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The relationships between stakeholder groups, power and resistance in organisational change initiatives

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Abstract

The likelihood of organisational change success is commonly held to be dependent on how resistance to the change is planned for and managed. Stakeholders who resist change are seen to hold various levels of power or influence over change initiatives, and this power can originate from multiple different sources. There is extensive research literature considering the aspects of stakeholders, power and resistance, but little is evident relating the dimensions to each other to consider the architecture holistically. This research aims to form an exploratory study into the interrelationships between the three dimensions.

To acquire data, an exploratory research approach was undertaken comprising face-to-face, in-depth expert interviews with fifteen professional change agents from three different sample groups. A range of qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques were applied to determine common trends and relationships across the three key dimensions and sub-categories identified from the literature which related to each dimension.

A number of interesting and useful relationships were uncovered within and between the key dimensions and extend the current literature in this field. It was discovered that the higher the magnitude of power held by a stakeholder the more likely it was that they would show resistance. Further findings confirmed links between the types of behaviour (active or passive, overt or covert) and revealed multidimensional influences such as that certain types of stakeholder could be expected to have higher levels of power and thus resist more and in the course of enacting that they would behave more actively and overtly. These relationships allowed for the development of a stakeholder-power-resistance model as shown in Figure 17 which can be used by managers and change practitioners to understand, anticipate and respond to stakeholder resistance in change initiatives.

Keywords

Change management, resistance to change, power-base, stakeholder

Declaration

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

Adrian van Eeden

2nd November 2013, Johannesburg

Dedication

This research is dedicated to my wife Imke and to my two sons Angus and Tristan.

Imke you went through some storms of your own in the last two years, some of which were significant enough for you to have justifiably turned to me and said “enough bud, you need to help here,” but you didn’t. More than once you told me to suck it up and deal with the pressure, and handled my mad boys whenever I needed the space. Thank you for everything, I would never have got here without you.

To Angus and Tristan. Chaps, your dad has missed this time with you more than you can ever know. You both spent these months tip-toeing around the house and looking after mom without me. You’re awesome, and I am so proud of you. And this is it guys, I’m all yours now, let’s drive mom up the wall!

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1. Introduction to the Research Problem

1.1. Introduction

Change is a constant if not increasing factor influencing both personal and corporate life. These two domains are also interconnected as changes in the business context require individuals to respond; and personal changes can influence how someone will behave and respond in the workplace. The need to be able to adapt to change and to plan and manage change successfully is therefore at least as important in the modern organisation as it has been shown to be in previous generations.

1.1.1. Pace of Change

The rate of change is accelerating and will create increasing pressure on organisations to be able to respond (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008). Events such as new regulation, product, growth, increasing competition, technological developments and a changing workforce will place organisations under pressure to make at least moderate changes every year and major changes every four or five years. Change extends further than governments and organisations, to families and individuals. The pace of change today is starting to exceed people's ability to cope (Cummings & Worley, 2009). External events require firms to respond by developing new strategies and adapting their old ones, which in turn proscribe adjustments to internal structures (Ireland, Hoskisson, & Hitt, 2013). Change is driven from both external and internal pressures.

1.1.2. Environmental Factors

Even prior to 1990 research was being undertaken on the impact of climate change on the world economies by bodies such as the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, which was formed by the United Nations in 1998 to investigate the phenomenon (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2013) and by other parties such as Nicholas Stern (Nordhaus, 2007) who stated that climate change is "the greatest and widest-ranging market failure ever seen" which presents a unique challenge for economics.

Major environmental events are ongoing. Recent events such as Hurricane Katrina, the 2004 tsunami in the Indian Ocean, and the eruption of the Eyjafjallajökull volcano in Iceland in 2010 are examples of natural disasters which had direct and impacts on business. Katrina for example was estimated to have caused damages in excess of $140 billion (Burton & Hicks, 2005); a figure

that had a real effect on global insurance and underwriting capital liquidity, required state intervention, and which also impacted most of the firms operating in the region negatively for extended periods of time. The Icelandic volcano tied up airline traffic for weeks. Hansstein, Mazzocchi and Ragona (2010) estimate that the cost of this eruption was in excess of US $1.7 billion over a period of 6 days. Events such as these are disastrous and have a notable impact on business profitability.

Gradual changes also need a response. Iterative changes are often disregarded until very late at which point adaptation must be more radical. Shifts are altering what, where and how businesses can produce, the nature of their supply chains, and the costs of doing business. For example global warming is now changing the substance of agricultural regions globally. South African wine farming may soon be no longer feasible in the regions currently being farmed, whereas other regions such as the Eastern Cape might be more viable (Vink, Deloire, Bonnardot, & Ewert, 2012). Such effects require responses, which could be radical and rapid, or if well planned, strategic and pro-active.

1.1.3. Economic Factors

Other factors which are generally regarded as outside of organisational control include what could be considered more “man-made” but with the same or more extreme far-reaching consequences. Events such as the 2008 sub-prime crisis and subsequent recession, major company failures such as Enron and WorldCom which drove significant changes to legislation, dramatic shifts in the competitive landscapes, and globalisation with the introduction of new competition and game-changing strategies have all elicited responses from organisations which have had to adapt or else cease operating competitively.

1.1.4. Local Pressures

South Africa and the African continent have unique localised challenges. Africa has historically been underdeveloped and exploited by first world economies and only recently has the continent seen a form of liberation. The starting point for many African economies has been low and far higher instances of poverty and low economic growth exists than in many other regions of the globe. This bottom-of-the-pyramid situation requires different business strategies than comparable western organisation with opportunities such as the extremely high volumes of low-income consumers to tap into, but which also bear a greater burden of social

responsibility, with a need to empower and develop rather than just extract, and so different business models are required (Prahalad, 2005).

South Africa is faced with the pressure of late transformation as well, where an exploited majority population entered the world economy in 1994 from a base where there was very little commercial power and pressure is now being applied to business to accelerate transformation to a democratic and fair balance of power. Businesses operating in this environment are subject to social, political economic and management changes which are not the same as those elsewhere (Booysen, 2007). Organisations, both local and global, are required to implement policies and solutions which have different dynamics to those of a first world organisation, and powerful global multinationals are faced with these challenges when they enter these markets.

South Africa's unemployment rate is one of the highest in the world (The World Bank, 2012). The consequences of this include political uncertainty, unrest and violence, and hence have an effect on national security, global economic credibility, and skills acquisition and development which require new and different approaches.

1.1.5. Internal Pressures

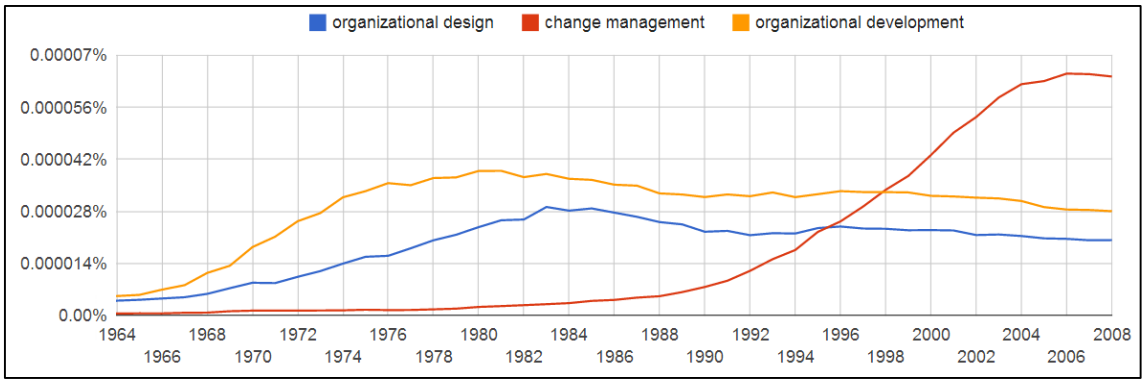
All profit making businesses must be competitive. Porter (2008) refers to five forces that impact a business strategy. These pressures are changing all the time. To continue to operate a business must continually innovate and adapt their products, processes and skills to remain viable. A young or creative business would potentially be focused on pro-actively creating new products and capturing the market (Greiner, 1998). A more mature organisation might be more focused on consolidating their position and managing overheads. To remain profitable and ensure ongoing existence all businesses must continuously respond to the actions from their internal environment, their competition, and to the uncontrollable factors discussed previously. These reactions more often than not result in different ways of doing work, in other words in change.

1.2. Need for Research

It therefore makes sense that to remain competitive, to stay in business, and to meet the expectations of as many stakeholders as possible, a business should be good at planning and managing the process of change. Change can be seen to be a universally important topic with as much if not more relevance today as in the past.

As an alternate point of reference searching for the terms change management, organisational design and organisational development (with Americanised spelling) on Google (2013) ngram provides a basic indication of how frequently the various phrases are references within their indexed literature (Figure 1) and gives a feeling of how much literature is still being generated. The downward curves on the graphs in the more recent years could be assumed to be less accurate representations of the real state as more modern literature is less likely to be in the Google database yet.

Figure 1. Frequency of references to "change management" (Google, 2013)



It is evident that the topic is still receiving significant attention. Accruing all frequencies of occurrence of all the themes would indicate that there is a still increasing output of literature on the subjects.

1.2.1. Existing Research

Research on change management dates further back than the middle of the twentieth century. Kurt Lewin (1951) is considered to have written one of the original and seminal works on the topic, having developed the three-phase model of change. The subject of organisational development and organisational design is considered to precede change management but contains many common themes; Porras and Silvers (1991) having written in a period where the two topics appear to be merging.

Change management themes range from topics such as why changes fail, resistance to change, leadership, stakeholder management (e.g. Freeman, 1984), and how to manage change (e.g. Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008). More recently literature seems to have shifted focus to managing self and personal change (e.g. Kegan & Lahey, 2009). The themes of stakeholders and power have also been present in research literature for many years and some of the themes also appear to be receiving less attention recently and could be assumed to have reached maturity or

plateaued. Stakeholder analysis is thought to have been defined by Freeman in 1984 (Freeman, 1984) but more recent research includes Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997). Power is well researched by academics including Kanter (1980), Greiner and Schein (1988), and Pfeffer (1992).

It may appear that some of the research themes are mature and require no further attention, however the literature review exercise done in chapter 2 did not reveal much work which considered the relationships between the themes. Particularly the linkages between variations of power such as sources and levels of power, and the dimension of resistance were under-represented.

Being able to plan for resistance in advance makes sense to project and change managers. The topic of stakeholder-analysis is a common theme in project planning exercises. Being able to predict stakeholder behaviour more accurately based on known aspects of their role and position would add value to these planning activities. This research therefore aims to consider the linkages between these variables.

1.3. Research Approach

This research was not aiming for a grand theory to solve all the change aspects identified above. The study attempted to build on a single aspect of change management, namely that of predicting resistance to change in stakeholders. The work considered relationships between stakeholder groups operating within change initiatives, the level and sources of power held, and resistance behaviours observed. This study will support the processes applied by any person planning or managing a change initiative. It should assist in identifying potential behaviours of stakeholders during a change planning or stakeholder analysis effort. Further research along the lines of how to respond to specific behaviour types could then allow change agents to develop contingency plans which would make for more efficient response to resistance, and even mitigation plans allowing for pre-emptive tactics to plan for behaviours before they occur.

Because change is a global phenomenon the need to manage change is relevant in the South African context. South African businesses operate in the global environment and are affected by the same pressures, as well as local pressures such as transformation. There is as much a need for effective change and stakeholder management in South African organisations as there would be in Western economies, or in dynamic markets globally.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

The literature review is intended to identify theory and previous results which are relevant to the topic (Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin, 2013). This study focused on three key areas, that of change management, stakeholder management, and power. Within change management the review aimed to understand resistance to change and specifically what studies have uncovered relating to types of resistant behaviour. There were no standard scales or measurement identified. This directed the research towards trying to understand the theme further through an exploratory approach. A number of different frameworks were isolated and contributed to this approach. Within stakeholder analysis the focus was initially to understand the identification and categorisation of groups and again no common groupings were identified on which the research could be structured so the data collection was again designed to be exploratory, using examples from Burke (2007) which provided a useful list of groupings. Mitchell et al. (1997) provided research which contributed further towards the alignment of stakeholder categories and power. The theme of sources of power or power-bases also provided a wide range of interpretations, leading towards further exploration.

The findings of the literature review have been combined to form the basis for the questions in Chapter 3 and frameworks identified in the review have provided the foundation of the interview structures.

2.2. Change Management

Change can be categorised as either strategic or incremental, reactive or anticipatory (Nadler & Tushman, 1990). If these two dimensions are aligned, four types of change can be identified, being adaption, tuning, re-creation and re-orientation. Strategic changes are further explained as environmentally driven. Change can also be episodic which results from a divergence of alignment of the organisation (such as could be expected during the recent economic recession) or continuous, which is evolutionary and a result of an organisation designed to adapt continuously (Quinn and Weick, 1999). Dunphy (1996) challenges that planned change is a result of people not succeeding in creating continuously improving organisations.

Change management is seen as encompassing interventions including process consultation, work restructuring, strategic HRM planning, and information technology solution design. It operates alongside strategy, business process, and technology, and aims to integrate all aspects of change. The role of the change manager is therefore integrative in nature. Change management is a team effort, with people complementing each other (Worren & Ruddle, 1999). Change should not only be managed, which means it must be planned, organised, directed and controlled, but it must also be led, considering vision, strategy, and support for a culture and values supporting the vision (Gill, 2003).

The change literature reviewed discussed change initiatives using various terms and phrases. The inclusion of two other themes (power and stakeholders) further diverges the discussion. It is therefore prudent at this point to define some common jargon. Throughout the literature review, the terms project, change initiative, and change venture have been used interchangeably by various authors. A project is defined by the PMI as "…a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product to service … temporary means that every project has a definite end. Unique means that the product or service is different in some distinguishing way from all similar products or services" (Burke, 2007, p. 16). This research respects the selection of authors' terminology but for the sake of clarity, the words project, change initiative or venture can be assumed to be the same thing.

2.2.1. Resistance to Change

The topic of resistance to change has been one of the fundamental studies in change management research. Resistance can come from both environmental factors and internal individualised factors (Lewin, 1951). There has been a fair amount of criticism of how research on resistance has been applied (Oreg, 2006) and many of the studies have now adopted a multi-dimensional approach to resistance, considering the dimensions of affective, cognitive and behavioural resistance (Piderit, 2000). Oreg (2006) put forward a model of resistance which separates and aligns three common themes, namely antecedents (or sources) of resistance to change; forms of resistance to change; and outcomes of resistance to change. Outcomes were not part of this study, but the model has been useful as it uses both individual and environmental factors as sources.

2.2.2. Sources of Resistance

Change resistance behaviour originates from predominantly psychological responses to phenomena, frequently based on emotional and subjective interpretation rather than objective methods. Baker (1989) states that people resist change because they fear the unknown. Causes of negative behaviour include concern about the effects of the venture; that people won't be properly equipped with the skills required to perform as well under the new regime; lack of awareness which being more involved in the process would support; fear of the impact to social relationships; being unaware why the change is required; lack of resources to implement the project; concerns that the values inherent in the change are not those that are currently in place; and a misaligned change climate. According to Hultman (1995) resistance can emanate from a person's state of mind; their facts (objective realities), beliefs (subjective assumptions), feelings and values. Some sources include the fact that the change won't benefit them because their needs are already being met (there is no incentive); the change will actually make it more difficult to meet their needs or will actually cause a worse situation (harm) to arise; the risks of executing the change outweigh the benefits; the change not being managed well; not having input into decisions relating to the venture; or a belief that the change will not succeed.

Piderit (2000) cautions against attribution error in the evaluation of resistance. Those in charge tend to blame others. She also identifies potentially positive sources of resistance; that people act according to their own personal ethical principles, and also that some people act because they believe there are issues which management should be made aware of which are beneficial to the organisation. Oreg (2006) talks about a person's disposition to resist change, i.e. that some people are more likely to resist than others. This is a personal source of resistance, including as self-esteem, a need for achievement, locus of control. Dispositional resistance has a relevant impact on a person's cognitive, emotional and intentional resistance as per Piderit (2000).

Whilst the literature above showed that strong personal characteristics are linked to resistance, there are also factors related to the relationship with the organisation or group which play a role. Trader-Leigh (2002) states that resistance can also be expected if change alters values and visions relating to the existing order. What satisfies one group can undermine another. She also defines other variables such as policy characteristics (e.g. clarity of goals, procedures and validity of policy), resources, multi-organisational structures, number of actors, attitudes, and perceptions of the implementing personnel. Her study identifies seven factors which affect change. Self-interest (people must benefit from the change); psychological impact (job security,

professional expertise, and social status); tyranny of custom (protection of the old order); the redistributive factor (loss of control, funding, policies and procedures); the destabilisation effect (service levels, impact to resources and capacity); culture compatibility (such as a participative vs. autocratic decision making process; flexibility vs. bureaucracy); and the political effect (threatening present arrangements, relations of position and power).

Resistant behaviour has also been collated into groupings which isolate factors such as emotion, cognition and action; personal and group; and personal, context, or process. Piderit (2000) talks to contextual resistance. Different aspects of context have different impacts on response. Impact on power and prestige – the changes to allocation of power, changes to control, and changes to influence – have a significant impact on cognitive resistance. Threats to job security show a strong relationship to affective or emotional reaction. Threats to intrinsic rewards (job satisfaction) can be related to affective and cognitive resistance. Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009) also separate the reasons for resistance into individual resistance comprising habit, security, economic factors such as change of income, fear of the unknown, and selective information processing; and organisational resistance, including structural inertia, limited focus of change, group inertia, threat to expertise, threat to established power relationships, and threat to established resource allocations. This aligns with Piderit's three faceted model (Piderit, 2000) as well as Oreg's interpretation (Oreg, 2006). Oreg (2006) goes further to relate sources of resistance to contextual resistance behaviours. Antecedents related to the process of change result more highly in behavioural resistance. He finds a few strong relationships. Trust in management relates strongly to cognitive resistance, but also affective and behavioural resistance. Social influence relates to affective resistance, and informational issues relate to cognitive.

2.2.3. Forms of Resistance

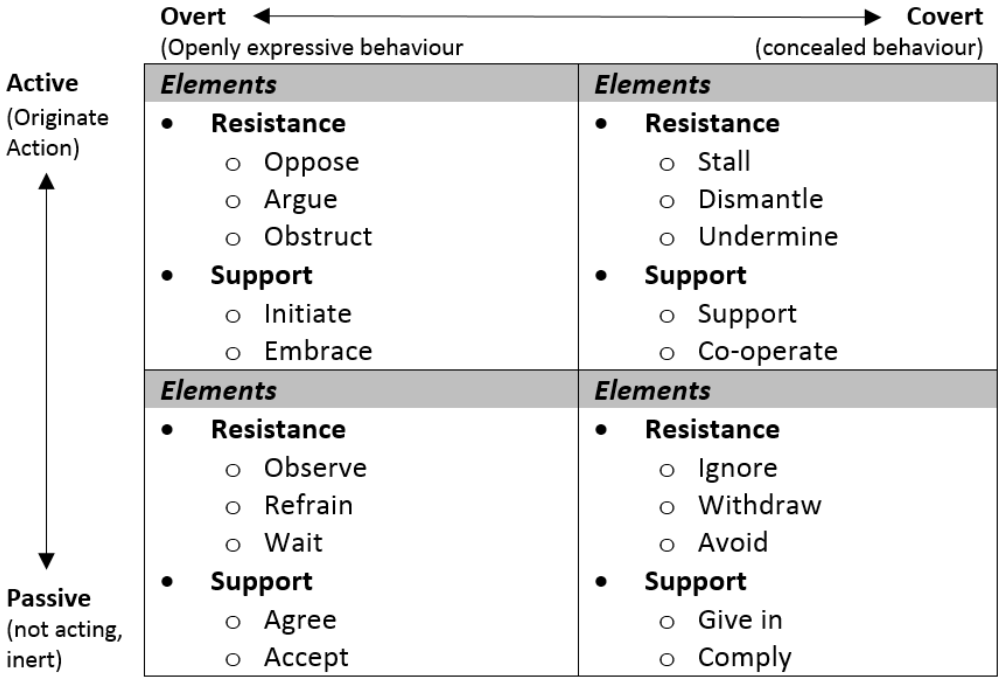
Because of the causes of resistance discussed in the previous section people could be expected to resist change in a variety of ways. The literature review uncovered far more material on the causes of resistance than on the actual manifestation of behaviour, but a number of categorisation frameworks were discovered ranging from a significantly granular approaches such as Hultman (1995) to a far more abstract approach, for example Piderit (2000).

Studies of this nature have taken on a dichotomous nature with strong polarity between different forms. At the abstract level Bovey and Hede (2001) provide a number of contrasts of resistance, being supportive versus resistant, active or passive, and covert or overt. This is

extended by Lines (2004) as strong or weak behaviours. Piderit (2000) has developed a multi-faceted view considering dimensions of response as cognitive, emotional and intentional or behavioural). This is aligned to social psychology of attitudes – the tripartite view of attitudes. Oreg (2006) reflects a similar view. Cognitive responses to change are the recipient's beliefs about the change. Cognitive resistance can manifest in forms such as a lack of commitment. Emotional (or affective) response alludes to the recipient's feelings, and intentional response reflects the recipient's actions or intention to act in response to the change. Examples of such responses include anger, fear or enthusiasm and in some cases these can occur simultaneously. Complaining and sabotaging ventures are examples of the last dimension being intentional (or behavioural) resistance (Piderit, 2000). Hultman (1995) groups resistance behaviours into active, and passive responses.

More specific and granular frameworks have also been developed which in some cases have been mapped to the abstract frameworks (for example Bovey and Hede, 2001). Giangrecco and Peccei (2005) refer to anti-change behaviours such as withdrawal of support for changes, covert resistance such as only doing the minimum of what is required, lack of co-operation and not managing the change with staff. According to Baker (1989) resistance can manifest as task avoidance or postponement, hostility (stated or unstated), resignation, and underproduction. Also identified was growing absenteeism, increasing employee impatience, frustration, and sabotage. Hultman (1995) provides more granular examples of resistance in each of his active and passive categories. Active resistance includes behaviours such as criticism, fault-finding, ridiculing, appealing to fear, selective use or distortion of facts, blaming or accusatory behaviour, sabotage, intimidation and threats, manipulation, blocking, undermining, rumour-mongering, and argumentativeness. Verbal agreement without follow-through, failure to implement, procrastination, feigning ignorance, withholding of information, participation or support, and standing on the side and allowing the change to fail are examples of passive resistance. Ambivalence, or an alternating perspective of two of these dimensions, can also determine the way a person responds. Bovey and Hede (2001) present a behavioural intentions matrix which can be used to map types of resistance behaviour as depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Framework for measuring behavioural intentions (Bovey & Hede, 2001)



2.2.4. Conclusion: Resistance to Change

The literature reviewed was not able to demonstrate cohesive alignment of types of resistance either at an abstract level or at a detailed level. Hultman (1995) provided a very specific list. By bringing in the dimensions of overt versus covert and active versus passive behaviour, Bovey and Hede (2001) also offered a way of assessing response which also gave specific examples. Table 1 maps the granular detail of change resistance behaviour types as identified by Hultman (1995) to the dimensions of action and intention as shown by Bovey and Hede (2001). This framework formed a useful structure from which exploratory analysis of resistance behaviours was based.

Table 1. Forms of resistance to change (from Hultman, 1995; Bovey and Hede, 2001)

	Overt	Covert
Active	○ Argumentativeness ○ Appealing to fear ○ Blaming or accusatory behaviour ○ Blocking ○ Intimidation and threats ○ Manipulation ○ Outspoken criticism ○ Ridiculing ○ Sabotage	○ Behind-the-scenes criticism ○ Fault-finding ○ Rumour-mongering ○ Selective use or distortion of facts ○ Undermining
Passive	○ Verbal agreement without follow-through ○ Failure to implement ○ Procrastination ○ Withholding of information, participation or support	○ Feigning ignorance ○ Withdrawal from the change ○ Avoiding the change ○ Standing on the side and allowing the change to fail

2.3. Stakeholders

The study was interested in the behaviour and power-bases held by stakeholders in a project. It was important to therefore be able to understand what the definition of a stakeholder is, how to identify stakeholders, and to assess their influence.

2.3.1. Definition

Freeman (1984) defines a stakeholder to be a group or individual who is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organisation's objectives. Reed (2008) extends this to any individual or group who are affected by or can affect the system. The Project Management Institute (PMI) defines project stakeholders as people who are actively involved in a new venture or project, or whose interests are impacted by the venture either during it or after (Burke, 2007). They include people internal to a project and external as well (Newcombe, 2010).

2.3.2. Stakeholder Management and Stakeholder Analysis

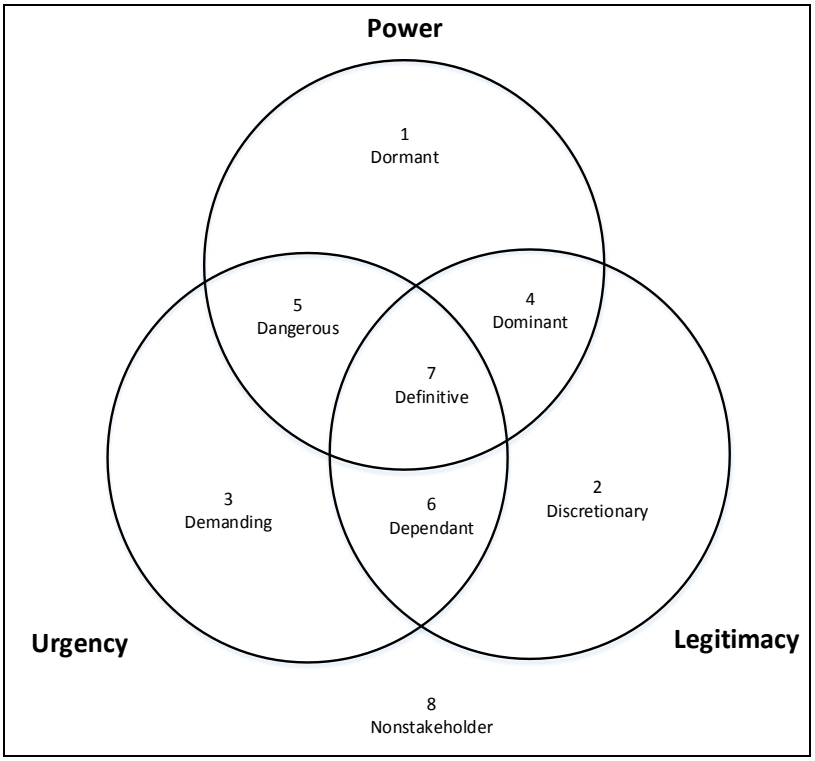
Freeman is attributed with coining the term stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984). He further defines stakeholder management as the methods used to manage the groups and relationships relevant to a strategy. Stakeholders often have conflicting needs but their knowledge and support make up an important asset to the project. It therefore necessary to be able to identify them to construct a project brief (Bourne & Walker, 2005).

Stakeholder analysis forms an integral part of stakeholder management (Yang, Shen, Bourne, Ho, & Xue, 2011). It can be seen to comprise (i) identification, (ii) analysis and measurement of stakeholder interest, (iii) prediction of future behaviour, and (iv) assessment of the impact of this behaviour (Bourne & Walker, 2005). Reed (2008) refers to the second step as differentiating and classification of stakeholders and also talks to understanding the inter-stakeholder relationships. Analysis frameworks generally focus on one of the above steps although some may cover multiple aspects (Reed, 2008). Yang et al (2011) assess a variety of approaches to analysis including the power/interest and power/predictability matrix (Newcombe, 2010; Yang et al., 2011). Analysis can and sometimes must be done without direct interaction with the stakeholder (Reed, 2008).

2.3.3. Identification

Project stakeholders include the person who originates the venture or identifies the opportunity, those who have a need for the venture (owners), those who provide funding and support (sponsors), those who are affected or operated within the boundaries of the change (users), those implementing the venture (staff or consultants), customers and suppliers who may be directly affected or indirectly affected, management who control the resources and workforce, strategic partnerships, shareholders, government, community and environment (Burke, 2007). Stakeholders can also be classified along three dimensions; having power, having legitimacy and having urgency towards the venture (Olander, 2007; Mitchell et al., 1997). On this basis we can see seven classifications emerging. Dormant stakeholders have power but don't use it, potentially because they have no interest or nearness to the project. Discretionary stakeholders have legitimacy but have no urgent claim and choose not to make claims on the project, although they could. Demanding stakeholders have an urgent requirement but don't have power or legitimacy. Dominant stakeholders are powerful and legitimate and but have no urgency. Dangerous stakeholders don't have legitimacy but have power and urgency. Dependent stakeholders have no power but have urgent and legitimate needs. Definitive stakeholders have power and legitimacy (see Figure 3). Bourne & Walker (2005) identify two approaches to stakeholder identification. Instrumental stakeholder theory where stakeholders are regarded as having agency or influence on the project, and Convergent Stakeholder Theory, which is about morally based relationships with stakeholders.

Figure 3: Stakeholder typology (Mitchell et al., 1997)



Identification of stakeholders, according to Yang et al. (2011) can be achieved through a number of means however the most common include the past experience of project managers, asking obvious stakeholders to identify others (snowball sampling), and focus groups. Semi-structured interviews and expert opinion are added to the list by Reed (2008)

2.3.4. Stakeholder Power and Influence

A number of stakeholder studies identified stakeholder power or stakeholder influence (deemed to be the same thing) specifically. Although the literature review specifically focuses on power, the fact that these dimensions have already been connected in past research bears consideration. The literature also talks to approaches in assessing power. It is useful to understand the sources of stakeholder power and the forms it comes in as they are the basis for many situations such as procurement and relationships, all of which can impact a venture. Stakeholders can be seen to hold a vested interest in a project which varies in intensity. Depending on their behaviour this can have an impact on a project (Bourne & Walker, 2005).

Newcombe (2010) uses the power/interest and power/predictability matrices to demonstrate that stakeholders are broader than the client, and that they have different interests in a project. Therefore they need to be assessed and managed throughout a change initiative. Assessment

of specifically stakeholder influence (or power) was determined by Yang et al. (2011) and Bourne and Walker (2005) to be most effectively achieved through having a higher authority or direction, focus groups, formal memos, interviews, meetings, power/interest matrix, professional services, questionnaires and surveys, social network analysis and stakeholder circle analysis. Reed (2008) identifies three approaches: top-down analytical categorisations (observational), bottom-up reconstructive (defined by the stakeholders), and relationship investigation.

2.3.5. Conclusion: Stakeholder Analysis

Based on Mitchell et al.'s (1997) Stakeholder Typology, Table 2 maps the three dimensions visually. By defining power, legitimacy and urgency in terms of Mitchell et al. (1997), an interviewer could use this matrix to identify stakeholders. By further extending the power discussion as discussed in the next section, a view of the stakeholder can be acquired. Burke (2007) provides a significantly large number of specific stakeholders which can be used to prompt during an interview.

Table 2. Stakeholder Typologies (Mitchell et al. 1997)

	Power	Legitimacy	Urgency
Dormant	X		
Discretionary		X	
Demanding			X
Dominant	X	X	
Dangerous	X		X
Dependant		X	X
Definitive	X	X	X

2.4. Power

Cummings and Worley (2009, p. 752) define power as "the ability to influence others so that one's values are satisfied. It may derive from several sources, including organisational position, expertise, access to important resources, and ability to reward and punish others." Robbins et al. (2009, p. 485) define power as the "capacity that A has to influence the behaviour of B so that B acts in accordance with A's wishes." It is seen as a potential, in other words that is does not have to be exercised, but is the capacity to do something. They go on to define the concept of dependency as a key component of a power relationship. The people falling under power (B) have a dependency on the people with the power (A) and the stronger this imbalance, the higher the power "A" has over "B". Economically, dependency is the equivalent to demand, and

therefore the lower the supply the greater the demand, hence the supplier's power. Factors affecting the dependency include the importance of the need, the scarcity of the resource required, and the availability of substitutes. "A" will exert very strong power over "B" if the thing "B" requires from "A" is very important to "B", it is scarce, and no alternatives can be found. If power is a potential, then politics is seen as the enactment of power (Pfeffer, 1992). Acquisition and use of power is often referred to as political behaviour. It is the "practical domain of power in action, worked out through the use of techniques of influence and other (more or less extreme) tactics" (Buchanan & Badham, 1999, p. 611).

Rosabeth Kanter (1980, p. 68) calls power "America's last dirty word," but goes on to observe that power is critical to effective management. Leaders with power are more likely to have the respect of their staff as they are seen to be able to influence improved status, and also to delegate duties. Leaders without power (powerlessness) is more likely to micro-manage and display unpleasant management practices such as punishment. Kanter (1980) defines power as the ability to mobilise resources (human and material) to get things done, and considers the true sign of power to be accomplishment. Bennis and Nanus (1985) say that power is the capacity to translate intention into reality and sustain it. In this light, power can be seen as a positive force of change.

2.4.1. Sources of Power (Power Bases)

Where power is derived from has been the topic of significant research. This concept has been defined as either the source of power, or as a power base in various literature. Schein (1985) defines a power base as a resource that allows a person to convince others to follow an idea. For the most part power bases need to be developed and maintained – they don't come with the job. Robbins et al. (2009) place power in two groupings; formal power, which comes from one's position in the organisation, and personal power, which is based on the individual characteristics of a person.

French and Raven (1959) group sources of power into five bases, and also consider how strong the influence of each is. The first three of their bases can be considered to make up the formal power grouping of Robbins et al. (2009). Reward power is the ability of the agent exerting power to reward the recipient (French & Raven, 1959). The strength is based on the magnitude or reward, and how attractive the reward is to the recipient. Rewards can be applied through actions such as increases, promotion, bonuses or recognition (Robbins et al., 2009). Coercive power is the opposite of reward, and looks at the ability of the agent to inflict negative

consequences on the recipient (French & Raven, 1959). As per reward, the strength of power depends on just how severe the consequences are and how the recipient receives them. Coercive power can include tactics such as threat of dismissal, loss of income, or demotion (Robbins et al., 2009). Legitimate power is the power an agent has based on the values that the recipient feels towards the agent's legitimacy, for example whether the person's upbringing causes them to respect hierarchy (French & Raven, 1959). Legitimate power is a person's formal right to make decisions (Robbins et al., 2009).

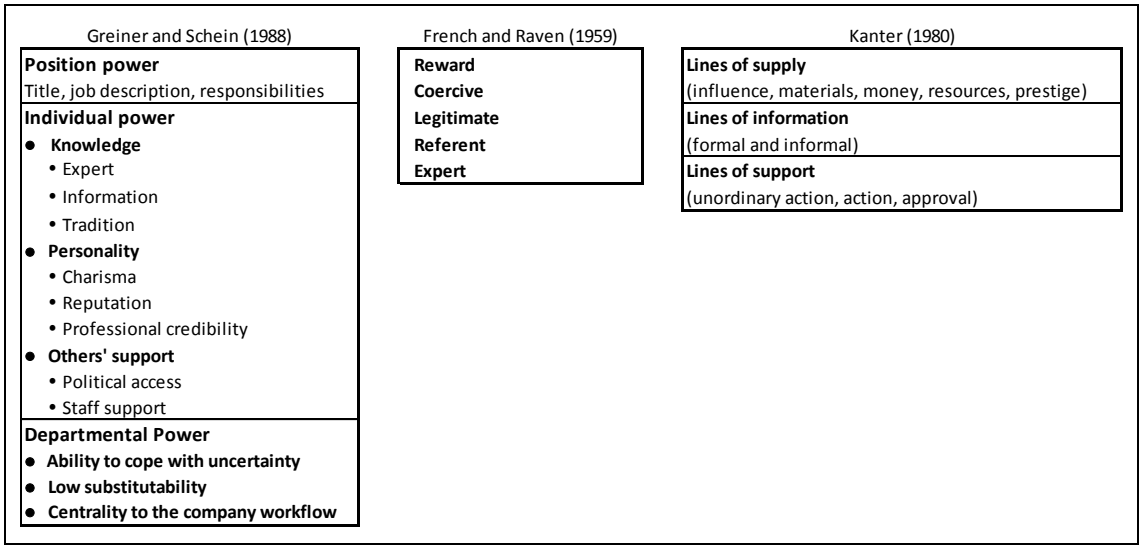
Robbins et al.'s (2009) definition of personal power includes expert, referent, information, and connection power. French and Raven (1959) define expert power related to the recipient's impression of how much knowledge the agent has specific to a context. They define referent power as how the recipient relates to the agent. The closer the person wants to associate to the agent the higher the level of referent power the agent has. Information power is where required data or information is only available through one person. Connection power exists when there is access to higher powered individuals who can support and influence (Robbins et al., 2009). Neither are included in French and Raven's (1959) analysis but are seen in studies by Kanter (1980) and Greiner and Schein (1988). The mappings are not as clear in these two studies and will be discussed in turn.

Kanter (1980) mentions two capacities which provide power, being access to resources, information and support; and the ability to get cooperation. She specifies three main sources, being lines of supply, lines of information and lines of support. Supply includes items that agents with power can acquire, such as money, material, and skills. Information includes not only explicit but tacit information. Support talks not only to direct skills but also the ability to make decisions autonomously. Kanter (1980) also refers to productive power, coming from being able to do ones job at one's discretion, having recognition, having the job be relevant to the fundamental organisational goals, being close to one's sponsors, having the correct relationships to peer-networks, and having strong subordinates.

Greiner and Schein (1988) go into further detail under three themes, positional, individual and departmental power. Positional power is related to the person's formal location in the organisation, and could be aligned to French and Raven's (1959) concept of Legitimacy. It talks to authority bestowed upon someone by job title, job description, and prescribed responsibilities. Individual power comprises power available to a person in acting. Power bases in this theme include knowledge, personality and other's support. The knowledge power-base includes power gained through having formal knowledge obtained through training or

experience (expert power), power gained through having the ability to create, withhold, distort or redirect relevant information (informational power), and power gained through having an intrinsic understanding of the organisation through seniority and tenure (traditional power). The personality power-base includes the strength of personality to convince and negotiate (charismatic power), the strength of impression of a person's capability and ability to succeed (reputational power), and the impression of the person's professional relationships (professional credibility). Power bases from other's support include having access to others in positions of power (political access), and having the support of one's team (staff support). Departmental power refers to the ability of a group to have power. Three main factors include the ability of the department to cope with uncertainty, or responsiveness, where a department adapting to a change fast might be seen as leading the way; low substitutability, often departments with specialists, or where staff do not share critical knowledge, and make themselves indispensable; and finally centrality to the workflow of the company, where a department might be seen as a key part of the fundamental goals and vision of the organisation.

Figure 4. Three studies on sources of power



2.4.2. Forms of Power and Power Strategies

Other than where power can be seen to come from (power-bases) it is also enacted in various forms as well. Goldhamer and Schils (1939) refer to three major forms of power: force, or a physical manipulation; domination, in which desires are explicitly made clear, and manipulation, where they aren't. Obviously forceful power is not frequently applied in organisations other than possibly in the military. The legitimacy of power is also considered here, versus coercion. Legitimate power is categorised as legal, traditional and charismatic power. Power can be exerted downward, which would be expected, by a superior over a subordinate. It can also be

applied upward from a subordinate to a superior, in attempts to influence (such as persistence, logical presentation of facts, coalition formation, and ingratiation). A third application of power is sideways, to one's peers, and is seen as one of the most commonly applied uses of power in organisations and taking up the majority of a manager's political efforts. (Greiner & Schein, 1988).

In a change venture power can also be exercised and developed in certain ways and behaviours. Examples from Schein's research (1985) include conservative and non-threatening posturing; creation of open discussion and conflict; alignment with powerful partners; building liaisons with other parties; trade-offs on less important aspects and requirements; rapid follow-up on successes; use of less intimidating tactics such as research projects and neutral projects to create a stronger base in future; gradual improvement or change rather than big-bang; or even total withdrawal from the venture.

2.4.3. Power and Resistance to Change

Change will upset the balance of power and therefore people will react to protect their threatened interests. They may be looking to protect their own power base, or to undermine that of the people implementing the change. Response tactics can include behaviours which are overt or covert, offensive or defensive (Schein, 1985). Some examples are considered in the resistance section of this chapter. Buchanan and Badham (1999) support the same view, adding that motivation can be either personal interest or organisational concern. Those against the change can be expected to also resort to political tactics.

Successfully implementing change and overcoming resistance also requires a strong degree of influence. Legitimate power is limited as change initiatives often cross boundaries and go against traditional values (Schein, 1985).

From this we can see that there are two areas where power and political behaviour could be found in a change venture. Firstly, the people affected by the change could be expected to use political tactics and their power bases to direct their resistance. Secondly, the change agent(s) will be expected to use power and political tactics (either theirs or their supporters') to influence the positive outcome of the change.

2.4.4. Diagnosis of Power

Researching power is difficult for a number of reasons. Power factors vary between organisations, and power situations are often subtle and underplayed. Discussing power is also a sensitive subject (Greiner & Schein, 1988). Data gathering processes are often third-hand, and techniques such as expert interviews and snowballing are frequently deployed. Suggested approaches include starting with a project sponsor, identifying the key players, then approaching them, and finally middle managers and other stakeholders. Questions should be carefully worded, to determine relationships, decision-making styles, relative power between parties, contextual implications of power, group power bases, distribution of power (e.g. top-down, or widely spread), how power is expressed (e.g. straight shooting or using coalitions), values that connect or divide those in power, and what the most visible ongoing activities are. Scenarios are also useful, for example discussing a situation where a disagreement was resolved (Greiner & Schein, 1988).

2.4.5. Conclusion: Power and Influence

Although other frameworks such as French and Raven (1959) and Kanter (1980) may be used in a study, neither is as practical to apply as Greiner and Schein (1988) who provide a comprehensive breakdown of power-bases which can be applied in practical research into sources of power.

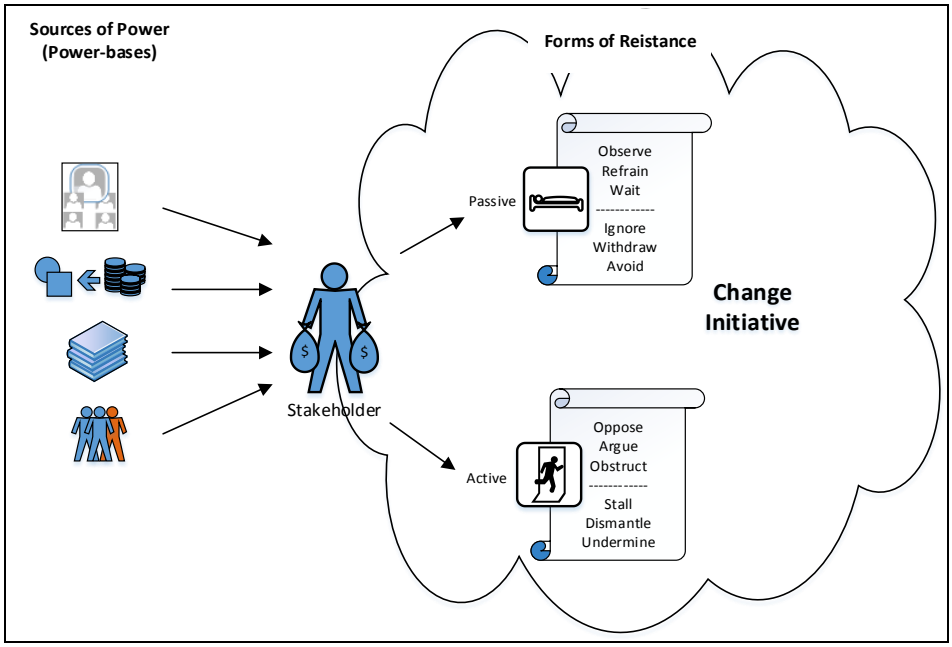
Table 3. Power-bases as depicted by Greiner and Schein (1988)

Position	
Legitimate	Title, job description, responsibilities
Knowledge	
Expert	Possession of specific knowledge acquired through studies or experience.
Information	Owning information which could be used to gain advantage through withholding, distorting, or redirection.
Traditional	Knowledge gained through experience and tenure, e.g. culture and values.
Personality	
Charisma	Ability to gain pride, trust and respect.
Reputation	Relative perception of others based on understanding of expertise and successes.
Professional Credibility	Access and involvement with professional external parties, access to these bodies, freedom of expression
Other's Support	
Political Access	Access to senior and influential people through channels other than legitimate hierarchy.
Staff Support	Amount of resource and ability available. Use of staff political relationships and agendas, control of information, access to expertise.

2.5. Conclusion

The literature has demonstrated a broad range of studies into the dimensions of stakeholder identification, resistance to change, and sources of power. Many articles refer to the impact or relationship of power on resistance to change (Mitchell et al., 1997; Oreg, 2006; Trader-Leigh, 2001; Piderit, 2000; Schein, 1985; Greiner & Schein, 1988; Buchanan & Badham, 1999; Kanter, 1980). There is no evidence however of studies having been performed specifically on the nature of the relationship between a stakeholder source of power (power-base) and their propensity to resist change in a certain manner see Figure 5). The study therefore aims to address this specific factor of analysis. The relationship between stakeholders, their sources of power with regards a change initiative, and the type of resistance that these stakeholders demonstrated will be investigated.

Figure 5. Relationship of power-base to stakeholder and resistance



3. Research Questions

Considering the literature review the research will determine how a stakeholder in a change initiative might resist change depending on the level of power and sources (bases) of power that they hold with respect to the project, and to determine if there are common relationships and themes based on the three dimensions of stakeholder groups, power and resistance.

3.1. Research Question 1: What were the stakeholder groups identified for the change initiatives?

The literature review has shown that identification of stakeholders on a change venture may not be consistently applied (Burke, 2007; Mitchell et al., 1997; Olander, 2007; Yang et al., 2011) however guidelines for identification were combined to provide more breadth as shown in the interview guide (Appendix A) and were used to categorise groups during data analysis. The first question will aim to broadly identify the key stakeholders in a change venture with any new insights from the interviews and categorise them into constructs which could be used to answer the later research questions.

Using the concept of a stakeholder being a group or individual who is either affected by or can affect achievement, in other words how they are related to the project, and that stakeholders extend further than those who are just internal to the company or organisation (Freeman, 1984), the research also intends to analyse how stakeholder groups in these two dimensions relate.

Hypothesis 1a

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to the organisation and stakeholder group relationship to the project are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

It was also useful to test whether there was any dependencies between the three different sample groups used in the interviews as in Table 5, and their observations of the two dimensions.

Hypothesis 1b

H_0: The variables of sample group type and stakeholder group type are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 1c

H_0: The variables of sample group type and stakeholder group relationship to the organisation are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 1d

H_0: The variables of sample group type and stakeholder group relationship to the project are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

3.2. Research Question 2: What levels of power and sources of power did each stakeholder group have?

A five-point ordinal scale was designed to assess how much power each group held over a project based on the framework of Greiner and Schein (1988). The dimensions of power and power-bases will be considered by each stakeholder group identified in Question 1 to determine the forms of influence over a project and power-bases which provide each group with influence or control over the initiative. In addition statistical tests for independence of variables will be performed on the constructs of stakeholder group, stakeholder group relationship to organisation, stakeholder group relationship to project, and power; and the same three stakeholder groupings and power-base, to determine if any relationships exist between these variables.

Hypothesis 2a

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group and levels of power are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 2b

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to organisation and levels of power are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 2c

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to project and levels of power are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 2d

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group and sources of power are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 2e

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to organisation and sources of power are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 2c

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to project and sources of power are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

3.3. Research Question 3: What forms of resistance were observed in the change initiative?

The literature demonstrated that there were a wide range of assessments of sources and forms of resistance but no empirical framework was evident. The framework developed in the literature review (Table 1) encompasses a number of researched manifestations of resistance as per Hultman (1995), Bovey and Hede (2001) and Oreg (2006) and attempts to categorise them into a simple and comprehensive guide for interviewing. Research Question 3 aims to collate and categorise all the types of resistance that were experienced in each initiative using the framework as a guide, but also observes if any unidentified forms of resistance other than those categorised through the literature occurred. It was thus exploratory in nature.

Hypothesis 3a

The specific dimensions of Behaviour and Action (Bovey and Hede, 2001) will be investigated further with a statistical test to assess their relationship.

H_0: The variables of behaviour (overt or covert) and action (active or passive) are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

3.4. Research Question 4: Was there a relationship between the type of stakeholder group and the form of resistance?

Research Question 4 attempts to perform further relational analyses. It focused on determining whether there is any relationship between the identified stakeholder groups (per Burke, 2007) and the forms of resistance observed by these groups (Bovey and Hede, 2001; Hultman, 1995). As this framework observes resistance in two dimensions the relationship between each of these will be considered separately. This research question can be extended to a number of hypotheses as follows:

The first three hypothesis consider the actual occurrence of resistance and consider the relationships between stakeholder groups, and the two dimensions of relationship to organisation and relationship to project as outlined by Freeman (1984).

Hypothesis 4a

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group and resistance occurrence are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 4b

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to organisation and resistance occurrence are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 4c

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to project and resistance occurrence are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

The next tree hypothesis consider the aspect of resistance action as shown by Bovey and Hede (2001) against the same stakeholder dimensions as the first three tests.

Hypothesis 4d

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group and resistance action are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 4e

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to organisation and resistance action are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 4f

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to project and resistance action are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

The final three tests in this section tested resistance behaviour (Bovey and Hede, 2001) against the same stakeholder dimensions.

Hypothesis 4g

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group and resistance behaviour are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 4h

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to organisation and resistance behaviour are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 4i

H_0: The variables of stakeholder group relationship to project and resistance behaviour are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

3.5. Research Question 5: Was there a relationship between stakeholder power and the type of resistance demonstrated?

To answer the final question a comparison will be done between the dimensions of stakeholder power and stakeholder power-bases identified in Question 2 and the forms of resistance from Question 3. This will allow assessment of whether there is some way that resistance to change relates back to power and whether it would be possible for a prediction to be made prior to initiating a venture (assuming future research).

Hypothesis 5a

H_0: The variables level of power and occurrence of resistance are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 5b

H_0: The variables source of power and occurrence of resistance are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 5c

H_0: The variables level of power and action are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 5d

H_0: The variables level of power and behaviour are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 5e

H_0: The variables source of power and action are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

Hypothesis 5f

H_0: The variables source of power and behaviour are independent of each other.

H_1: The variables are not independent of each other.

4. Research Methodology and Design

4.1. Research Method

The research was undertaken as a single phase initiative. The research was exploratory as new insights were expected from the discussions and the researcher was looking to understand more about the topic (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). The reasoning behind this was that although the literature review revealed that there was a significant amount of material available within all three dimensions, namely stakeholder analysis, power and influence and power-bases, and forms of resistance to change, and that there was evidence of acknowledgement of the relationship between power and resistance - "...a reactive process where agents embedded in power relationships actively oppose initiative by other agents" (Piderit, 2000, p. 784) - no specific studies of cause and effect could be identified across the themes.

Due to the deeper insights required from the research and the potential sensitivity of the topics, formal methods of data gathering such as surveys were not adequate. The respondents would be asked questions relating to projects which were close to them and about people they had worked closely with. As the data was often highly sensitive a more intimate form of research was required. In-depth interviews involve social and interpersonal interaction and build on intimacy (Gubrium & Holstein, 2001). Based on this the research was undertaken in the form of semi-structured, in-depth interviews. An interview guide with data collection sheets was designed to ensure that the key questions were answered in sufficient detail to support the data analysis. Data collection sheets allowed the interviewer to capture structures and common information faster and limited the need to later transcribe and code data (see Appendix A).

According to Zikmund et al. (2013) qualitative research methods allow the researcher to be more elaborate in interpretation of phenomena and to gain new insights. It was necessary to use customised versions of existing frameworks for the three dimensions (as shown in Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3 earlier in the report) and qualitative techniques were used to codify the content from the interviews and determine if any new aspects came out. However to investigate more deeply the relationships between certain constructs more quantitative structures and statistical testing were introduced in the questions as well. Quantitative data can be split into categorical and numerical data (Saunders & Lewis, 2012) and in this research ordinal scales and other nominal forms were used to allow for variable independence tests.

4.2. Population

The population is the complete set of group members likely to be available to the research (Saunders & Lewis, 2012) which shares the same set of characteristics (Zikmund et al., 2013). The population for this study consisted of experts who had driven or were driving change across any project resulting in significant impact to an organisation. To broaden the study the experts were selected from three areas known to drive change, namely external change experts such as change consultants, internal organisational design and human capital management such as organisational design and human resource managers, and technical drivers of change such as business strategy, information technology and process management roles.

4.3. Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis is the level of aggregation determined for measurement, such as what or who can provide the data (Zikmund et al., 2013). The research was focused on the perceptions of the people who had managed changes as the unit of analysis.

4.4. Sampling

Fifteen experts were interviewed from various projects during the research. To minimise history, maturation and mortality effect, projects were selected which were recent. They could be incomplete but should not have been completed more than five years prior to the commencement of the research. Appendix B includes a list of the interviews and a summary of the projects and industries covered in the interviews.

Judgement or purposive sampling is a non-probability sample selection technique where experts select the members of the sample using their judgement (Saunders & Lewis, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2013). The selection of members for the sample came from people known or introduced to the researcher who were assessed based on their experience with change projects. Criteria for evaluation of each member included those identified in Table 4.

Change initiatives studied varied in complexity of parameters such as scope, duration, impact, and cost. As resistance was a common response across most forms of change the type of initiative was not relevant to the study. What was relevant however was the perceptions of the sample members.

Judgemental sampling does introduce the risk of bias because the nature of change ventures is such that they are diverse enough as to introduce other variables which could corrupt random sampling techniques. Further broadening of the sample base was through quota sampling.

Table 4. Sample member selection criteria (judgemental selection)

The specific change initiative which will be researched with the member	• Type of change initiative • Size of the change initiative in terms of factors such as investment, number of people impacted, and number of people involved. • Duration of the change initiative
Involvement in the initiative	• Were they in control of the project (preferred) or part of a project team? • What was their personal investment in the initiative? In other words how objective can they be expected to be?
Experience	• How much experience do they have in managing change in terms of years of experience, number and type of projects, and successes and failures?

Quota sampling is a non-probability sampling method which ensures that there is adequate representation of the characteristics desired from the population (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). To obtain broader perspectives from the subjects three groupings were used. Five experts were selected from an external change management role which included people who did not work within the organisation in which the project occurred and who were brought in specifically to work in an areas of change specific to a project. This included people such as consulting change managers, project managers and organisational design practitioners. Five people were selected with more internal organisational roles focused on the management of the human side of the change, such as organisational design, job profiling, training and human resources managers. The last five interviewees were from roles which drive change more technically. These included people who were more focused on the process, technology systems, and even to some degree business strategists with financial directives. These parameters are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Quota sample design

Sample Source	Examples	Segment Size
External change specialists	• Change management consultants • Project managers • OD consultants	5
Internal drivers of change (human capital focus)	• Human resource management • OD management • Training and development	5
Internal drivers of change (technical focus)	• IT management • Process management • Financial Management • Business Strategy (non-human)	5

Snowball sampling is employed when the initial population members are not evident up front (Saunders and Lewis, 2012). This approach was utilised very basically do identify further interview candidates who could provide useful input into the research by asking interviewees for references.

4.5. Data Collection Method and Tools

Data was collected in face-to-face, semi-structured, in-depth interviews with experts. Sessions lasted around an hour each and followed rough interview guidelines. The use of this process allowed the researcher to address the topics of power and resistance more sensitively, and to use more intimate means of engagement to attempt to acquire more data (Gubrium & Holstein, 2001). This approach also permitted flexibility in approach, for example certain executives were less interested in the use of data collection sheets and preferred to talk directly, with prompting.

Prior to each interview a written letter of consent was provided and signed, which also set out the obligation of the interviewer to white-label any people, projects or organisations where sensitive information might have been obtained. A few cases required absolute anonymity which has been respected.

The use of a semi-structured guideline (see Appendix A) ensured that all topics were covered. The guideline was designed around the major themes and the sequence to follow and included data collection sheets for each section. The sequence laid out in the guide also intended to limit the bias that one section could have had on another, for example if resistance was discussed prior to identifying stakeholders the groups identified later might have omitted people who did not resist. Prior to each interview the guide and data collection sheets were printed and used

as recording tools. The first sheet was for summary data about the interviewee such as their level of experience, and about the project. The first dimension covered was stakeholder groups. A table print-out was included for this which allowed the interviewer to capture identified groups directly as the interview progressed. Following this power was discussed and a five-point ordinal scale as per Table 6 was included on the same sheet, captured by stakeholder group, as well as a matrix for recording of categories of sources of power. Once these two dimensions were completed resistance behaviours were noted per stakeholder group, initially on a separate table but it was soon observed that this approach was too specific and the interviewees preferred to talk more openly so the behaviours were recorded in notes and filled in later. The guide also included prompts to inform the interviewer when they could use other mechanisms such as cards, but as the process was repeated and the interviewer became familiar the data collection sheets became the main vehicle used in the interviews.

Prompt cards were developed to assist the interviewer in acquiring detail at each specific section, however the use of formal frameworks in the interviews was limited to ensure that the respondents' discussion was based on their own assessment. Specific frameworks were only used when respondents were unable to provide sufficient detail for a particular question. Prompt cards were included for stakeholder types (based on Burke, 2007), for forms of resistance (Table 1) and for power (Table 3). A five-point ordinal scale was also formulated to ensure that the levels of power were standardised (see Table 6). This scale was based on the project management triple constraint of scope, budget and schedule (Burke, 2007) and assumed that scope was the most important aspect as it reflected the customer's requirements.

Table 6. Levels of power over project

#	Description
1	Had no influence over the project.
2	Had minor influence over the project but would not have been able to cause major impact – e.g. couldn't through influence cause a material change to the resourcing, scope or timing.
3	Could influence the initiative in a way which might affect the budget or timing, but the initiative could still be achieved within the boundaries laid out with adjustment (e.g. more budget, change of schedule).
4	Could have a major impact on the direction of the change (i.e. the scope of the project, duration etc.), such as being able to force a change to the scope of the initiative from the original plan, or significantly affecting the desired outcomes (e.g. required returns).
5	Through their influence could cause the project to fail outright (e.g. cancelled, or withholding of critical resources).

4.6. Pilot Interviews

Prior to commencing the formal sessions a pilot testing phase was undertaken to assess the duration of each section of the interview and to refine the data collection method.

The first pilot interview was held with a training project manager. The objective of this interview was less focused on content and more to look at the flow of the interview guideline, to familiarise the interviewer with the content and the tools being used, and to get a feel for the duration. Based on this pilot quite a few changes were made to the data collection sheets, and to the flow of the interview guidelines. The timing of the interview was found to be almost exactly an hour and acceptable.

The second test was held with a project manager known to the researcher who had extensive change management experience. This session had the same objectives as the first based on the altered material, but also to look at the content itself. It was decided after this session to remove the specific frameworks from the interview discussion, and to rather do the mapping afterwards. The interviewee also recommended sending some guidelines to interview subjects a week prior to any interviews so that they could think about their responses in advance and ensure they picked a useful project.

Once the pilots had been completed the first five formal interviews were held with known people in the change management space who were likely to be more sympathetic to mistakes in the process and who provided constructive feedback on amendments.

The final design of the interview was less structured than originally planned with more use of in-depth interviewing and post-interview collation. The data collection approach however did also mean that post-interview analysis could be performed relatively quickly as the three themes formed the main agenda and the topic was guided along these. Appendix A includes the final form of interview guide and material.

4.7. Data Analysis

4.7.1. Initial recording and analysis

All interviews were subject to an initial inductive qualitative analysis process. Inductive analysis allowed for changes to the research approach and refers to a methodology which moves from observations and generalisations towards a hypothesis or answer through the analysis of patterns (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). This was well suited to the research proposed, not only on the content, but also the interview approach which was adjusted in the early period of the interviews to ensure smoother flow as has been mentioned.

All sessions were recorded on two forms of media for redundancy; a digital voice recorder and an electronic pen. Recordings were archived electronically in WMA file format. All notes including the data collection sheets and written notes were scanned and archived.

Data analysis was performed post each interview and once again when all data was captured. Analysis at the end of each interview was required to ensure that all sections of the interview guideline had been completed and to identify any new variables or data constructs which could be added to future interviews. Data content analysis was undertaken directly from the recordings, extracting key themes as defined by the frameworks which were used in the interviews (Mitchell et. al, 1997; Bovey & Hede, 2001, Burke, 2007) codified and aggregated into digital format on a master Excel spreadsheet. Insightful quotes were also extracted at this point as well for later use in the report.

4.7.2. Aggregated qualitative analysis

Analysis of the final collated interview data followed two tracks. The first objective was to analyse the interviews once again to determine common patterns and new trends across all interviews. Key themes had already been captured in the post-interview analysis. Themes were transformed into workable data in the forms of ranked-order tables and contingency tables

assessing how often themes occurred and how variables related to each other in line with the questions laid out in chapter 3 and the frameworks chosen for the interviews (see Appendix A).

4.7.3. Aggregated quantitative analysis

Prior to the aggregated analysis the research questions had specified one statistical test to be performed to answer research question 5. As the analysis progressed a number of additional relationships were identified and added in to support other questions, ending up with a significant number of hypotheses which required quantitative analysis.

The data collection sheets and content of the notes taken during the interviews were standardised to the selected frameworks and captured onto a larger data mapping spreadsheet. This allowed the analysis to be performed across the full data set to look for trends and relationships. Because the variables are nominal a Pearson's chi-square test appeared to be the best method of assessing the relationship between key dimensions (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). A chi-square test is used when testing independence between two nominal-scale variables (Weiers, 2011). The test can be performed across multiple rows and columns however is not considered accurate when any cell contains frequency counts lower than five. Once data collation was completed about half of the hypothesis proved to be suitable to a standard chi-squared test.

An Exact test allows researchers to perform the same statistical tests (Pearson's chi-square in this case) where there are a small number of case variables which need to be broken down into subgroups, and where there are expected cell counts below fiver, for example where there are rare occurrences (IBM, 2011). This was suited to a lot of the data acquired in this research and the test was applied to various relationships to test independence. Most of the remaining hypothesis used this method.

In some cases the Exact tests were unable to complete due to insufficient computational resources. The alternative to an Exact test is the Monte Carlo Estimate method which is recommended when data sets are too large for the Exact tests and provides an unbiased estimate of the exact *p*-value without the requirements of an asymptotic method (Mehta & Patel, 2011) and which results in a p-value far closer to the Exact results. This was used in two tests.

4.8. Reliability and Validity

Relevance relates to whether the data collected are pertinent to the research being applied (Zikmund et al., 2012). The use of a consistency matrix (Appendix C) assisted in ensuring relevance.

The selected projects had to be recent. Active projects were expected to introduce subject bias in the form of emotional responses, as well as non-response challenges, however judgement was used to determine the potential for this. If the change expert was objectively remote from the project an active initiative could be used. Projects that had completed too far in the past would have suffered from mortality in the form of respondents having left the organisation, and history threat which would imply that changes since completion could have altered the perceptions of the respondents.

4.8.1. Reliability

According to Saunders and Lewis (2012) reliability refers to data collection and analysis being consistently accurate regardless of source. Due to the qualitative nature of the study and the diversity of opinion around the units of analysis it was difficult to ensure a consistent outcome at all times. To better support a reliable outcome both the quota-sampling of change experts across three areas and the judgemental selection of change initiatives upon which the research was performed were designed to cross as broad a range of possibilities as possible. The study considered fifteen interviews however extending this could improve reliability further. The use of multiple frameworks from the literature reviews also lent towards ensuring that many of the categories identified could be grouped according to some standard.

4.8.2. Validity

Validity is the extent to which a measure accurately represents the concept (Zikmund et al., 2012). An assumption was made that because the bases for the interview questions were previous studies this data had validity. The qualitative aspect of the study was expected to possibly also identify if there were new or missed categories in any of the covered dimensions, which would contribute towards whether the study demonstrated content validity, or that the frameworks used covered the breadth of the domain (Zikmund et al., 2012).

4.9. Assumptions and Limitations

The research had to take into account and control for a number of factors. There would be personal biases from each of the interviewees, both conscious and unconscious, depending on their closeness and personal relationship to the change initiatives. History and maturation effect may also have been present in that there may have been more emotional responses to a current or recently completed project than an older initiative.

Response bias occurs when subjects either consciously or unconsciously provide inaccurate responses (Zikmund et al., 2013). It was not possible to determine if a response was untrue. The larger the number of units of analysis gathered across subjects the less likely this was to occur.

The interviews were performed by one person. Instrumentation effect might be considered to have been present based on fatigue or loss of interest over time and the application of a different manner to conducting the sessions. The guideline supported a more consistently applied data collection.

The research also assumed that the interviewees would have an objective and broad view of their subjects rather than having an opinion. The guidelines and use of frameworks, and segmenting the different themes from each other attempted to dilute this bias.

Findings could also be biased based simply on the wide range of project types and industries. This should be extended with further research to a variety of projects considered in terms of people, costs, impact and heterogeneity of initiatives.

Covert resistance was also seen to be less observable than overt resistance and findings may lean towards more overt actions which the sample group were more able to observe.

4.10. Ethical Considerations

The topics of power and resistance to change have negative connotations in business. The research was in some cases based on third party observation but also people who were directly involved in the projects. Specific projects, companies and individuals were identified. Some of the projects discussed were publically visible. All of the organisations involved were well known and in most cases listed entities. Many of the people interviewed were at a senior level in either the organisations discussed, or were highly regarded consultants with reputations to maintain.

Anonymity of the organisations and people identified in the discussions, the interviewees, and the change initiatives was necessary, however the form of analysis ensured that no names were necessarily identified in the final report. The material used during the interviews was held securely and confidentially.

5. Results

This section presents the results of the data collection process outlined in Chapter 4. Chapter 6 will then further analyse the outcomes for insights. The format of this section starts with a description of the results to provide context and then goes through the data in the same structure as the questions laid out in Chapter 3. The structure aims to iteratively build up to a complete model of the three main dimensions (stakeholders, power and resistance) by developing each independently and then considering the relationships between them.

5.1. Descriptive data

A total of fifteen interviews were held the details of which are shown in Appendix B including the companies, sectors and details of the projects. Due to the sensitivity of the content confidentiality was established prior to the interviews and any detail which could identify the interviewees was removed. This detail is not considered relevant to this research which aggregates data.

As per the research design five people were interviewed from three different sample segments, these being external consultants, internal human resource (HR) experts, and internal technical experts.

Within the external consulting grouping two people were change managers, one was from an organisational design role, and two were project managers. From the internal HR grouping two people had been HR executives, one was an internal HR manager, one was in talent management, and one was an HR consultant who was independently contracted into an HR management role in an organisation. Internal technical respondents showed a broader range of experience, including two IT executives (CIO level), a Chief Financial Officer, the Director of non-core investments in a listed company, and a CEO. Table 7 summarises the interview sample groupings.

Table 7. Interviewee Categories

Interviewee Category	Count
Internal - HR/OD (People)	5
Internal - Tech/Process	5
External - Change / Project Manager	5
Total Interviewees	**15**

5.1.1. Projects and organisations

The interviews discussed fifteen separate projects across thirteen different businesses. In the two companies which were visited twice the projects were not related and the people involved were from different business areas. The first of these was an insurance brokerage and the two projects were a business divestment and a merger occurring at different times. The second was a beverages business and the two projects were a restructure and a merger, also occurring at different times and controlled by different areas. The projects originated in nine different sectors although eight of the fifteen companies were from financial services -focused industries. This is summarised in Table 8.

Table 8. Project sectors

Sector	Count
Consumer Finance	3
Insurance brokers	3
Banks	2
Brewers	2
Airlines	1
Government	1
Integrated oil and gas	1
Public services	1
Speciality chemicals	1
Total Count	**15**

The type of projects also covered a broad range of applications. There were three mergers, one winding up of a business, four centralisation or consolidation projects, one geographic expansion, one new business strategy, and four process and system implementations. Of the projects eight had been completed successfully, four were still in progress or in a subsequent phase, and three had failed per the opinions of the interviewees. The definition of project status was not formalised and not considered relevant to the research although future research may consider the aspect of the impact of status on resistance. The broad range of companies, sectors and project types covered allowed the researcher to acquire a more composite view of the results.

5.2. Research Question 1: What were the stakeholder groups identified for the change initiatives?

The first question focuses on the dimension of stakeholder groups in isolation with three ways of categorisation, by groups identified and categorised, by group relationship to the organisation in which the change initiative occurred and by group relationship to the change initiative itself. Once the change initiative had been identified respondents were asked to identify all the key stakeholders on these projects, i.e. groups which were affected by or could affect the initiative (per Freeman, 1984). An average of 8 groups were mentioned per project as shown in table 9.

Table 9 . Number of stakeholder mentions by project.

																Total
Project number	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	
Stakeholder mentions	11	7	4	11	7	12	10	10	6	7	6	5	11	5	8	**120**
Average number of projects																**8**

From all the interviews a total of 120 mentions of stakeholder groups were documented. Detailed content analysis on this data using Burke (2007) as a primary source for category allowed the groups to be collapsed into the ten key stakeholder group themes shown in Table 10. During this process it was important to understand the context of the group in relation to their organisation and the project to be able to categorise, for example a CEO in one mention might be considered an executive management group but was placed in a Line category because they reported to a more senior committee. Common themes which came out included management or staff, levels of management (e.g. director or line management), internal or external stakeholders, government, and implementation teams.

Table 10. Stakeholder group frequencies

Stakeholder group mentions*	**Stakeholder group theme**	**Frequency**
Employees; sales areas; units that are impacted; functional communities; investment bankers; operations; employees of municipality; business units; junior / technical staff; staff	Staff	22
Business Executive; Divisional MD; Organisational executive; Directors; Exco; Business unit CEOs; Municipal management team; Mayor; Board	Directors and Executive management	22
Ops committee; regional lines; line management; facilities management; incumbents in positions; internal revenue (finance); management team	Line / Operational management	22

Stakeholder group mentions*	Stakeholder group theme	Frequency
(ops); functional heads; middle management; head of TM (customer); technical managers; transaction managers; HR team; human resources; senior managers; management team; divisions		
Internal IT; project teams; change management; OD; project manager; IT department	Project team	11
Shareholders; Board; Africa companies; new shareholder; shareholder group; family stakeholders	Shareholders / Group	10
Customers, pension funds; trustees; other programmes / portfolios; dealers; public; clients	Customers	10
Suppliers; staff (context); funders; legacy service provider; new service provider; partners	Suppliers (upstream)	9
Sponsor (name); sponsor (role); chairman; process sponsors (ownership); COO; CEO	Sponsors	7
Unions	Staff representatives (Unions)	4
Regulator; government	Government / Regulation	3
Total stakeholders identified		**120**
Count of unique constructs		**10**

** Some key specifics have been removed for confidentiality*

To support inferential testing the ten groupings were further collapsed into four sets of data as per Table 11. Freeman (1984) identified stakeholder groups with either internal or external relationships to an organisation (for example staff or communities) and also groups with different relationships to the project, either having an affect or being affected. These two major themes were used to create four key sub-categories of stakeholder group. Internally related stakeholder groups were split between those who could be expected to be affected by change such as staff and those who could be expected to have more of an affecting ability or a more direct interest in the change such as management. Although there were overlaps, those with what was considered to be more direct control were grouped in the latter group. External stakeholders were similarly split between those who would generally be expected to have been affected (for example customers and suppliers), and those who held a more direct affect (for example external shareholders and unions).

Table 11 . Reduced grouping of stakeholders

Final stakeholder groups	Stakeholder group theme	Frequency
Internal (can affect)	Directors and executive management Line / Operational management Project team Sponsors	62
Internal (affected)	Staff	22
External (affected)	Customers Suppliers (upstream)	19
External stakeholder (can affect)	Government / Regulation Shareholder / Group Staff representatives (Unions)	17
Total stakeholders identified		**120**

5.2.1. Stakeholder typologies

Mitchell et al. (1997) was also considered as an alternative way of grouping stakeholders. This data is shown in Table 12 with modal categories calculated by column (black being the highest count and grey the second). For example non-stakeholders made up the highest proportion of customers.

Table 12 . Stakeholders using Mitchell et al. (1997)

	Customers	Directors and Executive management	Government / Regulation	Line / Operational management	Project team	Shareholders / Group	Sponsors	Staff	Staff representatives (Unions)	Suppliers (upstream)	**Totals**
Nonstakeholder	**6**	1	1	**6**	1	0	0	5	1	2	**23**
Dormant	0	5	0	2	**4**	0	0	**10**	0	1	**22**
Discretionary	0	1	0	1	3	1	0	2	0	0	**8**
Dominant	1	5	**2**	1	1	**5**	1	0	0	1	**17**
Demanding	1	3	0	**6**	1	0	0	1	0	**4**	**16**
Dangerous	2	0	0	3	0	1	0	3	**3**	0	**12**
Dependant	0	1	0	3	0	0	1	1	0	1	**7**
Definitive	0	**6**	0	0	1	3	**5**	0	0	0	**15**
Totals	**10**	**22**	**3**	**22**	**11**	**10**	**7**	**22**	**4**	**9**	**120**

5.2.2. Variation of observations by sample group

The variation of perspective by the different sample groups (internal HR, internal technical, and external consultants) was also considered and is shown in Table 13, Table 14 and Table 15. This allowed for a consideration of differences of opinions between the different types of change owners who were interviewed.

Table 13. Stakeholder groups identified by internal HR

Stakeholder Group Type	Frequency
Staff	9
Line / Operational management	9
Directors and Executive management	7
Project team	5
Staff representatives (Unions)	3
Sponsors	2
Customers	2
Suppliers (upstream)	1
Government / Regulation	1
Shareholders / Group	1
Total Stakeholders identified	**40**
Count of unique constructs	**10**

Table 14. Stakeholder groups identified by internal technical

Stakeholder Group Type	Frequency
Shareholders / Group	9
Directors and Executive management	6
Staff	4
Line / Operational management	2
Customers	3
Suppliers (upstream)	3
Government / Regulation	2
Project team	2
Sponsors	1
Total Stakeholders identified	**32**
Count of unique constructs	**9**

Table 15. Stakeholder groups identified by external consultants

Stakeholder Group Type	Frequency
Line / Operational management	11
Staff	9
Directors and Executive management	9
Customers	5
Suppliers (upstream)	5
Project team	4
Sponsors	4
Staff representatives (Unions)	1
Total Stakeholders identified	**48**
Count of unique constructs	**8**

Reverting to the collapsed four stakeholder groupings as identified earlier allowed the population of Table 16 which depicts the number of major stakeholder groupings identified by each sample group.

Table 16. Summarised stakeholder groups by sample group

Collapsed	Frequency
Internal - HR/OD (People)	
Internal (can affect)	23
Internal (affected)	9
External (can affect)	5
External (affected)	3
Total stakeholders identified	**40**
Internal - Tech/Process	
Internal (can affect)	11
External (can affect)	11
External (affected)	6
Internal (affected)	4
Total stakeholders identified	**32**
External - Change / Project Manager	
Internal (can affect)	28
External (affected)	10
Internal (affected)	9
External (can affect)	1
Total stakeholders identified	**48**

5.2.3. Hypothesis 1a (stakeholder group relationship to project & stakeholder group relationship to organisation)

To answer this question Table 11 was used comparing the two dimensions identified by in the literature as depicted in Freeman's research (1984) namely that of relationship to the project

and relationship with the organisation. Plotting these frequencies resulted in Table 17. This model has been called the Stakeholder Group Relationship Matrix. Examples of specific groups coming from Table 11 as fitting the quadrants are executive management who are internal to an organisation and can affect the project, or suppliers to the organisation, who are externally related and are more often affected by a project.

Table 17. Stakeholder group relationship matrix

		Relationship to project		
		Affected	Can affect	
Relationship to organisation	Internal	22	62	**84**
	External	19	17	**36**
		41	**79**	**120**

A Pearson 2-tailed chi-square test was performed in the data using the asymptotic estimate method. Results are shown in Table 18.

Table 18. Test results for hypothesis 1a

	Value	**df.**	**Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 17)	7.920	1	**0.005***

These results show a *p*-value of 0.005 which was lower than the significance α of 0.05. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. The stakeholder group relationship to the organisation and their relationship to the project (affect or affected) are seen to be dependent on each other.

5.2.4. Hypothesis 1b (sample group type & stakeholder group type)

At this point three tests were performed to determine whether the type of sample group (for example external change consultants or internal HR experts) had any bearing on the type of stakeholder groups identified.

Table 16 was tested using a Pearson 2-tailed chi-square test with the Exact estimation method because of the low frequencies in some cells. Results are shown in Table 19.

Table 19. Test results for hypothesis 1b

	Value	**df.**	**Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 16)	20.440	6	**0.002***

As the *p*-value of 0.002 was lower than the significance α of 0.05 the null hypothesis was rejected and the sample group type and stakeholder group type were seen to be dependent.

5.2.5. Hypothesis 1c (sample group & stakeholder group relationship to organisation)

The relationship between a sample group type (e.g. internal HR) and their observations of what relationships stakeholder groups held with the project and company was also tested. Table 20 shows the frequency of findings for observations of relationship to organisation.

Table 20. Sample group perspective of stakeholder relations to organisation

		Relationship to organisation		
		Internal	External	
Sample group	Internal (HR/OD)	32	8	**40**
	Internal (Tech)	15	17	**32**
	External (Consultant)	37	11	**48**
		84	**36**	**120**

A Pearson 2-tailed chi-square test was performed in the data using the asymptotic estimate method. Results are shown in Table 21.

Table 21. Test results for hypothesis 1c

	Value	**df.**	**Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 20)	11.200	2	**0.004***

These results show a *p*-value of 0.004 which was lower than the significance α of 0.05. The null hypothesis was rejected. There is therefore a relationship between sample group and observed relationships to the organisation.

5.2.6. Hypothesis 1d (sample group & stakeholder group relationship to project)

Table 16 can also be presented as shown in Table 22.

Table 22. Sample group perspective of stakeholder relations to project

		Relationship to project		
		Affected	Can affect	
Sample group	Internal (HR/OD)	12	28	**40**
	Internal (Tech)	10	22	**32**
	External (Consultant)	19	29	**48**
		41	**79**	**120**

A Pearson 2-tailed chi-square test was performed in the data using the asymptotic estimate method. Results are shown in Table 23.

Table 23. Test results for hypothesis 1d

	Value	df.	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 22)	1.056	2	**0.590**

These results show a *p*-value of 0.59 which was higher than the significance α of 0.05. The null hypothesis was accepted. Sample group and observed relationships to the project are therefore independent.

5.3. Research Question 2: What levels of power and sources of power did each stakeholder group have?

The second research question looks at the dimension of power as identified against each stakeholder group. Two sub-categories were looked at – the level or magnitude of power, and the sources of power. Because power was derived from the stakeholder group the relationships between power and stakeholder group was also considered at this point already.

5.3.1. Levels of Power

A five-point ordinal scale was developed to assess the level of power (or influence) that a stakeholder group held over a project. This was shown in Table 6 in Chapter 2. The scale was used as a specific step for gathering data in the interviews. Once stakeholder groups on each project had been identified, interviewees were asked to consider what power each group held over the project. Aggregation of this data reveals frequencies as per Table 24.

Table 24. Occurrence of levels of power

Level of power	Frequency
5 (high)	32
4	27
3	24
2	18
1 (low)	19
Total	**120**

The distribution of levels of power by stakeholder groups identified in section 5.2 is shown in Table 25. Modal categories of power for each stakeholder group are highlighted in grey by row. For example directors and executive management show a high concentration of level five power over the projects.

Table 25. Levels of power identified by stakeholder group (10 groups)

	Level of power					
Stakeholder group	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**Total**
Staff	3	8	4	4	3	22
Directors and Executive management	1	1	4	5	11	22
Line / Operational management	2	4	9	3	4	22
Project team	1	2	2	5	1	11
Shareholders / Group	0	1	0	4	5	10
Customers	6	0	3	1	0	10
Suppliers (upstream)	5	1	2	1	0	9
Sponsors	0	0	0	2	5	7
Staff representatives (Unions)	0	1	0	2	1	4
Government / Regulation	1	0	0	0	2	3
Total stakeholders identified	**19**	**18**	**24**	**27**	**32**	**120**
Count of unique constructs	**7**	**7**	**6**	**9**	**8**	

Table 26 uses the Stakeholder Group Relationship Matrix previously developed in Table 17 to show the same frequencies. The grey modal frequencies shown by row indicate a high concentration of level of power to a group. For example internal groups which could affect the project show high concentrations of level 5 power (21 counts).

Table 26. Frequency of levels of power identifies by stakeholder group relationship matrix

	Level of power					
Stakeholder group	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**Total**
Internal (can affect)	4	7	15	15	21	**62**
Internal (affected)	3	8	4	4	3	**22**
External (affected)	11	1	5	2	0	**19**
External (can affect)	1	2	0	6	8	**17**
Total stakeholders identified	**19**	**18**	**24**	**27**	**32**	**120**

5.3.2. Hypothesis 2a (stakeholder group & level of power)

The independence of stakeholder groups and their levels of power was tested from Table 26. Due to the lower frequencies and the high computational requirements, a Pearson 2-tailed chi-square test was performed using the Monte Carlo estimate method. Results are shown in Table 27.

Table 27. Test results for hypothesis 2a

	Value	**df.**	**Monte Carlo Significance (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 26)	51.783	12	**0.000***

These results show a *p*-value of 0.000 which was lower than the significance α of 0.05. The null hypothesis was rejected. Stakeholder groups and power over a project are dependent on each other.

5.3.3. Hypothesis 2b (stakeholder group relationship to organisation & level of power)

The research also tested the two dimensions of stakeholder group relationship to the organisation by level of power. Table 28 lays out these frequencies modally highlighted by row.

Table 28 . Relationship to organisation and levels of power

Relationship to organisation	**Level of power**					**Totals**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	
Internal	7	15	19	19	24	**84**
External	12	3	5	8	8	**36**
Totals	**19**	**18**	**24**	**27**	**32**	**120**

Because there were multiple cells in the contingency tables which had expected counts less than five a two-tailed p-value Pearson Chi-square test using the Exact method was applied to the data.

Table 29. Test results for hypothesis 2b

	Value	**df.**	**Exact sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 28)	12.814	4	**0.011***

The *p*-value of 0.011 was lower than the significance α of 0.05. The null hypothesis was rejected. There is a dependency between stakeholder group relationships to an organisation and the level of power they have.

5.3.4. Hypothesis 2c (stakeholder group relationship to project & level of power)

The second dimension of group relationship to the project and levels of power are shown in Table 30 with modal frequencies shown in grey by row.

Table 30 . Relationship to project and levels of power

Relationship to project	**Level of power**					**Totals**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	
Affected	14	9	9	6	3	**41**
Can affect	5	9	15	21	29	**79**
Totals	**19**	**18**	**24**	**27**	**32**	**120**

A two-tailed p-value Pearson Chi-square test using the Exact method was applied to the data.

Table 31. Test results for hypothesis 2c

	Value	df.	Exact sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 30)	25.773	4	**0.000***

The *p*-value of zero is lower than the significance α of 0.05. The null hypothesis was rejected. There is a dependency between stakeholder group relationships to projects and the level of power they have.

5.3.5. Sources of Power

The second aspect of power was to attempt to identify the power-bases which a stakeholder group had or as referred in this document, their sources of power. During the interviews this data proved difficult to obtain directly and required interpretation based on the context of the responses. The limitations of the findings with regards this variable are that the data may be subjective to the opinions of the interviewees and the interpretations of the researcher.

Greiner and Schein's (1988) sources of power were used as a framework to map the responses. Figure 4 in section 2.4.2 compiled three studies and concluded with Table 3 in section 2.4.5, which was what was used to define the nominal values possible when mapping sources of power. A total of 376 instances of sources of power were identified in the research. Often more than one specific type of source of power was identified by stakeholder group. For example a system supplier in one interview was found to hold six sources of power, including expert knowledge, access to information, historical familiarity, access to political power, the ability to withhold response, and being difficult to substitute. The frequency of occurrence of instances of sources of power identified is shown in Table 32.

Table 32. Ranked frequency of sources of power

Power-base	Frequency
Knowledge (Tradition)	55
Position / Legitimate (Title, job description, responsibilities)	50
Departmental (Responsiveness)	42
Knowledge (Expert)	37
Knowledge (Information)	37
Other's Support (Political access)	35
Departmental (Centrality to the company workflow)	29
Other's Support (Staff support)	27
Personality (Professional credibility)	19
Personality (Reputation)	15
Departmental (Low substitutability)	12
Departmental (Cope with uncertainty)	11
Personality (Charisma)	7
Totals	**376**

Table 33 shows how the various power bases were spread across stakeholder groups by the four stakeholder categories used in the Stakeholder Group Relationship Matrix from Table 17. Top frequencies are also highlighted. Modal frequencies are calculated by column and indicate likelihood to demonstrate a specific source of power.

Table 33. Sources of power identified by stakeholder group relationship matrix

	Internal (can affect)	Internal (affected)	External (affected)	External (can affect)	Totals
Knowledge (Tradition)	33	14	1	7	**55**
Position / Legitimate	36	1	0	13	**50**
Departmental (Responsiveness)	13	13	10	6	**42**
Knowledge (Expert)	23	9	3	2	**37**
Knowledge (Information)	16	14	3	4	**37**
Other's Support (Political access)	22	2	3	8	**35**
Departmental (Centrality)	12	13	1	3	**29**
Other's Support (Staff support)	16	7	1	3	**27**
Personality (Professional credibility)	13	3	1	2	**19**
Personality (Reputation)	10	3	0	2	**15**
Departmental (Low substitutability)	3	4	4	1	**12**
Departmental (Cope with uncertainty)	7	3	1	0	**11**
Personality (Charisma)	5	0	0	2	**7**
Totals	**209**	**86**	**28**	**53**	**376**

The construct of sources of power was collapsed into five major categories, also using Greiner and Schein (1988). These were legitimate (based on the original data of the same label), knowledge (comprising expert, informational, and traditional knowledge), personality (charisma, reputation, professional credibility), support (political and staff), and departmental

(responsiveness, substitutability, and centrality). This is shown in Table 34. The reduction in total instances from 376 to 260 is explained by the fact that multiple sub-categories were collapsed into a single main category, so as an example if a stakeholder group showed two forms of knowledge power this became one instance of the major category. Modal values are by column.

Table 34 . Sources of power identified by stakeholder group relationship matrix

Power base	Internal (Can affect)	Internal (Affected)	External (Affected)	External (Can affect)	Totals
Legitimate	36	1	13	0	**50**
Knowledge	42	20	7	4	**73**
Personality	22	5	2	1	**30**
Support	29	8	9	3	**49**
Departmental	22	17	8	11	**58**
Totals	**151**	**51**	**39**	**19**	**260**

5.3.6. Hypothesis 2d (stakeholder group & sources of power)

The Pearson 2-tailed chi-square test was performed using the Monte Carlo Estimate method. Results are shown in Table 35.

Table 35. Test results for hypothesis 2d

	Value	df.	Monte Carlo Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 34)	43.075	12	**0.000***

The resulting *p*-value of 0.000 was less than the significance α at 0.05, disproving the null hypothesis and indicating that there is a relationship between stakeholder groups and sources of power.

For levels of power the two dimensions from Table 17 (Stakeholder Group Relationship Matrix) are also tested against source of power.

5.3.7. Hypothesis 2e (stakeholder group relationship to organisation & source of power)

Table 36 lays out the frequencies when comparing stakeholder group relationships to the organisation against sources of power. Grey modal values were calculated by row.

Table 36 . Relationship to organisation and source of power

Relationship to organisation	Source of power					Totals
	Legitimate	Knowledge	Personality	Support	Departmental	
Internal	37	62	27	37	39	**202**
External	13	11	3	12	19	**58**
Totals	**50**	**73**	**30**	**49**	**58**	**260**

A two-tailed p-value Pearson Chi-square test using the Exact estimation method was applied to the data.

Table 37. Test results for hypothesis 2e

	Value	df.	Exact sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 36)	9.012	4	0.060

These *p*-value of 0.060 was higher than the significance α of 0.05. The null hypothesis was accepted. There is no dependency between stakeholder group relationships to an organisation and the sources of power they have.

5.3.8. Hypothesis 2f (stakeholder group relationship to project & source of power)

Stakeholder group relationship to the project and levels of power are shown in Table 38.

Table 38 . Relationship to project and source of power

Relationship to project	Source of power					Totals
	Legitimate	Knowledge	Personality	Support	Departmental	
Affected	14	27	7	17	25	**90**
Can affect	36	46	23	32	33	**170**
Totals	**50**	**73**	**30**	**49**	**58**	**260**

A two-tailed p-value Pearson Chi-square test using the standard asymptotic method was applied to this data in with a significance α of 0.05.

Table 39. Test results for hypothesis 2f

	Value	df.	Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 38)	4.682	4	0.322

These *p*-value of 0.156 is higher than the significance α of 0.05. The null hypothesis is accepted. Stakeholder group relationships to projects and the source of power they have are independent.

5.4. Research Question 3: What forms of resistance were observed in the change initiative?

Following the identification of stakeholder groups and the study of level and source of power the interviews concluded with a discussion about observed resistance. Resistance was recorded specifically by each stakeholder group identified in the previous sections.

There were a total of 88 instances of resistant behaviour observed across the projects and stakeholders as shown in Table 40. The data for this table was developed in two phases. Every instance of resistant behaviour was sub-categorised into groupings which originate from the breakdown in Table 1. The sub-categories are shown in the second column of Table 40. For example direct union action in the form of strikes was identified as a "blocking" sub-category; not doing what was required was categorised as "failure to implement". Each sub-category falls within a major quadrant as per the framework by Bovey and Hede (2001), being "Action" depicted as active or passive, and "Behaviour" which was covert or overt. The table tallies up the frequencies of each sub-category, and summarises the resistance under the four categories of active-overt, passive-covert, active-covert, and passive-overt, ranked in order of frequency.

Table 40. Frequencies of observations of resistance

Type of behaviour	Sub-category	Frequency
Active Overt		**36**
Outspoken criticism; expression of concern; cynical responses	Outspoken criticism	12
Arguing; opposition at board; disagreement with strategy	Argumentativeness	10
Strike action; refusal to support; withdrawal of support; not doing their duties (JDs); physical freezing of project; disinvestment; overriding decisions	Blocking	7
Hiring against policy; dumping fuel; providing wrong data; stealing customers; leaving supplier; provision of incorrect data	Sabotage	5
Aggression	Intimidation	1
Walked	Resignation	1
Passive Covert		**23**
Non participation; withdrawal; avoiding getting involved; not doing the work; disinterest	Avoidance	16
Watching from the side; waiting to see what happened	Side-line	4
Disregarding information; ignoring	Feigning ignorance	3
Active Covert		**18**
Criticism behind the scenes	Behind the scenes criticism	13
Political behaviour / criticism	Undermining	3
Blaming and escalating to internal board; providing poor service to customers	Undermining	2
Passive Overt		**11**
Not sending specialists to attend sessions; withholding support; withholding supply of funds; unable to support due to capacity constraints	Withholding	7
Delay on implementation; dragging feet	Procrastination	3
Didn't do activities required	Failure to Implement	1
Totals		**88**

Table 41 rolls up these observations into a matrix. It places the frequencies of resistance behaviour observed into the Bovey and Hede (2001) framework for measuring behavioural intentions. For example, outspoken criticism is placed in the top-left quadrant as active-overt behaviour.

Table 41. Frequency of resistance observed, per Bovey and Hede (2001)

		Behaviour		
		Overt	Covert	
Action	Active	36	18	**54**
	Passive	11	23	**34**
		47	**41**	**88**

5.4.1. Hypothesis 3a (action & behaviour)

A chi-square test of independence was performed on the variables action (active or passive) and behaviour (overt or covert). Because cell counts were over 5 in all cases a standard 2-tailed p-value Pearson Chi-square test was acceptable. The results are detailed in Table 42.

Table 42. Relationship between action and behaviour

	Value	**df.**	**Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 41)	9.872	1	**0.002***

Based on these results the *p*-value of 0.002 was lower than the significance α of 0.05 and the null hypothesis was rejected. The two variables of Behaviour and Action are not independent.

5.5. Research Question 4: Was there a relationship between the type of stakeholder group and the form of resistance?

The tests then considered the balance of the relationships between the three dimensions of stakeholders, power and resistance. The first tests considered stakeholder groups and resistance. Out of the 120 stakeholder groups identified a number did not show any resistance. For example an executive in one project may have been identified as a stakeholder in the discussion, but was not a group which resisted. The first relationship tests were performed including both the records showing resistance and those not to try and determine if stakeholder groups and related dimensions have any relationship to resistance occurrence, for example would being in an internal-can affect group type have an impact on whether resistance was likely to occur or not?

5.5.1. Hypothesis 4a (stakeholder group & occurrence of resistance)

Frequencies of whether resistance was observed or not by the stakeholder groups as defined in Table 17 are shown in Table 43.

Table 43 . Occurrence of resistance by stakeholder group

	Resistance?		
Stakeholder group	Yes	No	**Totals**
Internal (can affect)	36	26	**62**
Internal (affected)	13	9	**22**
External (affected)	5	14	**19**
External (can affect)	10	7	**17**
Totals	**64**	**56**	**120**

As cell frequencies were all above five a 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test using the asymptotic estimation method was performed.

Table 44 . Test results for hypothesis 4a

	Value	**df.**	**Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 43)	6.629	3	**0.085**

As the *p*-value of 0.085 was above the significance of 0.05 the null hypothesis was accepted. Stakeholder group and the manifestation of resistance are independent variables.

5.5.2. Hypothesis 4b (stakeholder group relation to organisation & occurrence of resistance)

Table 45 considers the frequencies of resistance occurrence as observed across stakeholder group relationships to an organisation.

Table 45 . Occurence of resistance by group relationship to organisation

	Resistance?		
Relationship to org.	Yes	No	**Totals**
Internal	49	35	**84**
External	15	21	**36**
Totals	**64**	**56**	**120**

A 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test using the asymptotic estimation method was applied to the data.

Table 46 . Test results for hypothesis 4b

	Value	df.	Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 45)	2.813	1	**0.094**

As the *p*-value of 0.094 was above the significance of 0.05 the null hypothesis was accepted. Stakeholder group relationship to the organisation and the manifestation of resistance are independent variables.

5.5.3. Hypothesis 4c (stakeholder group relation to project & occurrence of resistance)

Table 47 considers the frequencies of resistance occurrence as observed across stakeholder group relationships to a project.

Table 47 . Occurrence of resistance by group relationship to project

	Resistance?		
Relationship to proj.	Yes	No	**Totals**
Can affect	46	33	**79**
Affected	18	23	**41**
Totals	**64**	**56**	**120**

A 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test using the asymptotic estimation method was applied.

Table 48 . Test results for hypothesis 4c

	Value	df.	Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 47)	2.226	1	**0.136**

As the *p*-value of 0.136 was above the significance of 0.05 the null hypothesis was accepted. Stakeholder group relationship to the project and the manifestation of resistance are independent variables.

5.5.4. Hypothesis 4d (stakeholder group & action)

The records without resistance occurring were then removed from the data as they would have skewed the results of the next tests. Table 49 shows the final count of resistance Action used in testing by stakeholder group.

Table 49. Resistance actions by stakeholder groups

	Action		
Stakeholder Groups	**Passive**	**Active**	**Totals**
Line / Operational management	15	10	25
Directors and Executive management	5	17	22
Staff	8	8	16
Shareholders / Group	1	5	6
Project team	4	1	5
Staff representatives (Unions)	0	5	5
Suppliers (upstream)	1	2	3
Sponsors	0	3	3
Customers	0	2	2
Government / Regulation	0	1	1
Total	**34**	**54**	**88**

To see if there was any change in the results for larger groups of stakeholders the data was collapsed into the four stakeholder categories as per the Stakeholder Group Relationship Matrix as per Table 17, forming Table 50.

Table 50 . Resistance actions by stakeholder group relationship matrix

	Action		
Stakeholder Groups	**Passive**	**Active**	**Totals**
Internal (can affect)	24	31	55
Internal (affected)	8	8	16
External (can affect)	1	11	12
External (affected)	1	4	5
Total	**34**	**54**	**88**

Because there were multiple cells in the contingency tables which had expected counts less than 5 an asymptotic significance test could not be performed. A 2-tailed p-value Pearson Chi-square test using the Exact method was applied to the data in Table 49 and Table 50.

Table 51. Test results for hypothesis 4d

	Value	**df.**	**Exact sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (10 groups, Table 49)	19.824	9	**0.008***
Pearson Chi-Square (4 groups, Table 50)	6.832	3	**0.073**

The two results were inconsistent. For Table 49 with 10 stakeholder groups, the *p*-value was 0.008 which was lower than the significance α of 0.05, allowing the null hypothesis to be rejected, showing there is dependence between stakeholder groups and action.

However with a reduced stakeholder group set of 4 from Table 50 the *p*-value of 0.073 was greater than the significance α of 0.05 which confirmed the null hypothesis and indicated

independence of the same variables. The difference in results could be explained in that by collapsing the groups an unidentified and untested variable was included which could have a significant impact.

5.5.5. Hypothesis 4e (stakeholder group relationship to organisation & action)

The two separate dimensions of relationship to organisation and to project were also tested. Table 52 provides frequencies of stakeholder group relationship to organisation by resistance action.

Table 52 . Resistance actions by group relationship to organisation

	Action		
Relationship to org.	Active	Passive	**Totals**
Internal	39	32	**71**
External	15	2	**17**
Totals	**54**	**34**	**88**

A 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test was performed on this data with an Exact estimation method due to the low frequencies in certain cells. Significance α was 0.05.

Table 53. Test results for hypothesis 4e

	Value	**df.**	**Exact sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 52)	6.417	1	**0.013***

As the *p*-value of 0.013 was below the significance of 0.05 the null hypothesis was rejected. Stakeholder group relationship to organisation and resistance action are dependent.

5.5.6. Hypothesis 4f (stakeholder group relationship to project & action)

Table 54 provides the frequencies of occurrence of resistance action to group relationship to projects.

Table 54 . Resistance actions by group relationship to project

	Action		
Relationship to proj.	Active	Passive	**Totals**
Can affect	42	25	**67**
Affected	12	9	**21**
Totals	**54**	**34**	**88**

A 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test using the asymptotic estimation method was applied to this data.

Table 55. Test results for hypothesis 4f

	Value	df.	Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 54)	0.207	1	0.649

The *p*-value of 0.649 was greater than the required significance or 0.05 so the null hypothesis was accepted. Stakeholder group relation to project and resistance action are independent.

5.5.7. Hypothesis 4g (stakeholder group & behaviour)

As per the previous section the stakeholder groups identified were mapped to the second dimension of resistance (Bovey & Hede, 2001) being behaviour. Behaviour could be overt or covert, or both. Records showing no behaviour were removed. Frequencies are shown in Table 56.

Table 56. Resistance behaviours by stakeholder groups

	Behaviour		
Stakeholder Groups	**Overt**	**Covert**	**Totals**
Line / Operational management	11	14	25
Directors and Executive management	12	10	22
Staff	7	9	16
Shareholders / Group	4	2	6
Project team	1	4	5
Staff representatives (Unions)	4	1	5
Suppliers (upstream)	2	1	3
Sponsors	3	0	3
Customers	2	0	2
Government / Regulation	1	0	1
Total	**47**	**41**	**88**

The same stakeholder group relationship matrix was used for consistency with the previous tests. Table 57 shows the same relationship for the collapsed stakeholder groups.

Table 57. Resistance behaviours by reduced stakeholder groups

	Behaviour		
Stakeholder Groups	**Overt**	**Covert**	**Totals**
Internal (can affect)	27	28	55
Internal (affected)	7	9	16
External (can affect)	9	3	12
External (affected)	4	1	5
Total	**47**	**41**	**88**

As multiple cells had low expected counts, the asymptotic chi-square test was discarded in favour of an Exact method applied to the 2-sided chi-square test.

Table 58. Test results for hypothesis 4g

	Value	df.	Exact sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (10 groups, Table 56)	11.034	9	**0.268**
Pearson Chi-Square (4 groups, Table 57)	4.681	3	**0.206**

For both tests, the *p*-value was greater than α of 0.05. The outcome of the test on a larger set of stakeholder groups in table 56 was a *p*-value of 0.268, and from Table 57 of 0.206. The null hypotheses were both accepted, and the assumption that stakeholder groups and behaviour were independent was validated.

5.5.8. Hypothesis 4h (stakeholder group relationship to organisation & behaviour)

The dimensions of relationship to organisation and to project were also tested against resistance behaviour. Table 59 provides frequencies of stakeholder group relationship to organisation by resistance behaviour.

Table 59 . Resistance actions by group relationship to organisation

	Behaviour		
Relationship to org.	Overt	Covert	**Totals**
Internal	34	37	**71**
External	13	4	**17**
Totals	**47**	**41**	**88**

A 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test was performed on this data with an Exact estimation method.

Table 60. Test results for hypothesis 4h

	Value	df.	Exact sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 59)	4.503	1	**0.056**

As the *p*-value of 0.056 was above the significance of 0.05 the null hypothesis was accepted. Stakeholder group relationship to organisation and resistance behaviour are independent.

5.5.9. Hypothesis 4i (stakeholder group relationship to project & behaviour)

Table 61 provides frequencies of stakeholder group relationship to project by resistance behaviour.

Table 61 . Resistance actions by group relationship to project

	Behaviour		
Relationship to proj.	Overt	Covert	**Totals**
Affecting	36	31	**67**
Affected	11	10	**21**
Totals	**47**	**41**	**88**

A 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test was performed on this data with an asymptotic estimation method.

Table 62. Test results for hypothesis 4i

	Value	**df.**	**Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 61)	0.012	1	**0.914**

As the *p*-value of 0.914 was above the significance of 0.05 the null hypothesis was accepted. Stakeholder group relationship to project and resistance behaviour are independent.

5.6. Research Question 5: Was there a relationship between stakeholder power and the type of resistance demonstrated?

The final research question looks at the impact of power on forms of resistance in change initiatives through relational tests on variables. Resistance has been analysed in two categories and the process continues in this line, performing independence tests of the various variables related to power and resistance. The data acquired in questions 2 and 3 are related to each other in the analysis for this question.

5.6.1. Hypothesis 5a (level of power & occurrence of resistance)

As mentioned in section 5.3 a number of stakeholder groups did not demonstrate resistance. Hypothesis 5a tested whether level of power had any relationship to resistance occurring. The frequencies of occurrence of resistance are shown in Table 63.

Table 63 . Level of power by occurrence of resistance

Power	Resistance? Yes	Resistance? No	Totals
5 (high)	21	11	32
4	14	13	27
3	14	10	24
2	11	7	18
1 (low)	4	15	19
Totals	**64**	**56**	**120**

A 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test was performed on this data with an asymptotic estimation method.

Table 64. Test results for hypothesis 5a

	Value	df.	Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 63)	10.600	4	**0.031***

The *p*-value of 0.031 was below the significance of 0.05 so the null hypothesis was rejected. Level of power and resistance occurrence have a dependency.

5.6.2. Hypothesis 5b (source of power & occurrence of resistance)

Table 65 compares the source of power categories formed in Table 34 with the occurrence of resistance.

Table 65 . Source of power by occurrence of resistance

Power base	Resistance? Yes	Resistance? No	Totals
Knowledge	43	30	**73**
Departmental	39	19	**58**
Legitimate	28	22	**50**
Support	33	16	**49**
Personality	14	16	**30**
Totals	**157**	**103**	**260**

A 2-tailed Pearson chi-square test was performed on this data with an asymptotic estimation method.

Table 66. Test results for hypothesis 5b

	Value	df.	Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 65)	4.962	4	**0.291**

The *p*-value of 0.291 was above the significance of 0.05 so the null hypothesis was accepted. Sources of power and resistance occurrence are independent.

5.6.3. Hypothesis 5c (level of power & action)

Table 67 maps the ordinal scale used throughout the research for level of power over a project to the resistance dimension of action. Records which showed no resistance were again removed from the data before testing. Because there were also records with multiple observations of the same action – for example a stakeholder could have shown both passive-overt and passive-covert resistance, and the interest in this test was the action i.e. if they were passive or active, multiple instances per record were also reduced to one (e.g. a person showing passive-overt and passive-covert resistance was counted as one instance of passive action).

Table 67. Level of power and action

	Action		
Power	**Active**	**Passive**	**Totals**
5 (high)	13	8	**21**
4	7	7	**14**
3	11	3	**14**
2	1	10	**11**
1 (low)	1	3	**4**
Totals	**33**	**31**	**64**

A large number of the cells contained expected counts less than 5, so the Exact test on a 2-sided chi-square test was used.

Table 68. Test results for hypothesis 5c

	Value	**df.**	**Exact sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 67)	14.077	4	**0.005***

The *p*-value from the Exact test was 0.005 which is lower than α of 0.05 so the null hypothesis was rejected. The two variables power and action are dependent on each other.

5.6.4. Hypothesis 5d (level of power & behaviour)

The same five-point scale for power was then applied to Bovey and Hede's (2001) second dimension of resistance, being behaviour (overt or covert), with Table 69 showing the frequencies of each relationship.

Table 69. Relationship between level of power and behaviour

Power	Behaviour		Totals
	Covert	Overt	
5 (high)	6	15	**21**
4	2	12	**14**
3	3	11	**14**
2	6	5	**11**
1 (low)	2	2	**4**
Totals	**19**	**45**	**64**

The Exact method on a 2-sided chi-square test was used giving the results in Table 70.

Table 70. Test results for hypothesis 5d

	Value	df.	Exact sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 69)	6.108	4	**0.190**

The *p*-value from the Exact test was 0.190 which was greater than the α of 0.05 so the null hypothesis was accepted. The two variables power and behaviour are independent on each other.

5.6.5. Hypothesis 5e (source of power & action)

The final two tests investigate whether the sources of power of a stakeholder group (power-bases) have any relationship to their action should they resist. Table 71 contains the data, coming from the data identified in research questions 2 and 3. Blank data in this case were stakeholder groups not observed to have any source of power and were removed from the tests. Multiple sources of power existed per stakeholder record, and in some cases these were also reduced to a single instance – for example departmental power could include low substitutability as well as responsiveness. These were then considered to be one instance of departmental power.

Table 71. Relationship between sources of power and action

Power-base	Action		Totals
	Passive	Active	
Knowledge	26	25	**51**
Departmental	25	19	**44**
Support	22	17	**39**
Legitimate	21	10	**31**
Personality	11	4	**15**
Totals	**105**	**75**	**180**

The Exact method on a 2-tailed chi-square test was used, giving the results in Table 72.

Table 72. Test results for hypothesis 5e

	Value	df.	Exact sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 71)	3.753	4	**0.446**

As the *p*-value of 0.446 was higher than the α of 0.05 the null hypothesis is accepted and it was concluded that the source of power and action are independent.

5.6.6. Hypothesis 5f (source of power & behaviour)

The final test compared the second dimension of resistance namely behaviour (Bovey & Hede, 2001) to Power-base as per Table 73.

Table 73. Relationship between sources of power and behaviour

	Behaviour		
Power-base	**Overt**	**Covert**	**Totals**
Knowledge	30	29	**59**
Departmental	28	22	**50**
Support	23	20	**43**
Legitimate	23	15	**38**
Personality	11	11	**22**
Totals	**115**	**97**	**212**

The asymptotic method on a 2-sided chi-square test was used giving the results in Table 74.

Table 74. Test results for hypothesis 5f

	Value	df.	Asymptotic sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (Table 73)	1.110	4	**0.893**

As the p-value of 0.891 was higher than the α of 0.05 the null hypothesis was accepted and it was concluded source of power and resistance behaviour were independent.

All the results presented in chapter 5 above are discussed in the following section.

6. Discussion of Results

This chapter discusses the results in detail in light of the literature review and research questions and provides interpretation of the data. The data for the research has been gathered through 15 semi-structured in-depth interviews with experts and quantitative and qualitative techniques have been employed in the analysis. This section of the report will follow the same structure as Chapter 3 and Chapter 5 using the research questions as headings.

6.1. Research Question 1 – Stakeholders

Some stakeholders will oppose a project and could derail it and it is therefore important to address these groups (Burke, 2007). Research question 1 sought to identify and categorise the key stakeholder groups involved in change initiatives to be able to understand those groups which could cause opposition within the intention of creating the master data records from which to do analysis. Categories were taken from the literature predominantly using Burke (2007) and Bourne and Walker (2005). The two dimensions posed by Freeman (1984) of relationship to the organisation and relationship to the project were applied to collapse groups into two dimensions as shown in Table 17. Findings were broad and there was also a variety of opinion across sample groups as well.

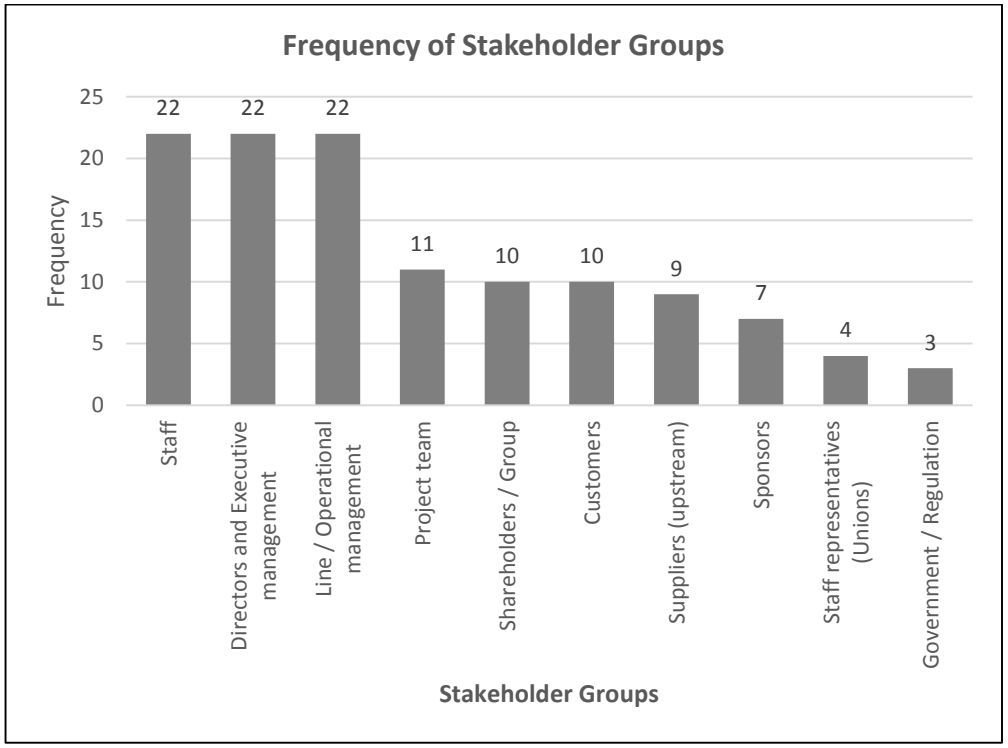
6.1.1. Stakeholder groups

Stakeholders can be defined as groups or individuals who are affected by or can affect achievement of objectives (Freeman, 1984; Reed, 2008). Some of the opinions expressed in the interviews showed that there was no one common view. One interviewee quoted "that depends on your definition of stakeholder … our definition would be a decision-maker." Others, in particular consultants, acknowledged a broader stakeholder role, a change consultant quoted "…we had to manage suppliers, this was a consolidation exercise and different suppliers would bring stuff in at different periods," and an organisational design resource also stated that "I got the union on-board quite early."

The range of groups identified showed a lot of breadth which confirms the concerns laid out by Bourne and Walker (2005) that the "consequences are unmanageable because there are so many ways in which a project can impact a very wide range of people." Figure 6 depicts the frequencies of stakeholder groups by the ten major categories from Table 10. The top three stakeholder groups identified were staff, line management, and directors comprising 55% of the

data. The lowest group occurrences were unions and government. There was also a high variance of frequency, standard deviation being 7.36.

Figure 6 . Frequency of stakholder groups identified



6.1.2. Stakeholder group relationships

Newcombe (2010) defines stakeholders as groups or individuals *inside* or *outside* the project. In this research this has been incorporated by looking at people *inside* or *outside* the organisation (the projects being organisational in nature) and people *being affected* or being *able to affect* the project, which evolves from Freeman (1984). Table 17 considers stakeholder groups by these two dimensions. No exceptions were identified. The Mitchell et al. (1997) seven stakeholder typologies were also considered along the angles of power, legitimacy and urgency, however as the study primarily focused on power this framework was not used extensively other than to support the other topics. What was notable when looking at groupings were the following:

Of all the groups identified by far the greatest proportion were internally related to the organisation with the first four highest frequencies falling into this category (70% of stakeholders identified). This finding could be related to a number of uncontrolled variables such as the bias of the experts interviewed and the nature of the projects, but clearly even

though the likes of Freeman (1984), Reed (2008), and Newcombe (2010) talk to stakeholders not just being internal, by far the greatest occurrence is still within the organisation.

The potential to impact a project is defined as power by Kanter (1980). The highest proportion (66%) of stakeholder groups were seen to be able *to affect* a project than be *affected by* it i.e. to have reasonable levels of power. This may seem surprising as one could expect the larger affected groups such as staff and communities to be in the majority however it must be clarified that that although "staff" affected by a project might make up a large proportion of the total "people" impacted the group in this study would only comprise a single unit – the unit of measurement is the group, not the number of people. According to Mitchell et al. (1997) the stakeholders less likely to be paid attention to are also the dependent groups (e.g. communities) and the demanding groups (mosquitos), which is reflected in the interviewee responses.

The two dimensions of relationship to the project and to the organisation were proven to be dependent in testing hypothesis 1a which aligns with Newcombe's (2010) statement that stakeholders come from inside and outside the project. The research shows that internal stakeholders have a higher likelihood of being able to affect a project than external stakeholders, 52% of occurrences being in this relationship.

Considering the definition of a stakeholder by Freeman (1984) and Reed (2008) it is interesting that even today the majority of people identified were internal people and for the most part holding what could be termed positional or legitimate influence, or could affect the project (Greiner & Schein, 1988). This outcome could be because organisational change initiatives are more likely to involve people within the company. Project variance must also have played a role, for example a public services change initiative may have far more external stakeholders than a technical system implementation in a company, and further research may be useful to benchmark different types of projects.

6.1.3. Sample groups

There were also relationships uncovered between the type of sample group interviewed and the findings, which shows there is bias based on how people managing change are positioned. Interviewing across groups controlled for this. The literature supports this. Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio (2008) mention that change agents might be interpreting behaviours and communications in a self-serving of self-fulfilling manner. Piderit (2000) refers to attribution error and that mangers in charge of a change tend to blame others for their failure. Hypothesis

1b showed that the different sample groups did affect the identification of stakeholder groups. Hypothesis 1c emphasised this variation in sample group opinion with regards whether stakeholder groups identified were external or internal. It was shown in Table 16 that human resource practitioners had a higher tendency towards identifying internally aligned stakeholders (80% of the time). Hypothesis 1d showed no relationship between the sample group and whether stakeholder were likely to affect or be affected even though there seemed to be higher frequencies of identification of stakeholders who had an affect on change projects by technically aligned change experts, and a wider view of stakeholders which were affected coming from external change professionals. This supports the statements made by Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio (2008) and Piderit (2000). The notion of different types of change agents having different perspectives of their stakeholders is therefore important in the selection of people to manage a project, for example if the focus is on keeping powerful groups such dormant and dominant stakeholders happy (Mitchell et al., 1997) a more technical change manager might be required, whereas using an external consultant as the change leader could be more in line with a community or social venture where demanding stakeholders were more important (e.g. where communities were affected), and human resource experts might be better aligned to serving dependent groups, using the typologies identified by Mitchell et al. (1997).

6.2. Research Question 2 - Power

"Power is the capacity to influence another person or group to accept one's own ideas or plans" (Greiner and Schein, 1988). Question 2 aimed to understand this dimension and how each identified stakeholder group was empowered on their project, i.e. what level of power they had over the project, and where they acquired this power from.

6.2.1. Levels of power

A power scale was developed using the triple constraint in project management (Burke, 2007) to determine how much power was held over the three aspects of scope, time and budget; with influence over scope considered the most important.

Table 24 shows the distribution of levels of power amongst all the stakeholder groups identified. A high proportion of the instances observed were considered to have high significant influence over change initiatives. From Table 6 levels of three to five could have a material impact on a project and 69% of the observances were in this range. This compares well to the previous section where 66% of stakeholder groups were found to be able to affect the project. The

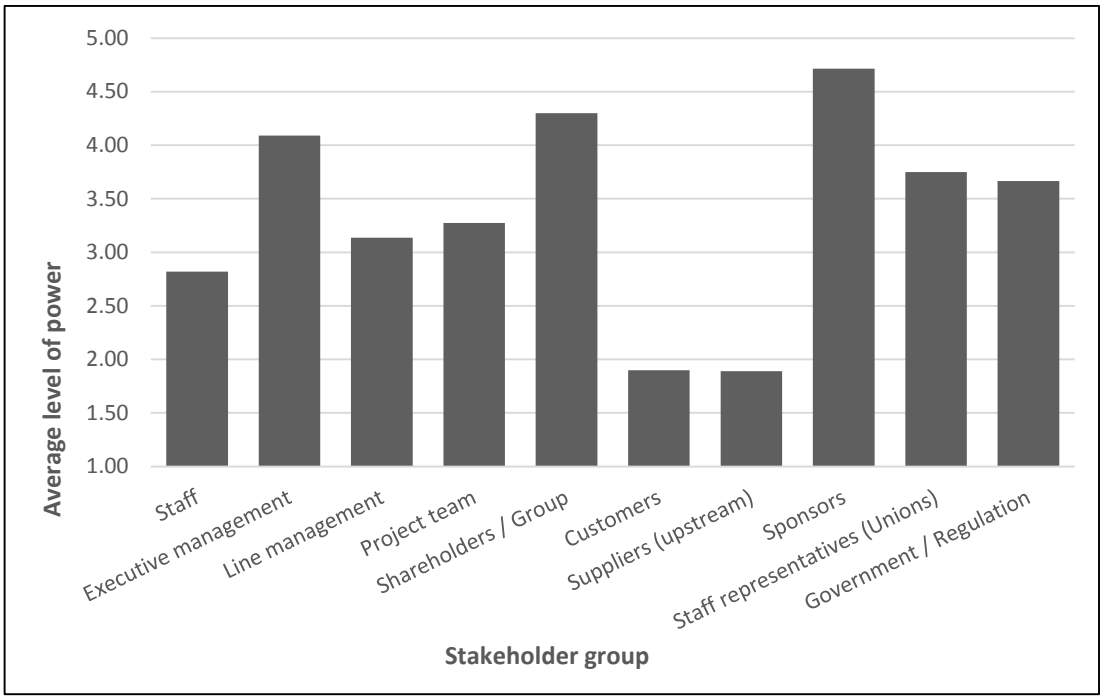
finding of high levels of power seems to contrast to Pfeffer's (1992) statement that only the highest levels of management can get things accomplished, considering the definition of power as the ability to mobilise resources and get things done (Kanter, 1980). Opinions expressed during the interviews also varied. One of the projects was referred to as a "top-down autocratic project … nobody was going to criticise…," and on another stated that the "Exco had minimal influence." Six of the 15 projects considered were driven from the top, either by the CEO or an executive committee. One person spoke of this as the "sell or tell concept" and referred to there being a place for the "thou shalt do it" approach to change, talking specifically about the failure of their project - "there's a place for these types of projects. This project failed because the senior person … wasn't prepared to say 'thou shalt'." What is evident is that more people have power than one would expect, and that power is not always distributed from the top-down, but often from unexpected areas.

6.2.2. Levels of power and stakeholder groups

Mitchell et al. (1997) refer to seven stakeholder types with different agendas and influences. The view of stakeholder types and power varied significantly in the interviews. For example, when asked how much power the stakeholders had on one project the impression was that the project was driven by the CEO and the rest were "caught in the middle of a machine with timeframes," whereas another project was severely impacted by operations – an "intercompany intervention driven by facilities" and on another the "Exco had minimal influence."

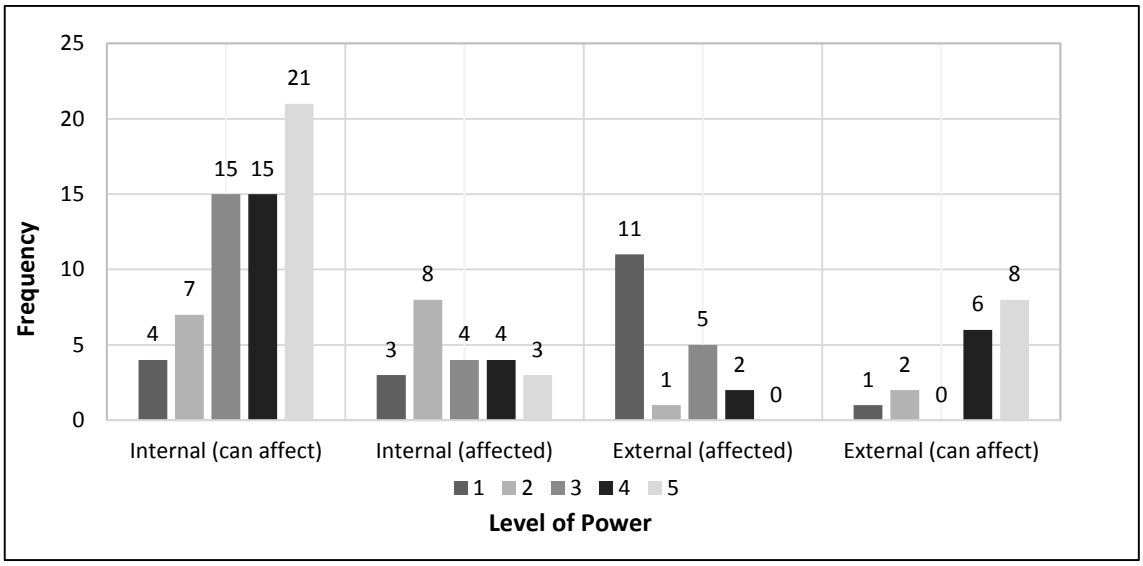
The research identified ten stakeholder groups using the Project Management Body of Knowledge definitions as a frame of reference (Burke. 2007). Table 25 quantified the frequency of each level of power held by stakeholder groups and Figure 7 shows the levels when taken as an average rather than just a frequency distribution. Certain groups showed very strong relationships to specific levels of power. Directors and executive management, shareholders and sponsors demonstrated high concentrations of level five power and in almost all cases fell within the power dimension of Mitchell et al.'s stakeholder typologies (1997) as either dormant, dominant or definitive supporting the idea of concentration of power within certain groups. Line managers, project teams, unions and government had high occurrences of middle levels of power (three) and staff power was concentrated just below this, interestingly at level two though and not one, which implied staff were considered to hold some power, but were almost all seen as dormant stakeholders. An example of this was in a municipal project where staff were not interested in adopting a new system as it would introduce too much efficiency and potentially cause job losses, who then resisted by not adopting the system.

Figure 7. Power levels by stakeholder group



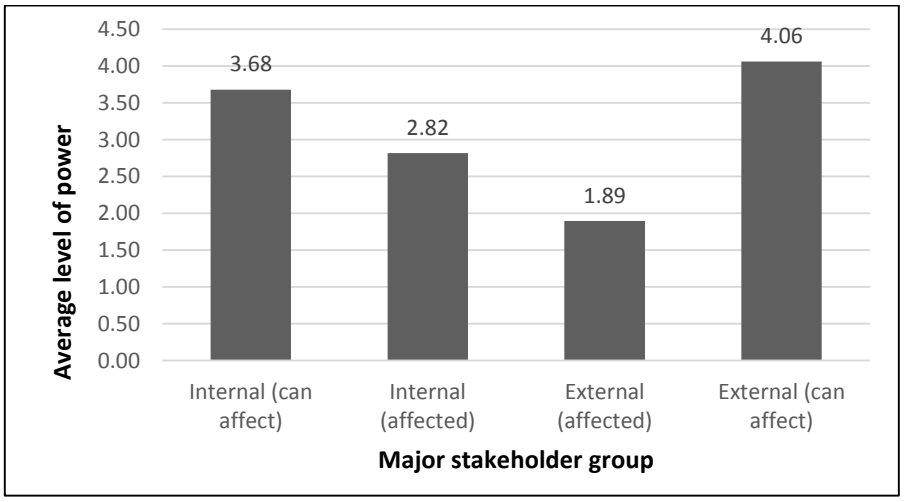
The data from Table 26 represents levels of power by the four major stakeholder categories in Table 17 using Freeman 's relationships (Freeman, 1984). This is shown in Figure 8 which counts frequencies and Figure 9 which shows the average power scores by group. Internal groups which could affect the project were the most frequently recorded powerful group holding 61% of all power observed above a level three. External groups with the ability to affect had the highest average scores. Both external and internal affecting groups showed a linear increase in power frequency when moving from level one to five. This group trend supports Robbins et al. (2009) who talk about strength of power being about how severe the consequences are, and in current organisational structures management would normally be assumed to have the most control over consequences such as dismissal (coercive power) and promotion (reward), per French and Raven (1959). External parties with the ability to affect projects include government and unions, and the severity of consequences from action by these groups is also high.

Figure 8. Levels of power by stakeholder group (reduced groupings)



Affected stakeholder groups showed the lowest levels of power. This shows that the more participatory approaches to stakeholder management as discussed by Reed (2008) may not yet be implemented as often as expected. Internal affected groups had a tendency to be slightly higher up the power scale than external with highest frequencies in level two and again supporting the finding that groups such as staff hold some power over projects, compared to external affected groups with very little mostly below level two and with high frequencies of level one. Literature such as Newcombe (2010) talk about the split between internal and external stakeholders, but not about how this affects power; this finding may extend such literature.

Figure 9. Average levels of power by major stakeholder groups



An interesting trend is that if a group does have power over a project it is quite likely that it will have high levels of power and be able to materially impact the initiative. For example the average power for both "can affect" groups is over 3.5.

The results of hypothesis 2a tests confirm that there was a relationship between stakeholder groups as defined in Table 17 and the levels of power. The qualitative findings above were thus confirmed by statistical means.

Hypothesis 2b tests showed that there was also dependency between group relationship to the organisation and level of power. Groups with internal relationships to the organisation show increasing frequencies of higher levels of power. Groups with external relationships show a u-shaped trend, which could be explained by the fact that this group includes both very weak affected parties (for example suppliers) and strong parties such as unions and government. Hypothesis 2c tests also show dependency levels of power and stakeholder group relationship to the project. Somewhat obviously, high power levels correlated to groups with a strong ability to affect change initiatives, and low levels with stakeholder groups more affected by the project. This allows us to understand that there is some predictability about power levels depending on whether a stakeholder group comes from within the organisation or from outside, and whether a stakeholder group has more possibility of being affected by the project or affecting.

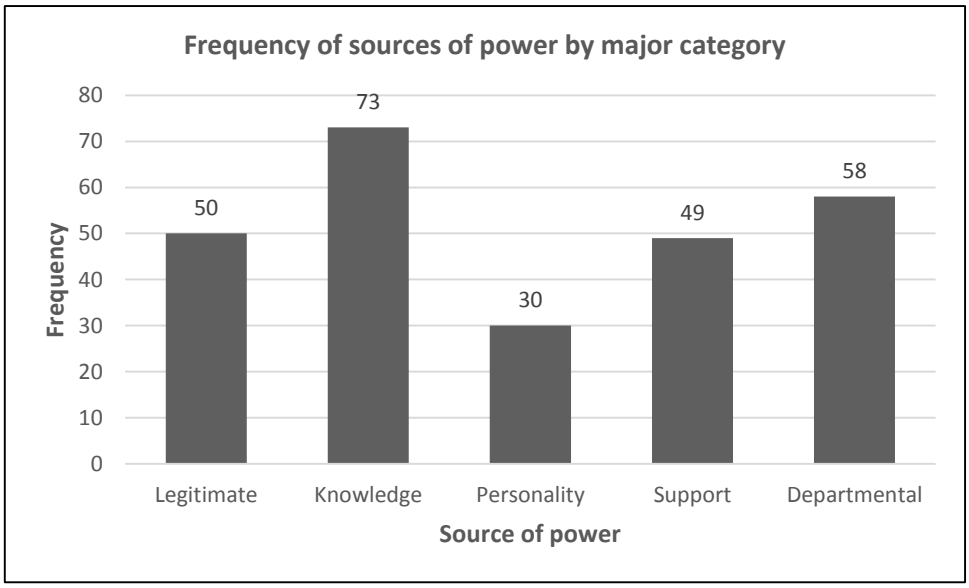
The implications of these outcomes are that certain types of stakeholder groups may have predictable levels of power and therefore when analysing stakeholders on a change initiative it may be possible to predict how powerful a certain group may be even without knowing their actual background.

6.2.3. Sources of power

Greiner and Schein (1988) was used to define sources of power categorically as a second dimension of power. Table 32 shows the breakdown in frequencies of 13 different sources of power as observed by stakeholder group. As expected considering the maturity of existing research there were no exceptions between the defined categories and the discovered ones, or in comparison to other literature such as French and Raven (1959). Almost 50% of sources of power came from four key categories being traditional knowledge, legitimate, departmental responsiveness, and expert knowledge. The categories were then grouped to the main top level themes defined by Greiner and Schein (1988) as shown in Figure 10. Knowledge made up almost a third of all power sources in the study, followed by departmental power. This was interesting

when considering that Pfeffer (1992) talks about the need to unlearn the private knowledge gained in the classroom and shows a strong individualistic pattern in execution. It shows that influence is less frequently exerted using generally expected traditional management and more often through people with the skills and ability to "do". Legitimate power accounted for only 19% of the observations which seemed in contrast to the findings in 6.1 showing high levels of stakeholders who might have been expected to hold legitimate power (e.g. executive and management). Pfeffer (1992) comments that power is not just the exercise of formal authority and Kanter (1980) also says that in projects legitimate power is constrained as these ventures cross boundaries. The findings support these views. Quotes from the interviews still sometimes supported the concept of legitimate power though, for example one interviewee commented on why their projects were so successful, relating to the CEO, "they do it because he's the boss and he clearly knows what's right…" There may also be aspects of how power is applied and observed and leadership style in this. For example a senior manager with legitimate power may choose not to use their authority but rather exercise their influence through expertise. A person being influenced by someone with power may also not realise how they are being influenced, and perhaps perceive the source of power to be charisma as an example. All five categories showed a reasonable spread of frequencies which showed than they all have relevance in a study on power.

Figure 10. Frequency of sources of power by category



6.2.4. Sources of power and stakeholder groups

The same stakeholder groups might have different sources of power depending on context. The interviews revealed unexpected occurrences of sources of power and no immediate trends. An IT department which was bypassed by the executive on a system project - “lack of power in the department … expert, positional … it was a big problem for them” - which resulted in major issue with support later. Legacy service providers also held power which “because they owned the information,” and in one case the project failed with one of the reasons being that the service provider was being replaced and refused to provide data, or when they did they provided false data. This resistance could be attributed to an expectation that their power-base was being threatened (Kanter, 1980).

Table 32 shows the full set of sources of power from Greiner and Schein (1988) ranked by most occurrences and cross tabulated against Table 17 per Freeman’s relationships (1984). Table 33 shows the same data but with the broader categories. As the source of power was a categorical variable and there were high variances in frequency count it was necessary to normalise the data for more accurate analysis. These tables are shown in Appendix D in Table 76 and Table 77. In this way *internal-can-affect* stakeholder groups such as managers were shown to have highest levels of legitimate power but were poor on departmental responsiveness. Legitimate power according to French and Raven (1959) is where power is granted through internal norms or values, which in a corporate setting aligns to the concept of organisational hierarchy and makes sense in this context. Departmental responsiveness is the ability to react timeously and effectively (Greiner & Schein, 1988). This was quite surprising as it could be expected that internal organisation structures would be better positioned to respond to change. *Internal-affected* groups such as staff held higher centrality to workflow power (per Greiner & Schein, 1988), and at an aggregated level knowledge, but were weak on legitimate power. Internal work based groups such as staff could be expected to hold some form of power in these two areas based on their jobs. *External-affecting* groups also showed higher legitimate sources of power, which by definition would be expected from groups such as shareholders or government, and low levels of knowledge again as expected as they would not be exposed to the workings of an organisation. *External-affected* groups showed a small level of departmental responsive power but were very weak on all other sources. This finding is interesting as responsiveness implies action such as striking or not purchasing, and supports common views of how communities would be able to influence corporates.

Hypothesis 2d tested the relationship between the major stakeholder group categories and sources of power from Table 34. The findings were that the variables were related which supports the discussion in the previous paragraphs. Planners should therefore be able to determine the most likely sources of power held by a stakeholder depending on their group type. For example an internal executive might be expected to have more legitimate power than a customer through the norms set by the organisational hierarchy (French and Raven, 1959) and a planned mitigation to this could be to override this power by acquiring executive sponsorship. Understanding sources of power are thus important in planning which stakeholders to engage in a project and how to do this; a change agent has to have a political approach to projects (Schein, 1985).

Tests for hypothesis 2e and 2f look at the dependence between group relationship to the organisation and to the project and source of power. Neither set of variables was found to have dependencies. This showed that although stakeholder group types and sources of power have a level of dependence the two separate dimensions themselves do not specifically create this relationship. So whilst it can be seen from Table 36 that an internal group might appear to have more knowledge and departmental power, and it can be inferred that internal affected stakeholder groups might have this type of power, we cannot assume the same relevance based on the relationship to the organisation.

6.3. Research Question 3 - Resistance

The majority of literature on resistance focuses on why resistance happens, with less focus on the actual manifestation of resistance. Research Question 3 aggregates all the behaviours identified in the interviews into a categorical structure mapped to the framework in Table 1. Research behaviour identified was compared to the work of Bovey and Hede (2001), Hultman (1995) and Baker (1989) to find if any new forms of behaviour could be identified.

From the 120 stakeholder groups identified just over half (64) displayed resistance. This was quite surprising as it shows that a significantly large portion of key groups associated with a project are not wholly on board. Resistance magnitude or impact is not tested in this research but could obviously range from very minor grumblings with immaterial impact to a project to major undermining activities which could completely derail the project. This research does not look at this in detail.

6.3.1. Forms of resistance

The research identified a variety of resistant behaviours but all of these could be categorised into examples already prescribed by the literature (Hultman, 1995 and Bovey and Hede, 2001). The most frequently observed behaviours included criticism (both outspoken and covert), argumentativeness, avoidance or non-participation, and withholding of resources. No major trends or new behaviours were identified in this categorisation process. Two further dimensions relating to resistance were considered, being *behaviour* and *action per* Bovey and Hede (2001).

6.3.2. Action

Hultman (1995) refers to two categories of active and passive resistance. According to Bovey and Hede (2001) this dimension indicates the degree of intention to originate action (being active) or to remain inert (being passive). The findings in Table 41 show that a significantly higher level of resistance was active (61%) than passive.

6.3.3. Behaviour

Behaviour varies between being openly expressive or overt, and being concealed or covert (Bovey and Hede, 2001). This is supported by Giangrecco and Peccei (2005) who refer to overt resistance such as strikes, and covert such as individual dissent. Table 41 showed a lower degree of variance of Behavioural intent compared to Action intent, with covert behavioural intent showing the highest instances.

6.3.4. Relationship

The relationship between the two dimensions were tested in hypothesis 3a and concluded that the two variables were dependent as expected, in other words that we would able to predict behaviour based on a form of action, or vice versa. The most notable point found was that active-overt resistance made up the highest grouping (41% of observations) and passive-covert (26%) the second. Hypothesis 3a supports the implication that these two polar groupings could be expected and implies that when resistance is active, we would expect it to be out in the open whilst when resistance is less active it might be expected to be kept under the radar.

6.4. Research Question 4 – Stakeholders and Resistance

Question 4 looked at how stakeholder groups as identified in research question 1 relate to resistance. This relationship did not appear to have been specifically tested in the literature. Three key dimensions were considered throughout this question. Firstly the major stakeholder group categories derived from Freeman (1984) in Table 17 were mapped to the various dimensions of resistance (Bovey and Hede, 2001). Then the two dimensions from Table 17 are mapped as well, being group *relationships to the organisation*, which could be internal or external, and *to the project*, which could be affected or affecting.

6.4.1. Occurrence of resistance

There were 56 cases out of the 120 stakeholder observations where resistance was not present. The amount of cases showing resistance was surprising as stakeholders are often regarded as those who are involved or have a vested interest in the project as was shown in question 1. The first tests included all records and tried to understand what relationships existed between stakeholder groups and the likelihood of resistance.

There were some seemingly interesting trends in the data, for example Table 43 seems to show that external affected stakeholder groups are more likely not to resist, and internal affected are more prone to resist. However the three statistical tests performed (hypothesis 4a, b and c) did not return any dependencies. It was concluded that stakeholder groups, and group relationships to the organisation or project, had no correlation with the type of resistance.

This finding makes more sense if some examples from the interviews are shown. A chairman of the business in one of the interviews was highly resistant to a strategic project, however in other projects people at the same level such as CEOs were the active driver of the projects and were the reason for success. There were situations where executive managers actively opposed a project, in one case actually recruiting for senior roles in opposition to a new business structure, and in others the executive were the major sources of impetus, such as in a system implementation.

6.4.2. Resistance Action

Hultman (1995) and Bovey and Hede (2001) talk about action intentions as either active or passive. The research investigated the relationships between the dimensions shown in Table

17, stakeholder groups, group relationships to the organisation and the project, and to instances of active and passive resistance to see any dependencies.

The highest frequencies of resistance action, both active and passive, were observed with internally related stakeholders. This might be a limitation because consultants would not necessarily have access to or work regularly with external stakeholders.

For hypothesis 4d independence was tested across the more detailed groups of stakeholders from Table 49 and the broader grouping from Table 50. Results were not consistent. The more detailed stakeholder groups identified in Table 49 showed a relationship to Action. The implications at this level of detail are that if specific groups are used to identify stakeholders, for example using the Project Management Body of Knowledge categories (Burke, 2007) then the action intent of a group could be predicted. For example from Table 49 directors and executive management, shareholders and sponsors could be expected to be more active in their resistance, whilst line managers are twice as likely to resist in passive ways – this supports the findings of Giangrecco and Peccei (2005) and Kanter's (1980) view that the people in the middle are in a state of powerlessness without the ability to execute. Staff seem to show equal tendencies towards active and passive intent. At a broader level of grouping, testing Table 50 showed no dependence. Some factor in the grouping seemed to be the reason for this, and will be shown in a later test. The implications of this finding are that using the Stakeholder Group Relationship Matrix to specifically predict resistance action would not be accurate.

Testing for independence between group relationships with the organisation and resistance action (hypothesis 4e) do show a relationship, however group relationships with the project and action (hypothesis 4f) were independent. This seems to explain the variation of results in the tests for hypothesis 4d between more granular stakeholder groups and the major categories. Resistance action (active or passive) could be related to the locality of the stakeholder group to the organisation. For example it seems from Table 52 that external stakeholders are more likely to actively resist. This could be biased on the basis that it is unlikely to be able to observe passive resistance of an external stakeholder in a change environment without third party commentary or voluntary discussion.

6.4.3. Resistance Behaviour

The aspect of behavioural intent could be overt or covert (Bovey and Hede, 2001). The analysis of this is limited as overt behaviour is also less obvious than covert and change experts might

not have observed sufficient instances of covert behaviour even if it did exist. As the people interviewed were from a broad spectrum, and a number of the projects were completed and old enough to be less sensitive, this data did come up in results and was used in the analysis.

Three tests were again performed, being hypothesis 4g for stakeholder group independence from behaviour; hypothesis 4h for group relationship to organisation independence from behaviour; and hypothesis 4i for independence of group relationships to the project from behaviour. All three tests returned independence. Table 59 shows far higher frequencies of both overt and covert behaviour for internal stakeholder groups, but this could also be related to the low frequencies of external stakeholders being identified in the interviews. For the most part none of the stakeholder group dimensions had a relationship to resistance behavioural intent.

6.5. Research Question 5 – Power and Resistance

This section assesses relationships between the final two dimensions of power and resistance and relates to data in section 5.6 but focuses first on levels of power (5.6.1, 5.6.3, and 5.6.4) then on sources of power (5.6.2, 5.6.5, and 5.6.6).

A key factor in the determination of resistance is the impact of change to power coalitions, or the status quo, and the redistribution factor where parties lose control, funds, or resources (Trader-leigh, 2002). Kanter (1980) observes that people affected by projects would also *use* politics and their sources of power to direct their resistance. We therefore see two possibilities of the relationship between power and resistance, firstly how people use power to resist, and secondly, how changes of power cause resistance.

6.5.1. Levels of power and resistance

One of the most interesting and unexpected findings was that at the high end of power it was more likely that resistance would occur. Table 64 shows that 66% of level five power instances demonstrated resistance, whereas only 21% of level one resisted in any way. Hypothesis 5a tested for this relationships and confirmed that these level of power and resistance were dependent, thus the above commentary is very relevant.

Table 67 also shows that resistance action is more likely to be active when power levels are high, and to be passive when power levels are low. This relationship is again confirmed by hypothesis 5c. Although it also appeared that overt behaviour is stronger at high levels of power, the

relationship did prove to be independent (hypothesis 5d). This is interesting when considering Oreg (2006) who states that perceived changes to power can positively affect cognitive resistance. According to the tests performed in this research power changes also impact affective resistance, being behavioural although cognitive and affective resistance in his model were not explicitly tested for (Piderit, 2000; Oreg, 2006). Kanter (1980) is also supported in that power and resistance are related.

6.5.2. Source of power and resistance

All the tests for relationships between source of power and resistance showed no significant dependencies. Hypothesis 5b tested for a correlation between source of power and occurrence, hypothesis 5e between source of power and Action, and 5f between source of power and Behaviour, and all of these test results showed the variables to be independent. Source of power therefore seems to have very little if any relation to resistance. Relating this to Oreg (2006) is again interesting as his hypothesis show a number of contextual variables which are shown to influence resistance and could be grouped under sources of power according to Greiner and Schein (1988). The current findings show no relationship for sources of power to resistance which seems to contradict him. The tests also do not show how sources of power would be leveraged (Kanter, 1980).

6.6. Conclusion

The analysis of the data uncovered some interesting findings about each dimension and the relationships between them. Some of these relationships may seem obvious, but putting them together in a framework will support a more visual way of thinking about stakeholders, power and resistance. Chapter 7 sums up the key outcomes of the results in a model which is developed iteratively.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

7.1. Introduction

In this chapter the previous sections will be consolidated into a model which integrates the findings or the research, and implications for management and future research ideas will be discussed.

Change is a pervasive force which influences our lives, our communities, and the groups or organisations in which we work. The past decade demonstrated that unpredictable changes and the chaos associated with this are if not accelerating then certainly of sufficient impact to require people and organisations to be able to plan responses, act on these plans and adapt quickly. The amount of recent literature relating to the management of change demonstrates that the understanding of this topic is by no means complete.

The research in this paper aimed at understanding three broad themes which emerge in the study of change; those of stakeholder groups, power and resistance; and more specifically to understand how these relate to each other across a change initiative, with the intention of contributing both to the literature and to practically supporting change planning in being able to develop pro-active strategies to address resistance by analysing the three themes within the context of a project. A number of relationships were uncovered, and a basic model was developed to graphically collate the findings.

7.2. Major Findings and Model

The questions identified in Chapter 3 directly relate to the data and insights presented in Chapters 4 and 5, in the same structure. The model developed in this conclusion follows the same sequence based on the insights from Chapter 6. It shows how the three specific dimensions tested can be expected to have an influence on sub-themes within them and with each other.

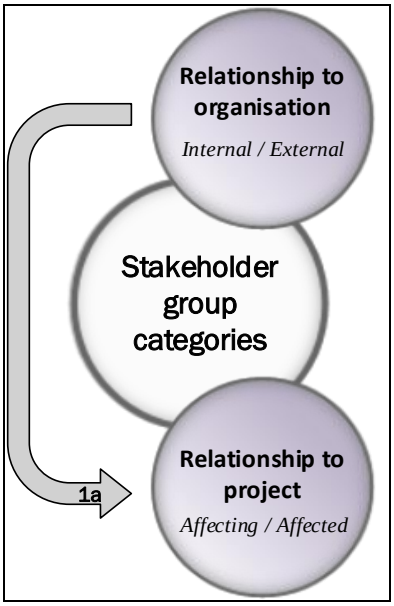
The figures representing the model can be understood as follows. Figure 11 through Figure 16 are sub-components of the final model shown in Figure 17. The large white circles in the centre of each diagram represent the key dimensions whilst the smaller shaded circles depict categories associated with the dimension. Arrows represent dependent relationships between components, direction showing which item had influence over the other, for example

relationship to organisation affects relationship to project. The numbers in the arrows are the hypotheses used to test this. As relationships were tested between all categories, two circles without arrows indicate that there was no relationship between these items.

7.2.1. Stakeholders

As a standalone entity the stakeholder groups identified in existing literature still appear comprehensive and there was no need to expand on these categories. Stakeholder group relationships with their organisation (internal or external) are seen to influence how the groups hold sway over projects (that they can affect or are affected by the project) though and internally placed organisational stakeholder groups such as directors were shown to have more affect over a project on the whole than external groups such as customers or suppliers, with the exception of shareholders who were shown to have a very strong affect on a project. Figure 11 demonstrates this relationship as the first part of the model.

Figure 11 . Dimension of stakeholder



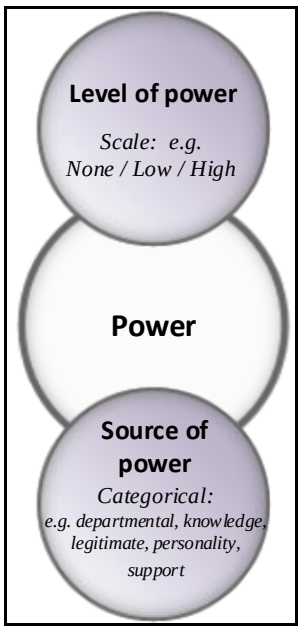
During the first stages of analysis three different sample group types were interviewed and an interesting aside finding was that the impressions of which stakeholder groups were important varied significantly amongst type of sample group. Human resource professionals identified stakeholders as people internal to the company more frequently than any other category, whilst technical people had the widest range of opinion but were seemingly more observant of stakeholder groups with *affect over* rather than those *affected by* projects, and included more external stakeholder than others. Independent change practitioners had a higher regard for

stakeholders who were *impacted* by projects than other groups. This has no bearing on the development of the model, but is worthwhile understanding when selecting people to manage a change project.

7.2.2. Power

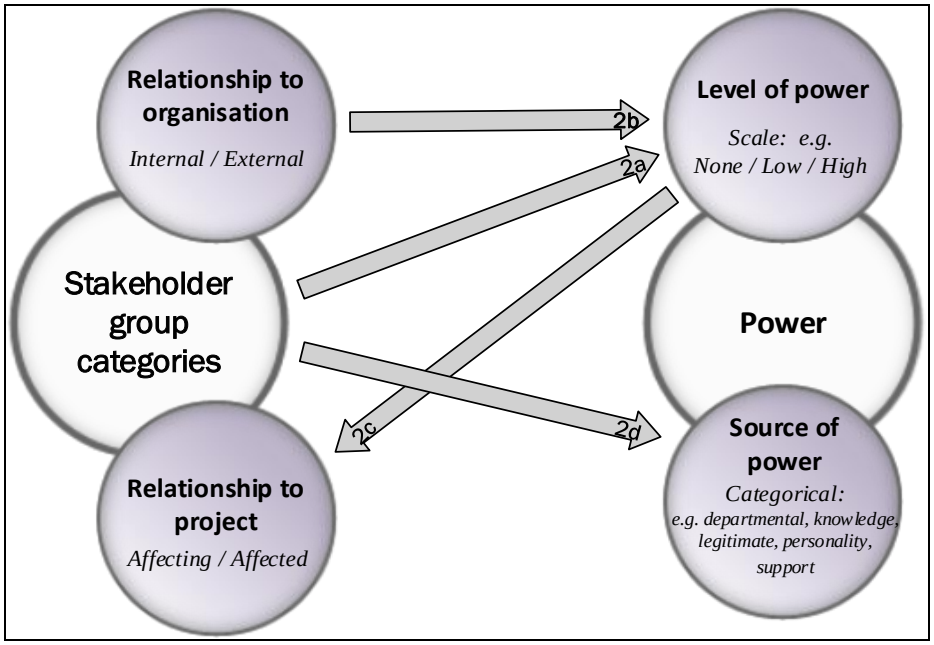
The second aspect of *power* was considered in isolation to see if any relationships existed between the dimensions used to develop this theme. Figure 12 shows the two dimensions of *level of power* and *source of power* as covered in the research and it can be seen that no relationship was uncovered between any of these topics. To understand why this was, consider the example of a group which could have been seen to have held a high level of power over the project and obtained power from two sources, say for example through legitimacy and internal knowledge. The interviews did not set out to determine whether legitimacy or knowledge or a combination was the reason for the high magnitude of power so the dimension's relationships and influences were not clear, although this could be the subject of additional research.

Figure 12 . Dimension of power



Some key dependencies between the themes of stakeholder group and power were uncovered. These are shown in Figure 13.

Figure 13 . Relationships between stakeholders and power

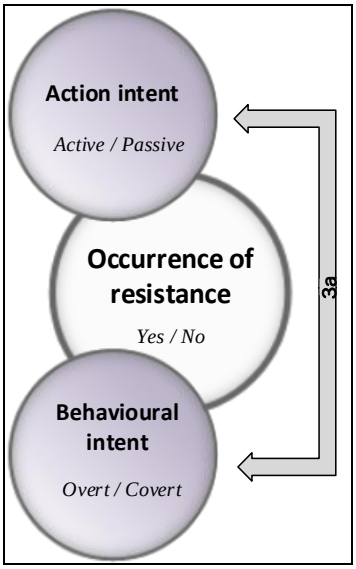


In general the stakeholder group types had a significant impact on power, influencing both the level of power held as well as the source of power. Specific groups demonstrated definite trends in power, for example directors and executives were seen to hold level five (high) power more often than any other level. *Both* internally oriented stakeholder groups (those which *can affect* projects or those *affected by*) had a high tendency towards knowledge as a source of power. Relationship to the organisation also had an effect on the level of power; internal groups trending towards higher power, and external groups being more varied. The relationship to the project had no impact on any power dimension but working backwards the level of power had a somewhat obvious impact on the relationship to the project, high levels of power suggested a higher ability to affect a project, and low power groups were more affected by the project. Neither of the sub-categories of stakeholder relationship *to the organisation* or *to the project* had any influence over source of power.

7.2.3. Resistance

Resistance was studied along the aspect of behaviour. Figure 14 shows how this dimension was built up in isolation.

Figure 14 . Dimension of Resistance

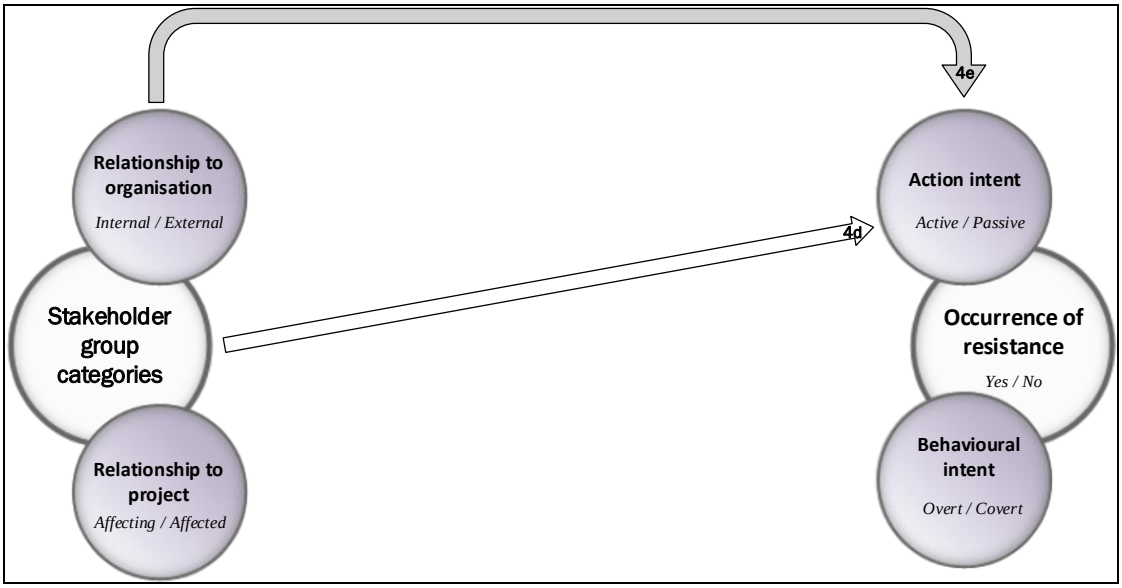


Occurrence of resistant behaviour amongst stakeholder groups was not universal which was not surprising as certain groups would have vested interests in the positive outcomes of a change. In the study over half the groups identified showed resistance. Bovey and Hede (2001) provided the dimensions of *action* intent and *behavioural* intent which were used to categorise behaviours observed. The relationship between action and behaviour had a dependence. *Active* resistance action is more likely to be *overt* in nature, for example in visible forms of resistance such as outspoken criticism, whilst *passive* action tends towards *covert* behaviour such as non-participation.

7.2.4. Stakeholder groups and resistance

Relationships between stakeholder groups and resistance found only two dependencies, as shown in Figure 15. The type of stakeholder group and the group relationship to the organisation were seen to influence action. For all groups active resistance was seen to be more common than passive.

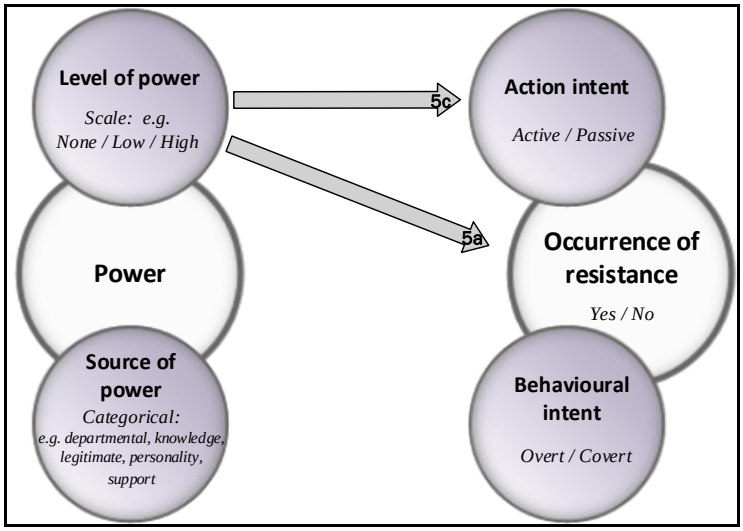
Figure 15. Relationships between stakeholder groups and resistance



7.2.5. Power and resistance

One of the key unexpected findings was that the tendency to show resistant behaviour was higher in stakeholder groups which had higher levels of power than in those with low levels of power. High levels of power also correlated to more active resistance than passive, which was found in groups with low power. High levels of power also showed up as overt behaviour. Working resistance back to the first dimension, stakeholder group categories were also seen to have an effect on resistance action, certain group types being more prone to active behaviour than others (particularly very senior groups). This already shows how multi-dimensional relationships can be derived from the model, for example high-powered stakeholder groups can be expected to show resistance more often, which is more likely to be active and overt in nature.

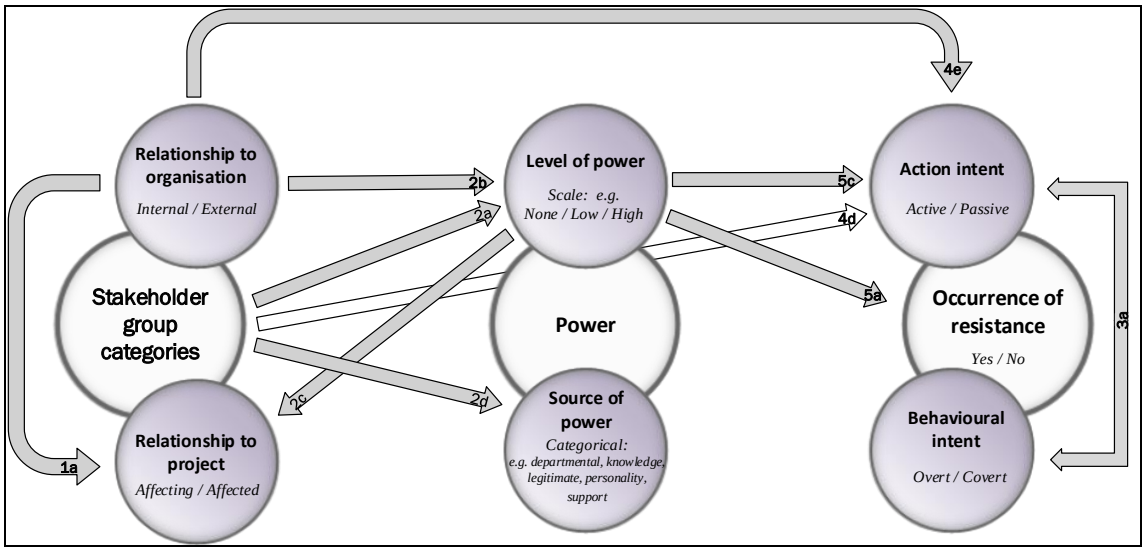
Figure 16 . Relationships between power and resistance



7.2.6. The final model

Wrapping up all the previous models gives the final Stakeholder, Power and Resistance model of relationships as depicted in Figure 17. The model and a matrix form of the detail are also included in Appendix D.

Figure 17. The Final Stakeholder, Power and Resistance model



7.3. Recommendations for Change Managers

A person planning for change could use the model in Figure 17 in a number of areas of a change planning process. An obvious approach would be to start with stakeholder analysis, considering

all project stakeholder group types and their relationship to the company. The model could then contribute to the stakeholder analysis process by allowing a planner to consider stakeholders on a project in a structured manner and predicting behaviour, from which a mitigation or response strategy could be prepared. At this point the research is more accurate for groups with higher levels of and active/overt behaviour but can be extended by further more specific research. A typical process would be as follows:

1. Identify stakeholders
    a. Categorise stakeholder groups using a framework (Burke, 2007).
    b. Categorise group relationships to the organisation as either internal or external.
2. Estimate power dimensions per group
    a. The levels of power can be estimated for groups using the data in 1a and 2b.
    b. Sources of power can be estimated from 1a and patterns in the study.
    c. Each group relationship to the project, either affecting or affected by, can be estimated from 2a.
3. Estimate resistance from each stakeholder group
    a. From 2a a determination of the likelihood of resistance can be estimated, i.e. that each group will or won't resist based on their level of power and their group type.
    b. The resistance action intent can be estimated from 1a and 2a results.
    c. The resistance behavioural intent can be estimated from 3b. Typically active behaviour can be assumed to be more likely to be overt, and passive behaviour would be covert in more cases.

Plans can be compiled based on the above data. If groups are not expected to resist then the plans could consider how to lobby support and continue to keep these people engaged and positive. If groups are expected to resist the model can try to predict the type of resistance and form either a contingency strategy to reduce the likelihood of the behaviour occurring, or respond to it when it does with a mitigation plan to reduce the impact. For example if active, overt resistance is expected from a senior internal stakeholder group, then perhaps their

sources of power could be adjusted to change their behaviour. A group could have their legitimacy consciously removed (for example through demotion or transfer) or training could be guided towards diluting a particular groups' knowledge power by empowering more people in the organisation. If more research is done on the sources of power relationship to levels of power then this becomes even more useful.

Another application of the model could be to be able to work backwards from behaviours observed later in a project. A group could be seen to be resisting in a certain manner, which could then be worked back to levels and sources of power to plan a response in a similar vein to the previous example typically in the form of a mitigating action.

7.4. Managerial Implications

Management should be aware of the need to plan for resistance and also importantly to understand who is being allocated to planning and managing change as this will affect how those involved in the change are approached. The research confirms the literature showing that organisational structures create power bases which both provide for sources of negative response in that people will resist changes to their power, and also empower people to cause greater or lesser harm. Organisational design is therefore a fundamentally important aspect to consider when planning change.

7.5. Recommendations for Future Research

This research planned to extend the work on three dimensions in change management and resulted in the design of a model which could be used practically in change management. Further research along various aspects of this model should strengthen the dimensions and extend the ability to estimate and plan for resistance.

- A specific study on the connection between sources of power and magnitude of power will confirm the current assumption that there is a formal dependency. The existence of this connection and the understanding of these relationships will allow for specific interventions based on explicitly understood power sources.

- As there is a possible limitation in the observation of covert behaviour, a more sensitive and directed approach to this form of behaviour will extend the data for this dimension and allow for a broader estimation of resistance.

- Does project age and status have an impact on the observations of sample groups? For example would a successful project demonstrate more or different resistance than a failure or a project which is still in progress, and is this a cause or effect relationship (i.e. is it the failure which results in observations of more resistance, or is it that the project had more resistance which caused it to fail?).

- Current material on sustainability and stakeholder analysis refer to external stakeholders more frequently. This research showed that the extent of external parties identified as stakeholders is still relatively low. Understanding why this is still the case would be useful. Are external stakeholders really not worth considering because of various factors such as influence, or are change managers just excluding them, and what could the consequences of this be?

- Can specific response types be matched to specific resistance forms? For example if a person resists in an active covert manner such as with criticism, would there be a response activity which would most effectively address this?

7.6. Conclusion

Change is still a central aspect of organisational success. Literature talks to a broad range of subjects in this topic, but in the business context a key objective is being able to respond effectively and more successfully than the competition. This research clearly doesn't provide the unified theory of change management, but does extend and clarify a number of perspectives and relationships between three dimensions which should support an extension of change planning processes and hopefully iteratively improve outcomes.

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Appendix A: Interview Guide and Support Material

The following is a simplified version of the interview material used in the research:

Interview Guide

Interview structure and guidelines for discussion

The interview should take under an hour if the interviewer sticks to the agenda.

Greet and complete summary data [5 minutes]:

- Run through Informed Consent Letter if not already completed, or get copy if done in advance.
- Brief overview of the research and setting the context. Explain any terms they don't understand.
- Understand the nature of the project and the impact of their change initiative.

Stakeholder identification and power [25-30 minutes]

- Identify all the key stakeholder groups on the project in question. The list is to be written on the Stakeholders data collection sheet. If they want to mind-map the relationship to the project and each other that would of additional benefit but could be time consuming.
- Use the Stakeholder prompt sheet to assist once the subject has run out of ideas.
- How much power did each groups hold over the project?
- Where did each group get their power from?
- How much impact could the project have on the stakeholders?

Resistance behaviours [20-25 minutes]

- Identify the types of resistance to change experienced on the project on a separate sheet. Use Bovey and Hede (2001) framework.
- Once behaviours have been listed, the subject should map these to the stakeholders identified in the previous section, using the Resistance data collection sheet if possible.

Conclusion of Interview

Data Collection Sheets

Interview Number:		Place of Interview:		Date:	

Interviewee Details and Change Initiative

Name [1]			
Experience managing changes (select one)	< 5 Years	5-10 years	> 10 years
Change management area (select one)	External Consultant	Internal HR / OD	Internal technical/process
Choose one recent project. Brief description of project:			
Status and outcomes (select one)	Completed	In Progress	
Notes			

Stakeholder Mapping

No.	Stakeholder Group	Power over project*					Project impact on group						
		1	2	3	4	5	1. Uncertainty	2. Social Relationships	3. New requirements in job / skills	4. Needs not met / job more difficult	5. Impact on power / prestige	6. Loss of jobs	7. Other
1													
2													
3													
4													
5													
6													
7													
8													

Resistance

No.	Resistance Observed			
	Passive / Covert	**Passive / Overt**	**Active / Overt**	**Active / Covert**
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				

Prompt Cards

Stakeholder Prompt Sheet – Burke (2007)

Project stakeholders include but are not necessarily limited to:

- the person who originates the venture or identifies the opportunity
- those who have a need for the venture (owners)
- those who provide funding and support (sponsors)
- those who are affected or operated within the boundaries of the change (users)
- those implementing the venture (staff or consultants)
- customers and suppliers who may be directly affected or indirectly affected
- management who control the resources and workforce
- strategic partnerships
- shareholders
- government
- community
- environment

Resistant Behaviour Prompt Sheet (Bovey & Hede, 2001)

	Overt	**Covert**
Active	○ Argumentativeness ○ Appealing to fear ○ Blaming or accusatory behaviour ○ Blocking ○ Intimidation and threats ○ Manipulation ○ Outspoken criticism ○ Ridiculing ○ Sabotage	○ Behind-the-scenes criticism ○ Fault-finding ○ Rumour-mongering, ○ Selective use or distortion of facts ○ Undermining
Passive	○ Verbal agreement without follow-through ○ Failure to implement ○ Procrastination ○ Withholding of information, participation or support	○ Feigning ignorance ○ Withdrawal from the change ○ Avoiding the change ○ Standing on the side and allowing the change to fail

Power-base Prompt Sheet

Knowledge	
Expert	Possession of specific knowledge acquired through studies or experience.
Information	Owning information which could be used to gain advantage through withholding, distorting, or redirection.
Traditional	Knowledge gained through experience and tenure, e.g. culture and values.
Personality	
Charisma	Ability to gain pride, trust and respect.
Reputation	Relative perception of others based on understanding of expertise and successes.
Professional Credibility	Access and involvement with professional external parties, access to these bodies, freedom of expression
Other's Support	
Political Access	Access to senior and influential people through channels other than legitimate hierarchy.
Staff Support	Amount of resource and ability available. Use of staff political relationships and agendas, control of information, access to expertise.

Appendix B: List of Respondents and Projects

#	Int. Date	Company	Project Sector	Role Category	Project Type
1	2013-05-27	SA Breweries	Brewers	Internal - HR/OD (People)	Merger
2	2013-05-28	SA Taxi Finance	Consumer Finance	External - Change / Project Manager	Process and system implementation
3	2013-06-01	AON	Insurance brokers	Internal - Tech/Process	Winding up of business
4	2013-06-05	SA Breweries	Brewers	Internal - HR/OD (People)	Restructure (OD)
5	2013-06-06	AECI/ACL	Speciality chemicals	External - Change / Project Manager	Process centralisation
6	2013-06-07	Comair	Airlines	External - Change / Project Manager	System implementation
7	2013-06-20	Standard Bank	Banks	Internal - HR/OD (People)	Consolidation
8	2013-07-01	Energy and Resources (anon)	Integrated oil and gas	External - Change / Project Manager	Shared services implementation
9	2013-07-23	Nedbank Investment	Banks	External - Change / Project Manager	Process and system implementation
10	2013-07-23	Transaction Capital	Consumer Finance	Internal - Tech/Process	Business strategy implementation
11	2013-08-06	Municipality (anon)	Government	Internal - HR/OD (People)	HR System Implementation
12	2013-08-08	SAPO	Public services	Internal - Tech/Process	IT Infrastructure and strategy
13	2013-08-08	Glenrand MIB	Insurance brokers	Internal - Tech/Process	Business expansion into Africa
14	2013-08-08	Amadwala Investments	Consumer Finance	Internal - Tech/Process	Merger
15	2013-08-19	Innovation Group	Insurance brokers	Internal - HR/OD (People)	Merger

Due to the commitment to anonymity in the ethical process and the sensitivity of the interview content, the names of people have been omitted. Company names have been omitted but the sectors they operate in are included.

Appendix C: Consistency Matrix

Table 75. Research Title: The relationships between stakeholder groups, power and resistance in organisational change initiatives

Questions	Literature Review	Data Collection Tool	Analysis
1. What were the stakeholder groups identified for the change initiatives? - *Hypothesis 1a (stakeholder group relationship to project & stakeholder group relationship to organisation)* - *Hypothesis 1b (sample group type & stakeholder group type)* - *Hypothesis 1c (sample group & stakeholder group relationship to organisation)* - *Hypothesis 1d (sample group & stakeholder group relationship to project)*	• Freeman (1984) • **Mitchell, Agle, & Wood (1997)** • Bourne and Walker (2005) • Burke (2007) • Olander (2007) • Reed (2008) • Newcombe (2010) • Yang, Shen, Bourne, Ho, and Xue (2011)	• Interview guide - stakeholder mapping grid • Stakeholder prompt sheet	• Content analysis • Chi Square tests
2. What levels of power and sources of power did each stakeholder group have? - *Hypothesis 2a (stakeholder group & level of power)* - *Hypothesis 2b (stakeholder group relationship to organisation & level of power)*	• Cummings and Worley (2005) • Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009) • Kanter (1980) • Bennis and Nanus (1985) • Pfeffer (1992) • Buchanan and Badham (1999) • Schein (1985) • French and Raven (1959) • **Greiner and Schein (1988)**	• Interview - stakeholder mapping grid. • Power-base prompt sheet	• Content analysis • Chi Square tests

Questions	Literature Review	Data Collection Tool	Analysis
- *Hypothesis 2c (stakeholder group relationship to project & level of power)* - *Hypothesis 2d (stakeholder group & sources of power)* - *Hypothesis 2e (stakeholder group relationship to organisation & source of power)* - *Hypothesis 2f (stakeholder group relationship to project & source of power)*	• Goldhamer and Schils (1939)		
3. What forms of resistance were observed in the change initiative? - *Hypothesis 3a (action & behaviour)*	• Lewin (1951) • Baker (1989) • Hultman (1995) • Piderit (2000) • **Bovey and Hede (2001)** • Trader-Leigh (2002) • Oreg (2006) • Lines (2004) • Giangrecco and Peccei (2005) • Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009)	• Interview guide - resistance mapping grid. • Resistance behaviour prompt sheet	• Content analysis • Chi Square tests

Questions	Literature Review	Data Collection Tool	Analysis
4. Was there a relationship between stakeholder power and the type of resistance demonstrated? - *Hypothesis 4a (stakeholder group & occurrence of resistance)* - *Hypothesis 4b (stakeholder group relation to organisation & occurrence of resistance)* - *Hypothesis 4c (stakeholder group relation to project & occurrence of resistance)* - *Hypothesis 4d (stakeholder group & action)* - *Hypothesis 4e (Stakeholder group relationship to organisation & action)* - *Hypothesis 4f (Stakeholder group relationship to project & action)* - *Hypothesis 4g (Stakeholder group & behaviour)* - *Hypothesis 4h (Stakeholder group relationship to organisation & behaviour)* - *Hypothesis 4i (Stakeholder group relationship to project & behaviour)*	• Not applicable – Data will come from questions 1 and 2.	• Interview guide • Data per previous sections	• Content Analysis • Chi-square test

Questions	Literature Review	Data Collection Tool	Analysis
5. Was there a relationship between a stakeholder power and the type of resistance demonstrated - *Hypothesis 5a (level of power & occurrence of resistance)* - *Hypothesis 5b (source of power & occurrence of resistance)* - *Hypothesis 5c (level of power & action)* - *Hypothesis 5d (level of power & behaviour)* - *Hypothesis 5e (source of power & action)* - *Hypothesis 5f (source of power & behaviour)*	• Not applicable: Data will come from questions 2 and 4.	• Interview guide • Data per previous sections	• Content Analysis • Chi-square tests

Appendix D: Normalised Data: Expected Sources of Power by Stakeholder Group

Table 76 . Expected sources of power by stakeholder group relationship matrix

Frequency of occurrences		Internal (can affect) 51.7%	Internal (affected) 18.3%	External (affected) 14.2%	External (can affect) 15.8%	Totals
Knowledge (Tradition)	Expected	28.4	10.1	7.8	8.7	**55**
	Actual	33.0	14.0	1.0	7.0	**55**
	Variance	4.6	3.9	-6.8	-1.7	**0**
Position / Legitimate	Expected	25.9	9.2	7.1	7.9	**50**
	Actual	36.0	1.0	0.0	13.0	**50**
	Variance	**10.2**	**-8.2**	**-7.1**	**5.1**	**0**
Departmental (Responsiveness)	Expected	21.7	7.7	6.0	6.6	**42**
	Actual	13.0	13.0	10.0	6.0	**42**
	Variance	**-8.7**	5.3	**4.0**	-0.6	**0**
Knowledge (Expert)	Expected	19.1	6.8	5.3	5.8	**37**
	Actual	23.0	9.0	3.0	2.0	**37**
	Variance	3.9	2.2	-2.3	**-3.8**	**0**
Knowledge (Information)	Expected	19.1	6.8	5.3	5.8	**37**
	Actual	16.0	14.0	3.0	4.0	**37**
	Variance	-3.1	7.2	-2.3	-1.8	**0**
Other's Support (Political access)	Expected	18.1	6.4	5.0	5.5	**35**
	Actual	22.0	2.0	3.0	8.0	**35**
	Variance	3.9	-4.4	-2.0	2.5	**0**
Departmental (Centrality)	Expected	15.0	5.3	4.1	4.6	**29**
	Actual	12.0	13.0	1.0	3.0	**29**
	Variance	-3.0	**7.7**	-3.1	-1.6	**0**
Other's Support (Staff support)	Expected	14.0	4.9	3.8	4.3	**27**
	Actual	16.0	7.0	1.0	3.0	**27**
	Variance	2.0	2.1	-2.8	-1.3	**0**
Personality (Professional credibility)	Expected	9.8	3.5	2.7	3.0	**19**
	Actual	13.0	3.0	1.0	2.0	**19**
	Variance	3.2	-0.5	-1.7	-1.0	**0**
Personality (Reputation)	Expected	7.8	2.7	2.1	2.4	**15**
	Actual	10.0	3.0	0.0	2.0	**15**
	Variance	2.2	0.3	-2.1	-0.4	**0**
Departmental (Low substitutability)	Expected	6.2	2.2	1.7	1.9	**12**
	Actual	3.0	4.0	4.0	1.0	**12**
	Variance	-3.2	1.8	2.3	-0.9	**0**
Departmental (Cope with uncertainty)	Expected	5.7	2.0	1.6	1.7	**11**
	Actual	7.0	3.0	1.0	0.0	**11**
	Variance	1.3	1.0	-0.6	-1.7	**0**
Personality (Charisma)	Expected	3.6	1.3	1.0	1.1	**7**
	Actual	5.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	**7**
	Variance	1.4	-1.3	-1.0	0.9	**0**
Totals	**Expected**	**194.4**	**68.8**	**53.4**	**59.4**	**376**
	Actual	**209.0**	**86.0**	**28.0**	**53.0**	**376**
	Variance	**14.6**	**17.2**	**-25.4**	**-6.4**	**0**

Table 77 . Expected sources of power (broad) by stakeholder group relationship matrix

Frequency of occurrences		Internal (affecting) 51.7%	Internal (affected) 18.3%	External (affected) 14.2%	External (affecting) 15.8%	Totals
Knowledge	Expected	37.7	13.4	10.4	11.5	**73**
	Actual	42.0	20.0	4.0	7.0	**73**
	Variance	4.3	**6.6**	-6.4	**-4.5**	**0**
Departmental	Expected	30.0	10.6	8.2	9.2	**58**
	Actual	22.0	17.0	11.0	8.0	**58**
	Variance	**-8.0**	6.4	2.8	-1.2	**0**
Support	Expected	25.3	9.0	7.0	7.7	**49**
	Actual	29.0	8.0	3.0	9.0	**49**
	Variance	3.7	-1.0	-4.0	1.3	**0**
Legitimate	Expected	25.9	9.2	7.1	7.9	**50**
	Actual	36.0	1.0	0.0	13.0	**50**
	Variance	**10.2**	**-8.2**	**-7.1**	**5.1**	**0**
Personality	Expected	15.5	5.5	4.3	4.7	**30**
	Actual	22.0	5.0	1.0	2.0	**30**
	Variance	6.5	-0.5	-3.3	-2.7	**0**
Totals	**Expected**	**134.4**	**47.6**	**36.9**	**41.1**	**260**
	Actual	**151.0**	**51.0**	**19.0**	**39.0**	**260**
	Variance	**16.6**	**3.4**	**-17.9**	**-2.1**	**0**

Appendix E: Stakeholder, Power and Resistance Model

Figure 18 . Stakeholder, power and resistance relationship model

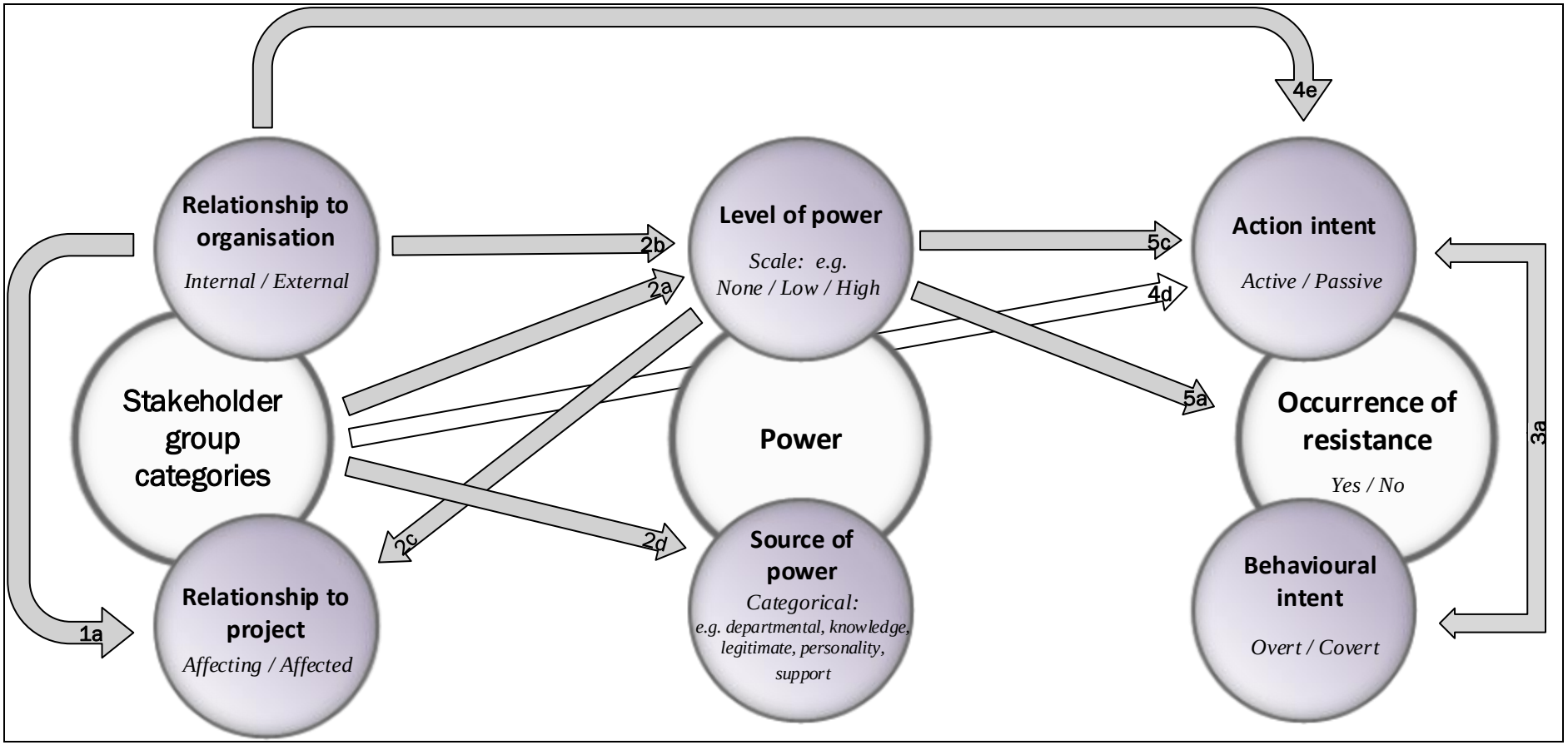

Table 78 compares the three key dimensions of stakeholder group, power and resistance, and their sub-categories, based on the findings discussed in chapter 6. The format the reads from top down and then across, for example, Relationship to Project reading as a column from the top "comes from" Group Category.

Table 78. Cross-referencing the three dimensions

		1. Stakeholder Groups			2. Power		3. Resistance		
Independent		**Group categories**	**Relationship to organisation**	**Relationship to project**	**Level**	**Source**	**Occurrence**	**Action**	**Behavioural**
1. Stakeholder Groups	**Group categories (SHG)**		Comes from…	Comes from…	Is related to…	X	X	Category type can predict action but not at a broader level	X
	Relationship to organisation (RTO)			Affected by: Internal RTO -> higher ability to affect project	Internal -> high External -> U	X	X	External RTO higher change of being "active"	X
	Relationship to project (RTP)				Low LOP -> affected RTP; High LOP -> affecting RTP	X	X	X	X
2. Power	**Level (LOP)**					X	V. High LOP -> Resistance V..Low LOP -> no resistance	High LOP -> Active Low LOP -> Passive	High power -> overt behaviour
	Source (SOP)						X	X	X
3. Resistance	**Occurrence**							Is…	Is…
	Action intent (AI)								Active and overt; passive and covert occur most freq.
	Behavioural Intent (BI)								