22(4):502-548.
- Page, D. 2012. *Yoga instructor in Chickasha teaches benefits of humour*. [online]. Available from: <<http://0-search.proquest.com.oasis.unisa.ac.za/abicomplete/docview/1012696168/fulltext/98304EBF26864631PQ/2?accountid=14648&ticket=ST-5969-dkQbdbJlvuNHCt6XraNy-cas>> [Accessed 20 July 2014].
- Page, M.L. and Gaggiotti, H. 2012. 'A visual inquiry into ethics and change', *Qualitative research in organisations and management: an international journal*, 7(1):72-85
- Palanisamy, R. and Sushil, J.L. 2003. 'Measurement and enablement of information systems for organizational flexibility: an empirical study', *Journal of Services Research*, 3:81-103.
- Palankanis, K.C., De Nobile, J.W., Sweeney, W.B. & Blankenship, C.L. 1994. 'Effect of music therapy on state anxiety in patients undergoing flexible sigmoidoscopy', *Dis Colon Rectum*, 36:468-481.
- Palmer, C., Koopmans E., Carter C., Loehr J. D. & Wanderley M. 2009. 'Synchronization of motion and timing in clarinet performance', In: Williamon A., Pretty S. & Buck R. eds. *Proceedings of the second international symposium on performance science*. (Utrecht: European Association of Conservatoires).

- Paprocki, J. 2011. *The healing power of laughter*. [online].  
Available from: <<http://0-search.proquest.com.oasis.unisa.ac.za/abicomplete/docview/884662361/fulltext/98304EBF26864631PQ/18?accountid=14648&ticket=ST-5986-HMppzR3T4MvncDUNbjx-cas>>  
[Accessed 20 July 2014].
- Parahoo, A.K. 1997. *Nursing research: principles, process & issues*. London, Macmillan Press.
- Parker, L.D. and Roffey, B.H. 1997. 'Methodological themes: back to the drawing board: revisiting grounded theory and the everyday accountant's and manager's reality', *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 10(2):212-47.
- Parry, C. 2005. *South Africa: Alcohol today*. *Addiction*, 100: 426-429. [online].  
Available from: <<http://doi.org/ckg35n>>  
[Accessed 3 June 2014].
- Partnoy, F. 2003. *When greed is fact and control is fiction*. The Guardian. [online].  
Available from: <[www.guardian.co.uk](http://www.guardian.co.uk)>  
[Accessed 29 October 2013].
- Patton, M.Q. 1990. *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Paul, R. 2005. *The yoga of sound: tapping the hidden power of music and chant*. New World Library.
- Paulsen, N., Callan, V.J., Grice, T.A., Rooney, D., Gallois, C., Jones, E., Jimmieson, N.L. & Bordia, P. 2005. 'Job uncertainty and personal control during downsizing: a comparison of survivors and victims', *Human Relations*, 58:463–496.
- Pearce, J.C. 2003. *Spiritual initiation and the breakthrough of consciousness: the bond of power*. Rochester, VT: Park Stress Press.
- Pearce, J.C. 2004. *The biology of transcendence: a blueprint of the human spirit*. Rochester, VT: Park Stress Press.
- Pech, R.J. and Oakley, K.E. 2005. 'Hormesis: an evolutionary "predict and prepare" survival mechanism', *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 26(8):673-87.
- Pedlar, C. 2014. *Personal Interview*. Hillcrest, Durban.

- Peeters, G. and Czapinski, J. 1990. 'Positive-negative asymmetry in evaluations: The distinction between affective and informational negativity effects', In: Stroebe, W. and Hewstone, M. eds. *European review of social psychology*. New York: Wiley:1:33-60.
- Péli, G.L., Pólós, L. & Hannan, M.T. 2000. 'Back to inertia: theoretical implications of alternative styles of logical formalization', *Sociological Theory* 18:195-215.
- Penfield, W. and Boldrey, E. 1930. 'Somatic motor and sensory representation in the cerebral cortex of man as studied by electrical stimulation', *Brain*, 60(4):389-443.
- Penn, M.L. 1991. 'Memory, emotional processing, and anxiety: A critique', *Current Psychology: Research and Reviews*, 10(4):253-262.
- Peper, E., Wilson, V.E., Gunkelman, J., Kawakami, M., Sata, M., Barton, W. & Johnston, J. 2006. 'Tongue piercing by a Yogi: QEEG observations'. *Applied Psychophysiological Biofeedback*. 31:331-338.
- Peretti, P.O. and Swenson, K. 1974. 'Effects of music on anxiety as determined by physiological skin responses', *Journal of Research in Music Education*, 22(4):278-283.
- Peters, S. 2012. *The chimp paradox: the mind management programme for confidence, success and happiness*. Vermilion: Random House Group.
- Pettigrew, A.M. 1985. *The awakening giant: continuity and change at ICI*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Pettigrew, A.M., Woodman, R.W. & Cameron, K.S. 2001. 'Studying organisational change and development', *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(4):697-713.
- Pfeifer, J.H., Iacoboni, M., Mazziotta, J.C. & Dapretto, M. 2008. 'Mirroring others' emotions relates to empathy and interpersonal competence in children', *NeuroImage*, 39(4):2076-2085.
- Piderit, S. 2000. 'Rethinking resistance and recognizing ambivalence: a multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organizational change', *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4):783-794.
- Pillow, D.R., Zautra, A.J. & Sandler, I. 1996. 'Major life events and minor stressors: identifying mediational links in the stress process', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70:381-394.
- Pitts, W. 2007. 'Educational competency as an indicator of occupational stress for probation and parole officers'. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*. 33:57-73.

- Pizzi, R., Fantasia, A., Geiain, F., Rossetti, D. & Vescovi, A. 2004. 'Non-local correlation between human neural networks', In: Donkor E., Pirick A.R., Brandt, H.E. eds. *Quantum Information and Computation II*. Proceedings of SPIE5436;2004:106–116.
- Planck. M. 1931. 'Consciousness matters', *The Observer*, 25 January.
- Pokorny, S. 2011. *Dose of laughter is best medicine*. [online].  
Available from: <https://cas.unisa.ac.za/cas/login?service=https://oasis.unisa.ac.za/wamvalidate%3Furl%3Dhttp%3A%2F%2F0-search.proquest.com.oasis.unisa.ac.za%3A80%2Ffabriccomplete%2Fdocview%2F905040669%2Ffulltext%2F98304EBF26864631PQ%2F13%3Faccountid%3D14648>>  
[Accessed 20 July 2014].
- Polit, D.F., Beck, C.T. & Hungler, B.P. 2001. *Essentials of nursing research: methods, appraisal, and utilisation*. 5<sup>th</sup> edition. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Polkinghorne, D.E. 2005. 'Language and meaning: data collection in qualitative research', *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 52:137-145.
- Pollard, C.W. 1996. *The Soul of the Firm*. Grand Rapids, MI: Zondervan.
- Ponterotto, J.G. 2006. *Brief note on the origins, evolution, and meaning of the qualitative research concept "thick description"*. *The Qualitative Report*, 11(3).  
[online].  
Available from: <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR11-3/ponterotto.pdf>>  
[Accessed 26 February 2014].
- Popper, K. 1935. *The Logic of Scientific Discovery*. London: Routledge.
- Porges, S.W. 2001. 'The polyvagal theory: phylogenetic substrates of a social nervous system', *International Journal of Psychophysiology*, 42:123-146.
- Porkert, M. 1974. *Medicine: systems of correspondence*, Cambridge, MA: Mass MIT Press.
- Porter, H. 2008. *How did so many smart people get suckered by Bernard Madoff?* The Observer. [online].  
Available from: [www.guardian.co.uk](http://www.guardian.co.uk)>  
[Accessed 29 October 2013].
- Prahalad, C.K. and Hamel, G. 1990. 'The core competence of the corporation', *Harvard Business Review*, 68:79–91.



- Pratt, J.G. 1949. 'The meaning of performance curves in ESP and PK test data'. *Journal of Parapsychology*, 13:9–22.
- Pratto, F. and John, O.P. 1991. 'Automatic vigilance: the attention-grabbing power of negative social information', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 61:380-391.
- Premack, D.G. and Woodruff, G. 1978. 'Does the chimpanzee have a theory of mind?' *Behavioural and Brain Sciences*, 1:515-526.
- Price, G. and Van der Walt, A.J. 2013. 'Changes in attitudes towards business ethics held by former South African business management students', *Journal of Business Ethics*, 113:429-440.
- Putnam, L.L. 1983. 'The interpretive perspective: an alternative to functionalism', In: Putnam, L.L. and Pacanowsky, M.E. eds. *Communication and Organization: An Interpretive Approach*, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage:31-54.
- Putnam, L.L., Phillips, N. & Chapman, P. 1996. 'Metaphors of communication and organization', In: Clegg, S.R., Hardy, C. & Nord, W.R. eds. *Handbook of organization studies*, London: Sage:375-408.
- Queen, S.A. 2006. 'Round table on case-study method of sociological research', In: *Case study research 1*, London: Sage.
- Quinn, J.B. 1980. *Strategies for change: logical incrementalism*. Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Quirk, G.J., Repa, J.C, & LeDoux, J.E. 1995. 'Fear conditioning enhances short-latency auditory responses of lateral amygdala neurons: parallel recordings in the freely behaving rat', *Neuron*, 15:1029-1039.
- Qwii, 1999. *The first people* [sound file]. Clearwater, ARC Music.
- Radin, P. 1956. *Primitive religion*. New York: Dover.
- Radin, D.I. 2003a. 'Electrodermal presentiments of future emotions', *Journal of Scientific Exploration* (in press).
- Radin, D.I. 2003b. 'Thinking outside the box: EEG correlations between isolated human subjects', *Proceedings of the 43th Annual Convention of the Parapsychological Association*, pp184-199.
- Radin, D.I. 2004. 'Event-related electroencephalographic correlations between isolated human subject', *Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 10:315-323.

- Radin, D.I. 2006. *Entangled minds: extrasensory experiences in a quantum reality*. New York: Paraview Pocket Books.
- Radin, D.I. 2011. 'Predicting the unpredictable: 65 years of experimental evidence', *Quantum Retrocausation: Theory and Experiment*, 1408:204-216.
- Radin, D.I. 2013. *Supernormal: science, yoga, and the evidence for extraordinary psychic abilities*. New York: Deepak Chopra Books.
- Radin, D.I. and Borges, A. 2009. 'Intuition through time: what does the seer see?' *Explore*, 5:200-221.
- Radin, D.I. and Nelson, R.D. 1989. 'Evidence for consciousness-related anomalies in random physical systems', *Foundations of Physics*, 19(12):1499-1514.
- Radin, D.I. and Schlitz, M.J. 2005. 'Gut feelings, intuition, and emotions: an exploratory study', *Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 11:85–91.
- Rafferty, A.E. and Griffin, M.A. 2006. 'Perceptions of organisational change: a stress and coping perspective', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5):1154-1162.
- Rajhans, G. 2013. *The power of mantra chanting: why and how to chant* [online]. Available from: <<http://hinduism.about.com/od/prayersmantras/a/mantrachanting.htm>> [Accessed 20 June 2014].
- Rameson, R.T. and Lieberman, M.D. 2009. 'Empathy: a social cognitive neuroscience approach', *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 3(1):94-110.
- Randall, R. 2010. 'Break the status quo on the dysfunctional use of business e-mail', *Central Penn Business Journal*, April:11.
- Raso, J. 1994. *Alternative healthcare: a comprehensive guide. Natural medicine, hands-on healing, spiritualism, occultism and much more*. New York: Prometheus Books.
- Ray, O. 2004. 'How the mind hurts and heals the body', *American Psychologist*, 59(1):29-40.
- Reeves, P.M. 2014. *Learning to love your body*, Personal transformation. [online]. Available from: <[www.personaltransformation.com](http://www.personaltransformation.com)> [Accessed 7 July 2014].
- Reger, R.K., Mullane, J.V., Gustafson, L.T. & DeMarie, S.M. 1994. 'Changing earthquakes to change organizational mindsets', *Academy of Management Executive*, 8:31–43.

- Reich, W. 1986. *The function of the organism*. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux.
- Reynolds, S.B. 1984. 'Biofeedback, relaxation training and music: homeostasis for coping with stress', *Biofeedback and Self-regulation*, 9:169-179.
- Rhine, J.B. 1946. 'Editorial: ESP and PK as "psi phenomena"', *Journal of Parapsychology*, 10:64–65.
- Rice, M. 2005. *Domestic violence* [online].  
Available from: <[www.ncptsd.va.gov/Facts/specific/fs-domestic](http://www.ncptsd.va.gov/Facts/specific/fs-domestic)>  
[Accessed 30 May 2005].
- Richards, T.L., Kozak, L., Johnson, L.C. & Standish, L.J. 2005. 'Replicable functional magnetic resonance imaging evidence of correlated brain signals between physically and sensory isolated subjects', *Journal of Alternative Complementary Medicine*, 11:955–963.
- Richmond, R.L. and Kehoe, L. 1999. 'Quantitative and qualitative evaluations of brief interventions to change excessive drinking, smoking, and stress in the police force', *Addiction*, 94:1509.
- Rider, M.S., Achterberg, J., Lawlis, G.F., Goven, A., Toledo, R. & Butler, J.R. 1990. 'Effect of immune system imagery on secretory IgA', *Biofeedback and Self-regulation*, 15(4):317-333.
- Ringleb, A.H. and Rock, D. 2008. 'The emerging field of neuroleadership', *Neuroleadership Journal*, 1:3-19.
- Ringleb, A.H. and Rock, D. 2009. 'Defining neuroleadership as a field', *Neuroleadership Journal*, 2:1-7.
- Ringleb, A.H. and Rock, D. 2013. 'The emerging field of neuroleadership', In: *Handbook of neuroleadership*, Rock, D. and Ringleb, A.H. eds. NeuroLeadership Institute.
- Ringleb, A.H., Rock, D. & Ancona, C. 2013. 'Neuroleadership', In: *Handbook of neuroleadership*, Rock, D. and Ringleb, A.H. eds. NeuroLeadership Institute.
- Rizzolatti, G., Fadiga, L., Gallese, V. & Fogassi, L. 1996. 'Premotor Cortex and the recognition of motor actions', *Cognitive Brain research*, 3(2):131-141.
- Rock, D., Siegel, D.J., Poelmans, S.A.Y. & Payne, J. 2013. 'The Healthy Mind Platter' *Handbook of neuroleadership*, Neuroleadership Institute. Rock.D. and Ringleb, A.H. Eds. Neuroleadership Institute:127–161.
- Rock, D. 2008. 'SCARF: a brain-based model for collaborating with and influencing others', *NeuroLeadership Journal*:1-9.

- Rock, D. 2009. *Your brain at work: strategies for overcoming distraction, regaining focus, and working smarter all day long*. UK: Harper Business.
- Roodt, A. 1997. 'In search of a South African corporate culture', *Management Today*, March:14-16.
- Root-Bernstein, R.S. 2002. 'Aesthetic cognition', *International Studies Philosophical Science*.16:61-66.
- Rorty, R. 1979. *Philosophy and the mirror of nature*. Princeton, N.J. Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, S. and Mosca, J. 2011. 'Breaking down the barriers to organizational change', *International Journal of Management and Information Systems*, 15(3):139-146.
- Rosnow, R.L. 1991. 'Inside rumour: a personal journey', *American Psychologist*, 46: 484-496.
- Rosnow, R.L. 2001. 'Rumour and gossip in interpersonal interaction and beyond: A social exchange perspective', In: Kowalski, R.M. ed. *Behaving Badly: Aversive behaviours in interpersonal relationship*. Washington, DC. American Psychological Association:203-232.
- Rost, J.C. 1993. *Leadership for the 21<sup>st</sup> century*, Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Rothmann, S. 2014. 'Employee engagement in a cultural context', In: Truss, C., Delbridge, R., Soane, E., Alfes, K. & Shantz, A. eds. *Employee engagement in theory and practice*, Abindon, UK: Routledge: 78-91.
- Russek, L.G. and Schwartz, G.E. 1996. 'Feelings of parental caring predict health status in midlife: a 35-year follow-up of the Harvard Mastery of Stress Study', *Journal of Behavioural Medicine*, 20(1):1-13.
- Russell, B. 1946. *A history of western philosophy and its connection with political and social circumstances from the earliest times to the present day*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Ryff, C.D. and Singer, B. 2000. 'Interpersonal flourishing: A positive health agenda for the new millennium', *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 4:30-44.
- Salmon, P. 2001. 'Effects of physical exercise of anxiety, depression and sensitivity to stress: a unifying theory', *Clinical Psychology Review*, 21:33-61.
- Sanders, J.E. III, Hopkins, W.E. & Geroy, G.D. 2003. 'From transactional to transcendental: toward an integrated theory of leadership', *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 9(4):21-30.

- Sapolsky, R.M. 2004. *Why Zebras don't get ulcers: an updated guide to stress, stress related diseases, and doping*, New York: Holt Paperbacks.
- Sarayreh, B.H., Khudair, H. & Barakat, E.A. 2013. 'Comparative Study: The Kurt Lewin of Change Management', *International Journal of Computer and Information Technology*, 2(4):626-629
- Saruhan N. 2014. 'The role of corporate communication and perception of justice during organisational change process', *Business and economics research journal*, 5(4):143-166.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. 2003. *Research methods for business students*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. London: Prentice Hall.
- Scaer, R. 2001. *The body bears the burden: trauma, dissociation and disease*. New York: Hawthorn Press.
- Scaer, R. 2005. *The trauma spectrum: hidden wounds and human resiliency*. New York: Norton.
- Scaer, R.C. 2012. *8 Keys to brain-body balance with Robert Scaer* [online]. Available from: <<http://healmyptsd.com/2012/10/8-keys-to-brain-body-balance-robert-scaer.html>> [Accessed 23 July 2014].
- Scartelli, J.P. 1984. 'The effect of EMG biofeedback and sedative music, EMG biofeedback only and sedative music only on frontalis muscle relaxation ability', *Journal of Music Therapy*, 21:67-68.
- Schabracq, M. and Cooper, C. 1998. 'Toward a phenomenological framework for the study of work and organizational stress', *Human Relations*, 51:625–648.
- Scharmer, O.C. 2007. *Theory U: leading from the future as it emerges, society of organizational learning*, Cambridge, MA: Society of Organizational Learning.
- Scharmer, O.C. and Kaeufer, K. 2010. 'In front of the blank canvas: sensing emerging futures', *Journal of Business Strategy*, 31(4):21-29.
- Schermerhorn, J.R. 2003. *Organizational Behavior*. 8<sup>th</sup> edition. New York: Wiley.
- Schlitz, M., Radin, D.I., Malle, B.F., Schmidt, S., Utts, J. & Yount, G.L. 2003. 'Distant healing intention: Definitions and evolving guidelines for laboratory studies', *Alternative Therapeutic Health Medicine*, 9:A31–A43.
- Schmidt, S. 2012. 'Can we help just by good intentions? A meta-analysis of experiments on distant intention effects', *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 18(6):529-533.

- Schreuder, D. and Coetzee, M. 2010. 'An overview of industrial and organisational psychology research in South Africa: A preliminary study', *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36(1):154-164.
- Schroeder, H.W. 1995. 'Preference and meaning of arboretum landscapes: Combining quantitative and qualitative data', In: Sinha, A. ed. *Readings in environmental psychology and landscape perception*, San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Schullian, D.M. and Schoen, M. 1948. *Music and medicine*. New York: Henry Schuman.
- Schwartz, M. 2014. 'Diagrammatic art and the art of philosophy', *SpinbitZ*(1).
- Scott, T.J. 2005. *The Concise Handbook of Manager: A Practitioner's approach*. Haworth Press.
- Seedat, S., van Nood, E., Vythilingum, B., Stein, D.J. & Kaminer, D. 2000. 'School survey of exposure to violence and posttraumatic stress symptoms in adolescents', *South African Journal of Psychology*, 12:38-44.
- Seedat, S., Nyamai, C., Njenja, F., Vythilingum, B. & Stein, D.J. 2004. 'Trauma exposure and post-traumatic stress symptoms in urban African schools', *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 184:169-175.
- Seggie, J. 2012. 'Alcohol and South Africa's Youth', *The South African Medical Journal*:102(7).
- Self, D.R. and Schraeder, M. 2009. 'Enhancing the success of organisational change: matching readiness strategies with sources of resistance', *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 30(2):167-182.
- Seligman, M.E.P. 2000. *Humane Leadership Project*. Progress report. [online]. Available from: <[www.psych.upenn.edu/seligman/hlprogressreport.htm](http://www.psych.upenn.edu/seligman/hlprogressreport.htm)> [Accessed 6 August 2014].
- Sellars, J. 2006. *Stoicism (ancient philosophies)*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Selye, H. 1956. *The stress of life*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Selye, H. 1964. *From dream to discovery*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Selye, H. 1970. 'The evolution of the stress concept: stress and cardiovascular disease', *The American Journal of Cardiology*, 26:289-299.
- Selye, H. 1973. 'The evolution of the stress concept', *American Scientist*, 61:692-699.



- Selye, H. 1976. 'Forty years of stress research: principal remaining problems and misconceptions', *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 115:53-56.
- Selye, H. 1980. 'The stress concept today' In: Kutash, I.L., Schlesinger, L.B. & Associates, eds. *Handbook on stress anxiety*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass:127-143.
- Selye, H. 1983. 'The stress concept: past, present, and future', In: Cooper, C.L. ed. *Stress research*, New York: Wiley:1-20.
- Selye, H. 1987. *Stress without distress*. London: Transworld.
- Sembower, M.A., Ertischek, M.D., Buchholtz, C. Dasgupta, N. & Schnoll, S.H. 2013. 'Surveillance of diversion and nonmedical use of extended-release prescription amphetamine and oral methylphenidate in the United States', *Journal of Addictive Diseases*, 32:26-28.
- Senge, P.M., Scharmer, C.O., Jaworski, J. & Flowers, B.S. 2004. *Presence: human purpose and the field of the future*. Cambridge: Society for Organisational Learning.
- Senior, B. and Swailes, S. 2009. *Organisational change*, London: Prentice-Hall.
- Senior, B. and Swailes, S. 2010. *Organisational change*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.
- Shalins, S. 2013. *What kinship is – and what it is not*. Chicago: University of Chicago City Press.
- Shannon, S. 2001. 'Introduction: The Emerging Paradigm'. In: Shannon, S. ed. *Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health*, Academic Press.
- Shapiro, A.G. and Cohen, H. 1987. 'Auxiliary pain relief during suction curettage', In: Shapiro, A.G. and Cohen, H. eds. *Musik in der medixin/Music in medicine*, Germany: Springer-Verlag:222-231.
- Shapiro, S., Walsh, R. & Britton, W.B. 2003. 'An analysis of recent meditation research and suggestions for future directions'. *Journal of Meditative Research*, 3:69-90.
- Shin, J., Taylor, M.S. & Seo, M. 2012. 'Resources for change: the relationships of organisational inducements and psychological resilience to employees' attitudes and behaviours toward organisational change', *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(3):727-748.



- Shivastava, P. 2010. 'Pedagogy of passion for sustainability', *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 9(3):443-455.
- Sicher, F., Targ, E., Moore, D. & Smith, H.S. 1998. 'A randomized double-blind study of the effect of distant healing in a population with advanced AIDS. Report of a small scale study', *Western Journal Medicine*. 1998;169:356-63.
- Siclare, N. 1993. *Repetitive stress posture*, *Dynamic Chiropractor*, 32(11). [online]. Available from: <[www.dynamicchiropractic.com](http://www.dynamicchiropractic.com)> [Accessed 3 June 2014].
- Siegel, D. 1999. *The developing mind*. New York: Guilford.
- Siegel, D. 2001. 'Toward an interpersonal neurobiology of the developing mind: Attachment mindsight and neural integration', *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 22(1-2):67-94.
- Silver, B. 2003. *Forces of labor: workers' movements and globalisation since 1870*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Silverstone, P.H., McGrath, B.M. & Kim, H. 2005. Bipolar disorder and myoinositol: a review of the magnetic resonance spectroscopy findings. *Human Psychopharmacology* 20(5), July:309-26.
- Sims, R.R. and Brinkmann, J. 2009. 'Thoughts and second thoughts about Enron ethics', Garsten, C. and Hernes, T. Eds. *Ethical dilemmas in management*, New York: Routledge:105-114.
- Sirkin, H.L., Keenan, P. & Jackson, A. 2005. 'The hard side of change management', *Harvard Business Review*, 83(10):108–118.
- Sisley, R., Henning, M.A., Hawken, S.J. & Moir, F. 2010. 'A conceptual model of workplace stress: the issue of accumulation and recovery and the health professional', *New Zealand Journal of Employment Relations*, 35(2):3-15.
- Slocum, N. 2005. *Participatory methods toolkit: a practitioner's manual section: Method: The World Café*. A joint publication of the King Baudouin Foundation and the Flemish Institute for Science and Technology Assessment (viWTA). King Baudouin Foundation.
- Smith, A. 2002a. *The theory of moral sentiments*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, M.E. 2002b. 'Success rates for different types of organizational change'. *Performance Improvement*, 41(1):26–33.

- Smith, V.J. 2002c. *The evolution of leadership*. Unpublished master's thesis. Royal Roads University, Victoria, British Columbia, Canada.
- Smith, P.H., Thronton, G.E., DeVellis, R., Earp, J. & Coker, A.L. 2002. 'A population-based study of the prevalence and distinctiveness of battering, physical assault, and sexual assault in intimate relationships', *Violence against women*, 8:1208–1232.
- Smith, I. 2011. 'Organisational quality and organisational change: Interconnecting paths to effectiveness', *Library Management*, 32(1/2):111 – 128.
- Smithers, A.G. and Loble, D.M. 1978. 'Dogmatism, social attitudes and personality', *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, June: 135-142.
- Smollan, R.K. 2006. 'Minds, hearts and deeds: cognitive, affective and behavioral responses to change', *Journal of Change Management*, 6(2):143–58.
- Smollan, R.K., Matheny, J.A. & Sayers, J.G. 2010. 'Personality, affect, and organisational change: a qualitative study', *Emotions and Organisational Dynamism*, 6:85–112.
- Smuts, J.C. 1926. *Holism and evolution*. London: MacMilland.
- Sofaer, S. 1999. 'Qualitative methods: what are they and why use them?' *Health Services Research*, 34:1101-1118.
- Some, M.P. 2014. *What a Shaman sees in a mental hospital*. [online]. Available from: <[www.disinfo.com/2014/06/shaman-sees](http://www.disinfo.com/2014/06/shaman-sees)> [Accessed 18 June 2014].
- Sosik, J.J., Jung, D. & Dinger, S.L. 2009. 'Values in authentic action examining the roots and rewards of altruistic leadership'. *Group and Organization Management*, 34(4):395–431.
- Speilberger, C.D. 1972. *Anxiety: current trends in theory and research*. New York: Academic Press.
- Spence, J., Poon, P. & Dyck, P. 1997. 'The effect of physical-activity participation on self-concept: a meta-analysis (Abstract).', *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 19:98-109.
- Spottiswoode, S.J.P. and May, E.C.P. 2003. 'Skin conductance pre stimulus response: Analyses, artefacts and a pilot study', *Journal of Scientific Exploration* 16:616–642.
- Squire, L. 1987. *Memory and the brain*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Standish, L.J., Kozak, L., Johnson, L.C. & Richards, T. 2004. 'Electroencephalographic evidence of correlated event-related signals between the brains of spatially and sensory isolated human subjects', *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 10:306-314.
- Standley, J. 1986. 'Music research in medical/dental treatment: meta-analysis and clinical applications', *Journal of Music Therapy*, 23(2):50-55.
- Stanleigh, M. 2008. 'Effecting successful change management initiatives', *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 40(1):34-37.
- Statistics SA, 2014. *Consumer price index March 2014*. [online]. Available from: <<http://www.statssa.gov.za>> [Accessed 20 May 2014].
- Stebbing, H. and Braganza, A. 2009. 'Exploring continuous organisational transformation: morphing through network interdependence', *Journal of Change Management*, 9(1):27-48.
- Stiskin, N. 1972. *The looking-glass God: Shinto, Yin-Yang, and a cosmology for today*. Brookline, MA: Autumn Press.
- Stogdill, R.M. 1950. 'Leadership, membership and organization', *Psychological Bulletin*, 47:1-14.
- Storey, J. 2005. 'Signs of change: damned rascals and beyond', In: Storey, J. ed. *Leadership in organizations: current issues and key trends*. London: Routledge.
- Storr, A. 1983. *The essential Jung: selected and introduced by Anthony Storr*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Strategic Direction, 2004. 'Developing change and leadership capabilities: linking change management and management development', *Strategic Direction*, 20(6):24-26.
- Strauss, A. 1987. *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. 1990. *Basics of qualitative research: grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. 1998. *Basics of qualitative research: grounded theory procedures and techniques*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

- Struckman, C.K. and Yammarino, F.J. 2003. 'Organisational change: a categorisation scheme and response model with readiness factors', *Research in Organisational Change and Development*, 14:1-50.
- Strümpfer, D.J.W. 1995. 'The origins of health and strength: From "salutogenesis" to "fortigenesis"', *South African Journal of Psychology*, 25:81–89.
- Strümpfer, D.J.W. 2003. 'Resilience and burnout: A stitch that could save nine', *South-African Journal of Psychology*, 33(2):69-79.
- Strümpfer, D.J.W. 2006. 'The strengths perspective: Fortigenesis in adult life', *Social Indicators Research*, 77:11-36.
- Sturdy, A. and Grey, C. 2003. 'Beneath and beyond organisational change management', *Organisation*, 10(4):651-662.
- Suliman, S., Mkabile, S.G., Fincham, D.S., Ahmed, R., Stein, D.J. & Seedat, S. 2009. 'Cumulative effect of multiple trauma on symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder, anxiety and depression in adolescents', *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 50:121-127.
- Sullivan, R.M. and Gratton, A. 2002. 'Prefrontal cortical regulation of hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal function in the rat and implications for psychopathology: side matters', *Psychoneuroendocrinology*, 27:99-114.
- Sultanoff, B.A. 2001. 'The environment'. In: Shannon, S. ed. *Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health*, Academic Press.
- Sutherland, V. and Cooper, C.L. 2000. 'Stress and the changing nature of work'. In: Clements-Croome, D. ed., *Creating the productive workplace*. New York: Spon.
- Swami Krishnananda, 2014. *Yoga*. [online].  
Available from: <[swami-krishnananda.org/patanjali](http://swami-krishnananda.org/patanjali)>  
[Accessed 2 June 2014].
- Taleb, N.N. 2010. *The black swan: the impact of the highly improbable*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. London: Penguin.
- Taleb, N.N. 2012. *Antifragile: how to live in a world we don't understand*. London: Penguin. Allen Lane.
- Tang, Y.Y. and Posner, M.I. 2013. 'The neuroscience of mindfulness', In: Rock, D. and Ringleb, A. eds. *Handbook of neuroleadership*, Institute of NeuroScience:216-223.

- Tang, Y.Y., Lu, Q., Fan, M., Yang, Y. & Posner, M.I. 2012. 'Mechanisms of white matter changes induced by meditation'. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 109(26):10560-10564.[doi: 10.1063/pnas.12](https://doi.org/10.1063/pnas.12).
- Targ, R.2012. *The reality of ESP. A physicist's proof of psychic abilities*. Wheaton, IL: Quest Books.
- Tart, C.T. 2009. *The end of materialism: how evidence of the paranormal is bringing science and spirit together*. Noetic Books, Institute of Noetic Sciences, New Harbinger.
- Taylor, H. and Cooper, C.L. 1988. 'Organisational change – threat or challenge? The role of individual differences in the management of stress', *Journal of Organisational change management*, 1(1):68.
- Taylor, J.R., Flanagin, A.J., Cheney, G. & Seibold, D.R. 2001. 'Organizational communication research: key moments, central concerns, and future challenges', In: Gudykunst, W. ed. *Communication yearbook*. London: Sage:99-137.
- Terry, D.J., Callan, V.J. & Sartori, G. 1996. 'Employee adjustment to an organizational merger: stress, coping and intergroup differences', *Stress Medicine*, 12:105–122.
- Thomas, G. 2011. 'A typology for the case study in social science following a review of definition, discourse and structure', *Qualitative Inquiry*, 17(6):511-521.
- Thornton, E. 2009. 'Managing through a crisis: the new rules', *Business Week*, January:30-34.
- Thurley, K. 1979. *Supervision: A reappraisal*. London: Heineman.
- Tinbergen, N. 1961. *The herrings gull's world: a study of the social behaviour of birds*. New York: Basic Books.
- Tiong, T.N. 2005. 'Maximising human resource potential in the midst of organisational change', *Singapore Management Review*, 27(2):25-35.
- Todnem-By, R. 2005. 'Organisational change management: a critical review', *Journal of Change Management* 5(4):369-380.
- Todnem-By, R. and Dale, C. 2008. 'The successful management of organisational change in tourism SMEs: initial findings in UK visitor attractions', *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10:305-313.
- Tomatis, A.A. 2004. *The sound and the voice*. New York: Rowman & Littlefield.

- Tracey, W.R. 2006. *The human resources glossary*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition [Kindle edition] Taylor & Francis e-library.
- Trochim, W.M.K. 2006. *Time in research, research methods knowledge base*. [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/order.php>>  
[Accessed 25 February 2014].
- Tsae, M. 2011. 'An exploratory study: men's experiences as victims of domestic violence where women are the perpetrators in the Gauteng province', University of Pretoria. Pretoria.
- Tsai, P.L., Chen, M-C., Huang, Y-T., Lin, K-C., Chen, K-I. & Hsu, Y-W. 2013. 'Listening to classical music ameliorates unilateral neglect after stroke', *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 66(3):328-335.
- Tucker, P., Pfefferbaum, B., Nixon, S. & Dickson, W. 2000. 'Predictors of post-traumatic stress symptoms in Oklahoma City: exposure, social support, peri-traumatic responses', *The Journal of Behavioral Health Services and Research*, 27:406–416.
- Turlington, C. 2002. *Living yoga: creating a life practice*. New York: Hyperion.
- Tushman, M.L. and Romanelli, E. 1985. 'Organisational evolution: a metamorphosis model of convergence and reorientation', *Research in Organisational Behaviour*, 7:171-222.
- Tzu, S. 2005. *The art of war*. Translated by T. Cleary. Boston & London: Shambala.
- Ulrich, R.S. 1984. 'View from a window may influence recovery from surgery', *Science*, 224:420-421.
- Ulrich, D. and Brockbank, W. 2005. *The HR Value Proposition*. Harvard Business School Press, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Updike, P. and Charles, D. 1986. 'Music Rx: physiological and emotional responses to taped music programs of preoperative patients awaiting plastic surgery', *Annual Plastic Surgery*, 9(1):29-33.
- Urquhart, C. 2007. 'The evolving nature of grounded theory method: the case of the information systems discipline', In: Bryant, A. and Charmaz, K. eds. *The Sage handbook of grounded theory*. London: Sage:339-360.
- Urquhart, C., Lehmann, H. & Myers, M. 2010. 'Putting the theory back into grounded theory: guidelines for grounded theory studies in information systems', *Information Systems Journal*, 20(4):357–381.

- Ursano, R.J., Fullerton, C.S. & Norwood, A.E. 2002. *Psychiatric dimensions of disaster: patient care, community consultation, and preventive medicine*. American Psychiatric Association. [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.psych.org/pract-of-psych/disaster:cfm>>  
[Accessed 4 May 2014].
- USA, 2013. *Effect of laughter yoga on mood and heart rate variability in patients awaiting organ transplantation: a pilot study*. [online].  
Available from: <[Ncbi.nlm.nih.gov](http://Ncbi.nlm.nih.gov)>  
[Accessed 16 July 2014].
- Vaill, P. 1998. *Spirited leading and learning: process wisdom for a new age*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Vakola, M. and Nikolaou, I. 2005. 'Attitudes towards organisational change: what is the role of employees' stress and commitment?', *Employee resistance*, 27(2):160-174.
- Vale, S. 2010. *Statistical data quality in the UNECE, 2010 version*. Statistical Division, United Nations.
- Van Knippenberg, B., Martin, L. & Tyler, T. 2006. 'Process-orientation versus outcome-orientation during organisational change: the role of organizational identification', *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, 27:685-704.
- Van Maanen, J. 1979. 'Reclaiming qualitative methods for organizational research: a preface', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24:520-524.
- Van Manen, M. 1990. *Researching lived experiences: human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Van Niekerk, W.J. 2005. *Chapter three: a social constructionist epistemology*. [online].  
Available from: <[uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/928/03chapter3.pdf](http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/928/03chapter3.pdf)>  
[Accessed 12 December 2014].
- Van Praag, H., Kempermann, G. & Gage, F.H. 1999. 'Running increases cell proliferation and neurogenesis in the adult mouse dentate gyrus', *Nature Neuroscience*, 2:266-270.
- Van Tonder, C.L. 2004. *Organisational change: theory and practice*. Pretoria. Van Schaik.



- Van Vuuren, M., de Jong, M.D.T. & Seydel, E.R. 2007. 'Direct and indirect effects of supervisor communication on organizational commitment', *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 12(2):116-28.
- Van Vuuren, M. and Elving, W.J.L. 2008. 'Communication, sensemaking and change as a chord of three strands: practical implications and a research agenda for communicating organizational change', *Corporate Communication: An International Journal*, 13(3):349-359.
- Van Wyk, B-E., van Oudtshoorn, B. & Gericke. N. 1999. *Medicinal plants of South Africa*, Pretoria. Briza.
- Van Zyl, L., van Eeden, C. & Rothman, S. 2013. 'Job insecurity and the emotional and behavioural consequences thereof', *South African Academic Journal of Business Management*, 44(1):75-88.
- Vasse, R.M., Nijhuis, F.J. & Kok, G. 1998. 'Associations between work stress alcohol consumption and sickness absence', *Addiction*, 93: 231.
- Vaughn, M. and Ryan, L.V. 2006. 'Corporate Governance in South Africa: a bellwether for the continent?' *Corporate Governance*, 14(5):504-512.
- Veldsman, D. 2012. The stories that leaders tell during organisational change: the search for meaning during large-scale transformation. Unpublished MCom dissertation. University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Vijayraghavan, S., Wang, M., Birnbaum, S.G., Williams, G.V. & Van Arnsen, A. 2007. 'Inverted-Udopanimine D1 Receptor actions on prefrontal neurons engaged in working memory', *Nature Neuroscience*, 10:376-384.
- Viljoen-Terblanche, R.C. 2008. Sustainable organisational transformation through inclusivity: Thesis research paper. University of South Africa. Pretoria.
- Viljoen, R.C. 2009. 'Africa is not for sissies', Unpublished article.
- Viljoen, R.C. 2014a. 'Human niches', In: Viljoen, R.C. ed. *Integral Polity*, Ashgate, UK: Gower.
- Viljoen, R.C. 2014b. *Inclusive organisational transformation: an integral perspective on human niches and diversity of thought*. Transformation and innovation series, Ashgate, UK: Gower.
- Viljoen, R.C. 2015. *Organisational Change and Development: An African Perspective*, Knowres Publishing, Randburg.

- Viljoen, R.C. and Laubscher, L. 2014. *Inclusive organisational transformation: an integral perspective on human niches and diversity of thought*. Unpublished article. Johannesburg.
- Von Lucadou, W., Römer, H. & Walach, H. 2006. 'Synchronistic phenomena as entanglement correlations in generalised quantum theory', *Journal of Consciousness Studies*, 14(4):50-74.
- Vundla, P. 2014. *The dearth of leadership – both political and commercial*. UNISA SBL: What is happening in the leadership space in our country? [online]. Available from: <<http://www.unisa.ac.za/sbl/news/index.php/2014/11/what-is-happening-in-the-leadership-space-in-our-country/>> [Accessed 12 December 2014].
- Wackermann, J. 2004. 'Dyadic correlations between brain functional states: present facts and future perspectives', *Mind and Matter*, 2:105-122.
- Wackermann, J., Naranjo, J. R. & Pütz, P. 2004. 'Event-Related correlations between brain electrical activities of separated human subjects', Proc. 46<sup>th</sup> Annual Convention of Parapsychological Association, New York:465-468.
- Walker, E.H. 1970. 'Math', *Bioscience*. 6:131.
- Wallace, M. 2003. 'Managing the unmanageable? Coping with complex educational change', *Educational Management and Administration*, 31(1):9-29.
- Wallis, C. 1996. 'Faith and healing', *Time*. 24 June:58–64.
- Walsh, R. and Shapiro, S.L. 2006. 'The meeting of meditative disciplines and Western psychology', *American Psychologist*, 61:226-239.
- Wanberg, C. and Banas, J. 2000. 'Predictors and outcomes of openness to changes in a reorganizing workplace', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(1):132-142
- Wang, C. and Ahmed, P. 2003. 'Organizational learning: a critical review', *The Learning Organization*, 10(1):8-17.
- Wanous, J.P., Reichers, A.E. & Austin, J.T. 2000. 'Cynicism about organisational change', *Group and Organisation Management*, 25(2):132–153.
- Ward, C.L., Flisher, A.J., Zissis, C., Muller, M. & Lombard, C. 2001. 'Exposure to violence and its relationship to psychopathology in adolescents', *International Prevention*, 7:297-301.
- Watkins, A. and Childre, D. 1995. *HeartMath: the science of emotional sovereignty*. Amsterdam: Harwood Academic.

- Watson, J.B. 1913. 'Psychology as a behaviourist views it', *Psychological Review*, 20:158-177.
- Watson, L. 1982. *Lightning bird: one man's journey into Africa*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Watson, L. 1988. *Beyond supernature*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Weaver, J. 2001. 'The autonomic nervous system and private subconscious mind healing', *The Australian Journal of Clinical Hypnotherapy and Hypnosis*, 22(1):26-35.
- Weber, P.S. and Manning, M.R. 2001. 'Cause maps, sensemaking, and planned organizational change', *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 37:227–51.
- Webster, C. 1973. 'Relaxation, music and cardiology: the physiological and psychological consequences of their interrelation', *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 20:9-20.
- Webster new world dictionary*. 1983. [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.webster's-new-world-dictionary.com>>  
[Accessed 22 October 2013].
- Weick, K.E. and Quinn, R.E. 1999. 'Organisational change and development', *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50:361–385.
- Weiner, B.J. 2009. 'A theory of organisational readiness for change', *Implementation Science*, 4:1-9.
- Weiss, M., Nordlie, J.W. & Siegel, E.P. 2005. 'Mindfulness-based stress reduction as an adjunct to outpatient psychotherapy', *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, 74(2):108-112.
- Welch, J. and Welch, S. 2008. 'Trust in a time of turmoil', *Business Week*, October:92.
- Werkman, R.A. 2009. 'Understanding failure to change: a pluralistic approach and five patterns', *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal*, 30(7):664-684.
- Whipple, B. and Glynn, N.J. 1992. 'Quantification of the effects of listening to music as a non-invasive method of pain control', *School Inquiry Nursing Practice*, 6:43-62.
- Wilber, K. 2000. *A Theory of Everything*. Boston, MA: Shambhala.
- Williams, D. 1999. 'Human responses to change', *Futures*, 31(6):609-616.
- Wilson, E.O. 1984. *Biophilia*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Wilson, V. 2000. *Can thinking skills be taught? Scottish council for research in education* [online].  
Available from: <<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/library3/education/fts-11.asp>>  
[Accessed 26 June 2014].
- Wilson, T.L. and Brown, T.L. 1996. 'Re-examination of the effect of Mozart's music on spatial-task performance', *The Journal of Psychology*, 131(4): 355-370.
- Windsor, D. 2003. *Change management competencies for creating collaborative organizations*. Emerald Group Publishing.
- Winkinson, I. and Young, L. 2004. 'Improvisation and adaptation in international business interviews', In: Marschan-Piekkari, R. and Welch, C. eds. *Handbook of qualitative research methods for international business*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar:207-223.
- Wiseman, R. and Watt, C. 2006. 'Belief in psychic ability and the misattribution hypothesis: a qualitative review', *British Journal of Psychology*, 96:323-338.
- Wolcott, L.L. 2002. 'Dynamics of faculty participation in distance education: motivation, incentives and rewards', Moore, M.G. ed. In: *Handbook of distance education*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Woodward, C. 2012. Art as experience: Gadamer's rejection of aesthetic consciousness through play, symbol and festival. Unpublished MA dissertation. Memorial University of Newfoundland.
- World Health Organization [WHO]. 2010. *Global strategy to reduce the harmful use of alcohol*. [online].  
Available from: <[www.who.int/entity/mediacentre/factsheets/fs349/en/-30k](http://www.who.int/entity/mediacentre/factsheets/fs349/en/-30k)>  
[Accessed 3 June 2014].
- World Health Organization [WHO]. 2011. *Global status report on alcohol and health*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization Publications.
- World Health Organization [WHO]. 2012. *Global status report on alcohol and health*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.
- World Health Organisation [WHO]. 2013. 'Stress in South Africa', *The Medical Nutritional Institute*, February.
- WSI information session, 2014. Solicited company information, Durban, KwaZulu Natal.
- Wyker, J. 2001. 'Spiritual psychotherapy'. In: Shannon, S. ed. *Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health*, Academic Press.

- Yeats, D. 2012. *Spiral dynamics: an introduction*. [online].  
Available from: <[www.Davidayeats.com/spiral-dynamicsintro.html](http://www.Davidayeats.com/spiral-dynamicsintro.html)>  
[Accessed 17 June 2014].
- Yerkes, R.M. and Dodson, J.D. 1908. 'The relation of strength of stimulus to rapidity of habit-formation', *Journal of Comparative Neurology and Psychology*, 18:459.
- Yin, R.K. 1981. 'The case study crisis: some answers', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26(1):58-65.
- Yin, R.K. 1994. *Case study research: design and methods*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R.K. 2009. *Case study research: design and methods*. 4<sup>th</sup> edition. Sage Publications, California.
- Yukl, G. 2010. *Leadership in organisations*. 7<sup>th</sup> edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Yu, M-C. 2009. 'Employees' perception of organisational change: the mediating effects of stress management strategies', *Personnel Management*, 38(1):17-32.
- Zajonc, R.N.B. 1980. 'Feeling and thinking: preferences need no inferences', *American Psychologist*, 35:151-175.
- Zutra, A. 2003. *Emotions, stress and health*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Zimny, G.H. and Weidenfeller, E.W. 1963. 'Effects of music of GSR and heart rate', *American Journal of Psychology*, 76.
- Zorn, T.E., Page, D.J. & Cheney, G. 2000. 'Nuts about change: multiple perspectives on change-oriented communication in a public sector organization', *Management Communication Quarterly*, 13:515-66.