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TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF MACRO POLITICAL CONTEXT AND POWER ON ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

by

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ABSTRACT

UNPLANNED FORCED CHANGE: PATTERNS OF IDENTITY ENABLED POWER MECHANISMS AND ACTIVISM TOWARD FRAME BENDING

by

NATASHA WINKLER TITUS

"Burn to be heard". This chilling statement echoed across social media platforms during the #Feesmustfall and #Outsourcingmustfall mobilisations in 2015/16 and wreaked over R600m in damages in the South African higher education sector. It also led to the insourcing of previously outsourced workers at Uptown Academy, thereby providing the example of unplanned forced change that this study investigates, describes and analyses. The aim has been to propose a framework that explains instances of unplanned forced change driven from a macro level context, fuelled by power shifts between internal and external actors.

The study formulates a constructivist grounded theory framework through a single, embedded, longitudinal case study design based on 18 informant interviews, observations, archival records and a historical timeline of events in the macro and micro contexts.

The research discusses the role of multiple logics in framing organisational practices and decisions. It established activism as a mechanism to shift the prevailing logic that frames an organisational practice. It also uncovered how collective identities operating as power mechanisms can force change emanating from the macro context.

Over a period of almost 20 years the transformation in the HE sector had unintended consequences for labour practices. An increase in student numbers along with a decrease

in public funding brought the ideas of market logic to the administration of public HE institutions, thereby normalising the practice of outsourcing non-core services.

This service level agreement (SLA) created a collective, objectified identity of the *disenfranchised worker,* enabling domination to occur through the normalisation of power in an exploitative outsourcing agreement. Internal activists tried unsuccessfully for over 17 years to fight for insourcing, framing the workers' plight through market logic, emphasising low wages. Management ignored them, however, perceiving the worker not as a person but as an object situated in an SLA and the supply chain process.

A historical meaning of identity rooted in the history of South Africa marginalised both the students and the workers on campus. With no means nor voice to raise their concerns, however, the workers developed a collective 'subservient worker identity', presenting a public transcript (or face) of tolerance that hid the transcript of their discontent. When management was confronted with their plight in the beginning of 2016, it was framed in a socio-political logic and the activism, with elements of political posturing, was positioned in a blended economy. A form of manipulative power was manifested when the activists linked the collective racial identities of the "black child" and the "contract worker". The force of this historical alignment placed the plight of the worker in the domain of the Academy and provided the basis for mobilisation.

The theoretical contribution invites organisational change scholars to consider how the forms and influence of power and identity at the collective, social level lead to unplanned forced change. The framework links discourse and institutional logics, integrating social movement theory and the power framework of Fleming and Spicer (2014), to explain unplanned change. The summarised framework of Fleming and Spicer (2014) presents a useful guide for managers to understand how power operates. Combined with the findings in this study, it can locate mechanisms of collective identity in the different forms of power.

The grounded model on unplanned forced change aligns to and extends the social movement framework posited by Briscoe and Gupta (2016) and extends it to include change management literature.

The South African story of a challenged macro context rife with socio political and economic inequalities, racial tensions and misunderstood identities is not unique. The findings on forced unplanned change could provide practitioners and business leaders with the agility and intelligence to navigate unintended consequences of power and the impact of unplanned change.

Keywords: Organisational change; institutional logics, collective identity, power, activism, social media, unplanned change.

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CHAPTER 1

BACKDROP TO THE STUDY

THIS CHAPTER SETS THE SCENE FOR THE STUDY, DESCRIBING THE PROBLEM AND STATING ITS INTENDED AIMS AND STRUCTURE

CHAPTER 1 : BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In 1999, Weick and Quinn concluded their review of organisational development (OD)[1] and change by suggesting "both that change starts with failure to adapt and that change never starts because it never stops" (1999, p. 381). Their review followed as a result of modern influences of the science of complexity and interpretivist social sciences. The real world is complex and therefore a plurality of approaches to understand such complexity must be encouraged (Bouchenooghe, 2010; Van de Ven, 2007). What is required is actionable theory that can accommodate the dynamism and complexity of the changes modern organisations are faced with. What is required is a specific type of evidence: rich, thick, contextual, empirical data over time that help unravel the dynamics of change (duGay & Vikkelsø, 2012; Langley, Smallman, Tsoukas & Van de Ven, 2013; Pettigrew, Woodman & Cameron, 2001).

This research thesis sets out to introduce the problem and the specific objectives for the study and how it was resolved, leading up to a new contribution in the field of organisational change. The introductory chapter gives a backdrop to the research problem, describes the setting in which the study was conducted, summarises the aim, rationale and specific research questions and presents the anticipated contribution.

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Developments in theory on organisational change have brought us to a new discourse where two perspectives were propositioned in OD and change: Dialogic OD and Diagnostic OD (Bartunek & Woodman, 2015; Marshak & Bushe, 2009). While the diagnostic perspective and approach was developed before the modern era and focuses on change as an episodic, linear process which could be planned and managed, Marshak

[1] The list of acronyms and key concepts are included and can be referenced in the appendices at the back of this dissertation.

and Bushe (2009) posited that as time moved on postmodern views gave rise to a more dialogic perspective on OD and change. Dialogic approaches view organisations as meaning-making or sense-making systems where social reality emerges from dialogic processes and associated social and political interactions among various actors (Marshak & Grant, 2009; as cited in Bushe and Marshak, 2015). Change is viewed as continuous and cyclical. This perspective has implications for the way in which OD and change are dealt with in organisations, and although senior managers engage in negotiations with a particular end in mind (Thomas, Sargent & Hardy, 2011) it is not helpful to consider change as simply the realisation of a management plan. After six decades of theoretical contributions in the field of organisational change, scholars agree that the unplanned and unanticipated consequences of change are still elusive. Continuous radical change is a complex, novel and understudied phenomenon (Plowman, Baker, Beck, Kulkarni, Solansky & Travis, 2007) and therefore in their study the authors applied complexity theory to demonstrate how radical change emerges. Their study found that radical change was unintended, emergent and slow; destabilising conditions helped it emerge; subsequent actions amplified the initial small change and unintentionally pushed toward radical change and dynamic interaction of amplifying actions; contextual conditions and small changes led to radical continuous change (Plowman et.al, 2007). In this instance it is important to note that the organisation was on a change trajectory that led to unintended changes. Studying and practising in the field of organisational change, Nadler and Tushman (1989) spoke about organisational frame bending and principles for managing reorientations but stated that successful reorientation involved a mix of planning and unplanned opportunistic action. Summarising the challenges facing change theories, Pryor, Taneja, Humphreys, Anderson and Singleton (2008) emphasised that the speed and complexity of change required attention. In summary, the theory in organisational

change focuses on planned change where unanticipated consequences lead to improvisation. However, radical, unplanned and unforeseen change forced onto an organisation remains a phenomenon to be explained. As Van de Ven and Bouckenhoogte noted above, the real world is complex and therefore the ability to anticipate and deal with all change is elusive. What is required is greater understanding of how radical, unplanned and unforseseen change emerges and learning from these experiences should be turned into workable theory to anticipate potential consequences of actions.

This study considers unplanned, forced change and specifically focusing on areas of organisational context and power to this understanding. Although context has been acknowledged in the organisational change literature as influencing change processes (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997), knowledge about context is limited (By, 2005; Van Tonder, 2004; Viljoen, 2015). Viljoen (2015) highlighted the elements in the external environment (e.g., competition and new technology) that could cause change within organisations, and McKay Bradley and Chia (2013) acknowledged the unintended consequences of change. However, the interplay between context and power and how it leads to forced, unplanned change remains unexplained.

Although context remains neglected in change literature, power dynamics have been studied in organisational change (Munduate & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, 2003). However, the proposed case presented a unique setting for how power dynamics unfold. Fleming and Spicer (2014) studied power in organisation and management studies and were aligned to published authors on the subject like Buchanan and Badham (2008). Although useful, the emphasis in these studies was on power situated within the organisation. Thomas, Sargent and Hardy (2011) also confirmed how power resistance in relationships was addressed through meaning making, but their study was focused on micro-

relationships within the organisation. This still leaves a gap in our understanding of how power, positioned in the macro context, directly impacts and in fact directs organisational change.

1.1.1 Setting the scene

2015 was a tumultuous year for higher education (HE) in SA. Transformation in education moved to the heart of the national discourse through the #RhodesMustFall (#RMF) and #FeesMustFall (#FMF) campaigns (Habib, 2016). By the end of 2015 a decision to increase fees had been revoked (fallen) but the upheaval continued. In the wake of the biggest mass uprising since the demise of apartheid in SA in 1994, the HE landscape was in crisis. This crisis played out in a context of economic downturn and instability and a heavily influenced socio-political milieu. Amid this tension, the institutional operating model also came under fire as workers in outsourced services joined the student protests. Here we observed how the students (influenced by the macro context, specifically socio economic and socio political conditions) yielded the power bases that may potentially have influenced and driven management processes. A number of universities took this plight to heart and a commission on insourcing was established. The research case focused here on the insourcing program at an HE institution in SA, Uptown Academy.

The HE crisis was not unique to SA. HE in Quebec, Canada, faced similar student demonstrations in 2012 in the face of proposed fee hikes (Thériault, 2018). A Chilean education conflict during 2011-2013 saw protests demanding a new education framework in the country. The protests reflected a deep discontent with the high level of inequality in Chile and at times turned violent. In these examples, we observed a macro level context (socio-economics and the national education framework) leading to disruption at the micro

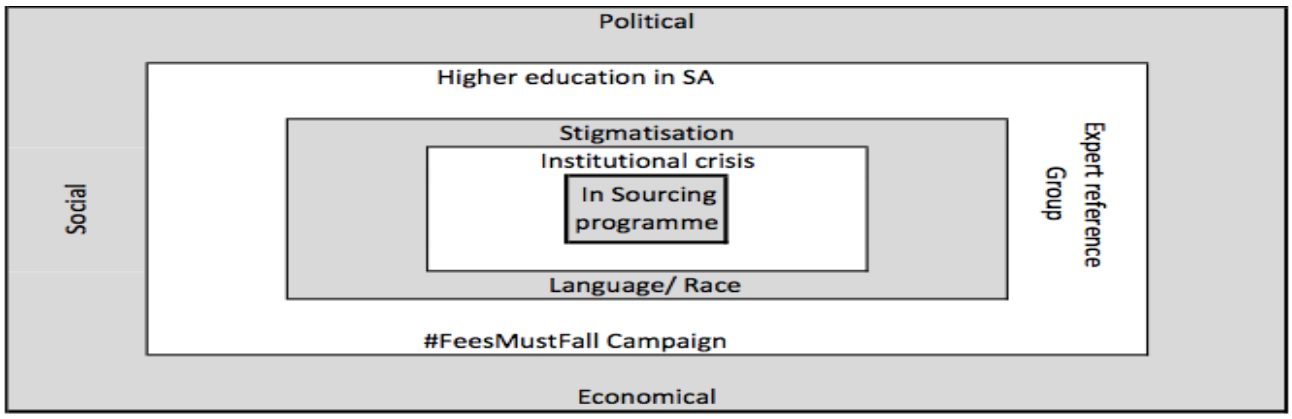
level (the specific academic institutions) with the intent to influence national change. This case study will present similar contextual dynamics passing from macro- to micro-level and potentially back to macro level.

The context in which this case unfolded (socio-political drivers and a tough economic climate) presented a unique opportunity to study the influence and impact of context on how the change was forced onto the organisation. Ford and Ford (in Weick & Quinn, 1999) alluded to macro level complexity, but this study could make a contribution toward understanding *how* the context influences and impacts the process and subsequent actions.

1.1.2 The case – a decision to insource contracted services

The process that culminated in a decision to insource workers from previously outsourced services, thereby ending outsourcing, is what the research case study focused on. The context described above evolved to system transformation and elements of social justice advocacy. Banks (2012) found such a context to be linked to 'wicked' challenges, which could be linked to a unplanned forced change decisions. The specific case could be contextualised as per the figure below.

Figure 1.1 : The case in context



Sketch by researcher to illustrate the case in context

This case presented major organisational change driven from a complex, macro-context and its power dynamics. The key drivers of change, being economic and socio-political (including students as members of political parties), were not the direct beneficiaries of change. Historically, change models were predicted on the assumption that the organisation, management specifically was the key actor. In this case, the primary drivers of change were associated with the organisation but occupied no “formal” position of power in it.

The initial impact of change

We cannot allow this exploitation of our parents to go on. This outsourcing must end (quote from informant S2).

Organisational change can be experienced as planned or unplanned. During a planned change initiative, organisational change methodology includes an impact assessment to understand the potential impact of the change decision and how this could be accommodated and facilitated in the organisation to ensure a successful change intervention. The change in the case study however was unplanned and therefore I was interested in the perceived impact of the change.

The termination of service level agreements moves the costs of such services over to salary costs. These costs ballooned severely because the salaries now needed to provide for statutory benefits and special benefits like free education for staff and their children (Nicolson, 2016)[2]. Secondary costs included elements like new uniforms (my personal observation), extension of the training budget for staff and access to a staff clinic. The organisation only declared the financial impact of insourcing in terms of salary cost increases, but greater impacts were reported, including the cost of expanding service delivery to areas not previously serviced (Jansen, 2017).

Another obvious impact I noticed was structural. Increasing employee numbers changed the organisational structure, adding new role requirements and span of control for senior managers. Where these managers in the past had a smaller span of control and were largely managing service level agreements, the decision now impacted on what was required of them in their role as leaders (Reid, 2016).

There was also the impact of anarchy. During the mobilisation, limited attention was given to the violation of the rights of others (Habib, 2016). Not all stakeholders were in favour of the mobilisation and the impact it had on the academic program. The decision to insource had an added impact back into the macro context, and much was publicised about the impact on the security industry (Müller, 2016). The impact on employee organisations saw attempts by new unions to infiltrate the organisation, which created animosity from the existing representative unions (Luckett & Pontarelli, 2016). The victory achieved in the #OMF campaign extended beyond the HE sector when workers in other industries started mobisiling against outsourcing, thus moving an impact back into the

[2]Greg Nicolson, an international journalist covering power and politics, wrote a number of articles related to the #Feesmustfall and #Outsourcingmustfall campaigns.

macro context (Luckett & Pontarelli, 2016). The change impact therefore supported the study of an organisation experiencing change forced upon it from a socio political context and driven by external power dynamics.

In the prevailing environment characterised by volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity, as is typical in this case, leaders of organisations faced multiple issues, that rendered the application of “best practice” or pre-existing knowledge or solutions inadequate (Van Tonder, 2004; Schein, as cited in Bushe & Marshak, 2015). For this reason, the conventional approaches to facilitating change must be revisited. This can only be done with a better understanding of how change happens.

In the same year that Weick and Quinn remarked on the concept of change, reviews of the theory and research by Armenakis and Badeian (1999) emphasised the linear process of change and diagnosis as a first step with very limited focus on emergence and minimal support for sustainable organisational change. Following on a few years later in their review of the field, Austin and Bartunek (2003) highlighted a growth in the prominence of contemporary interventions, some emphasising social constructionism (groups of people creating their own reality through dialogue and enactment). In 2005, By offered a critical review and emphasised the emergent processes but concluded by presenting the established models for organisational change, including the 10 commandments of Kanter (Kanter, Stein & Jick 1992) regarding executing change, the 8-step model of Kotter and the seven steps of Luecke, all emphasising a planned, sequential approach. Finally, the latest review by Bartunek and Woodman (2015) highlights an increased awareness of the importance of language and discourse and the evolution of the dialogic perspective. Their review concluded with an appeal for more theory building and testing in this regard.

The case sets the scene for a “non-conventional”, that is a non-linear process of

change. The literature presented a case for solid models and theory on planned change but was appealing for more theory in the “non-conventional” change processes, thereby stimulating my curiosity in this research.

1.2 AIM OF THE RESEARCH, RATIONALE AND RESESARCH QUESTIONS

The aim of this study was to understand how change unfolds when the major driving force emanates from the macro level context and power shifts between internal and external actors. The case presented a unique opportunity to study how the broader context informed and influenced organisational change processes as well as how the macro level power dynamics influenced and impacted on the process at a micro level.

The study of organisational change dates back to the 1940’s when Kurt Lewin (1930-1947) first introduced his planned change theory. Despite this, organisations still grappled with change, its origins and how to deal with it (Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Beer & Nohria, 2000, Van Tonder, 2009). In essence, the theory on change could be divided into two streams consisting of theories of change and theories of changing (Bennis, in Seo, Putnam & Bartunek, 2004). Porras and Robertson (in Woodman, 2014) also distinguishes between two streams: change process theories focused on explaining the dynamic through which organisations changed while implementation theory focused on specific interventions and procedures that could be applied during change.

The early theories on organisational change were strongly influenced by the views on the nature of the world at that time. The modern era presented the concept of organisation as predominantly systemic and process oriented and this consequently allowed for a systemic view of change (Nadler, 1982; Nadler & Tushman, 1990; Van Tonder, 2004). These diagnostic approaches that viewed change as a linear process which could be planned and managed were later questioned. Van Tonder (2004, p. 17) for example

questioned why we were still applying a very structured, “closed system view” of the environment type change process if the concept of organisation had indeed progressed.

Post-modern thinking had an influence on organisational change theories. Post-modern organisations were characterised by change that was extensive, rapid and complex (Van Tonder, 2004) and viewed as socially constructed realities that resulted from members’ sense making activities (Bushe & Marshak, 2015; Cummings & Worley, 2014; Dawes & Brown, 2000). New approaches that emphasised dialogue, meaning making and complexity influenced organisational change theories, and emerging approaches included Appreciative inquiry, World café and large-scale system interventions.

Bushe and Marshak (2009), seasoned scholars and practitioners in the field of OD and change for over 40 years, noticed that the perspective on OD and change has in essence split along two lines that they termed a prevailing diagnostic and a newer dialogic perspective. While the diagnostic perspective and approach was born out of the modern era and focused on change as an episodic, linear process that could be planned and managed, they posit that in time postmodern views gave rise to a more dialogic perspective to OD and change. Dialogic approaches viewed organisations as meaning-making or sense-making systems where social reality emerged from dialogic processes and associated social and political interactions among various actors (Grant & Marshak, 2011). Change was viewed as continuous and cyclical. In a dialogic OD perspective, organisation members actively engaged in sense making as they socially constructed organisational reality through dialogue and interaction (Cummings as cited in Bushe & Marshak, 2015). The diagnostic OD perspective, which was predominantly based on positivist social science, treated organisations as tangible entities that could be assessed objectively, thus implying planned OD and change tactics (Cummings as cited in Bushe & Marshak, 2015). On the other hand, the dialogic OD perspective sets as propositions

generativity, emergence and co-creation as practices in OD and change.

In this study I answer calls from Bushe and Marshak (2015), Bartunek and Woodman (2015) to build on a greater understanding of the mechanisms of change as well as how it emerged to create change, especially unplanned forced change (Langley, Smallman, et al., 2013; Tsoukas & Chia, 2002).

1.2.1 The specific research questions:

Q1: How does the macro socio political and socio economic context create the conditions for unplanned change?

Q2: How does the power dynamic unfold between the internal and external environments?

1.3 ANTICIPATED CONTRIBUTION OF THE RESEARCH

The first aim of the study was to make a contribution on a theoretical level. As articulated in the introduction, the context has been acknowledged in literature as influencing change, but knowledge on this and how it happens is limited. Similarly, while power dynamics has been studied intensively at micro-level, this case presented a unique setting for how power dynamics unfolded at a macro-level, yet with consequences for the unfolding of the change process on the micro-level as well. The study therefore contributed to change theory by explaining unplanned forced change through patterns of identity enabled power mechanisms and activism toward frame bending, leading to change decision.

Secondly, the study will aim to make a contribution by studying an exemplary case as it unfolds. A typical institution of the standing and character of Uptown Academy could be described as bureaucratic, with long and complicated decision-making processes and timelines (Reddy, 2004). The changes in this case study present a rapid process of

decision making and flexible implementation, challenging the traditional boundaries of a typical bureaucratic organisation. The case presented an example of how the context and power dynamics impacted on the change processes in the Academy.In addition, as the process unfolded I observed how the impact at this micro level rebounded into the macro context.

Lastly, the study will also aim to make a contribution at the level of practice. In a paper on HE and social transformation, Reddy (2004) remarked that the role of HE in social transformation was obvious and visible during apartheid whereas in present times it was problematic to conceive of a positive empirical relationship between HE and social transformation in SA. Reddy (2004) posited that in the extensive literature on democratic transitions and consolidation, SA served as the classic case study of trans placement. The National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) (1996) recognised the pivotal role of HE institutions in the political, economic and cultural reconstruction and development of SA. We therefore apply a case of this nature to learn about change and transformation.

This study aims to shed light on the change process and provide HE institutions and organisations in general with an appreciation of how the context evolves over time and force organisations to change.

1.4 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The research study commenced in June 2016 after the research board had approved the proposal. The flow of the thesis as summarised in Figure 1.2 below, started with the background to the study. Chapter 1 positions this case study of unplanned forced change at Uptown Academy in 2015/2016 in the context of socio-political driving forces in South Africa at the time and in the HE sector in particular. It outlines the process of organisational change that culminated in the decision to insource previously outsourced workers and the different ways in which this decision had an impact. The chapter

concludes with a discussion of the research questions and the likely contribution of the study.

Chapter 2 sets out the approach taken to answer these questions, explains why a qualitative methodology of a case study incorporating grounded theory was chosen to do this, outlines the components of the ensuing research framework and describes the reiterative cycle of research activities flowing from it.

Chapter 3 presents a thick description reporting the story of change. It highlights the socio political macro context in South Africa and explains in- and outsourcing over the years both at the case organisation as well as in the HE sector. Insourcing as a major change decision is explained through the 'ten days of war'. The chapter concludes with a summary of the history and character of Uptown Academy.

Chapter 4 describes the preliminary phase of data analysis and the concepts and overarching categories yielded that emerged. The nomological map concludes with categories including activism and intelligence to mobilise, a historically informed socio-political environment, a blended economy, identification and direct as well as indirect power.

Chapter 5 summarises the theory and research in extant literature relating to unplanned forced change, institutional logics, power during change and social movement theory.

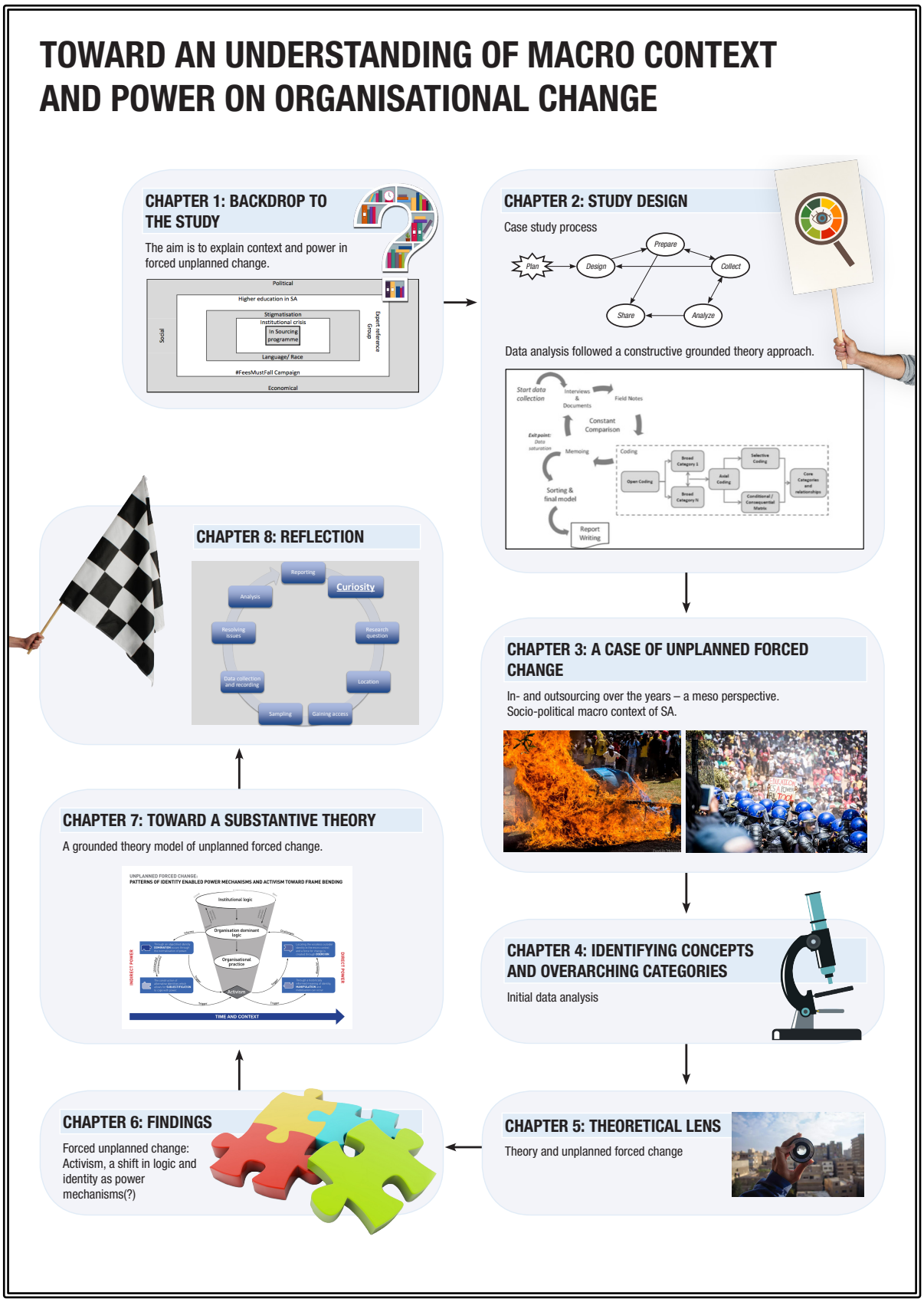
Chapter 6 discusses the role of theoretical coding in identifying relationships between categories and developing the grounded theory. The findings of this study of forced unplanned change are described and discussed in terms of activism, logic shift and identity as power mechanisms.

Chapter 7 works toward a substantive theory by discussing the findings against the extant literature and presenting a grounded theory model of unplanned forced change.

Included are 24 propositions that represent the theoretical constructs of the grounded theory.

Chapter 8 concludes the thesis with a reflection on the process, the story of change, contributions, limitations and my personal reflections on the experience.

Figure 1.2 : Structure of the thesis



Researcher's diagram reflecting the flow of the thesis

CHAPTER 2

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER 2 : THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

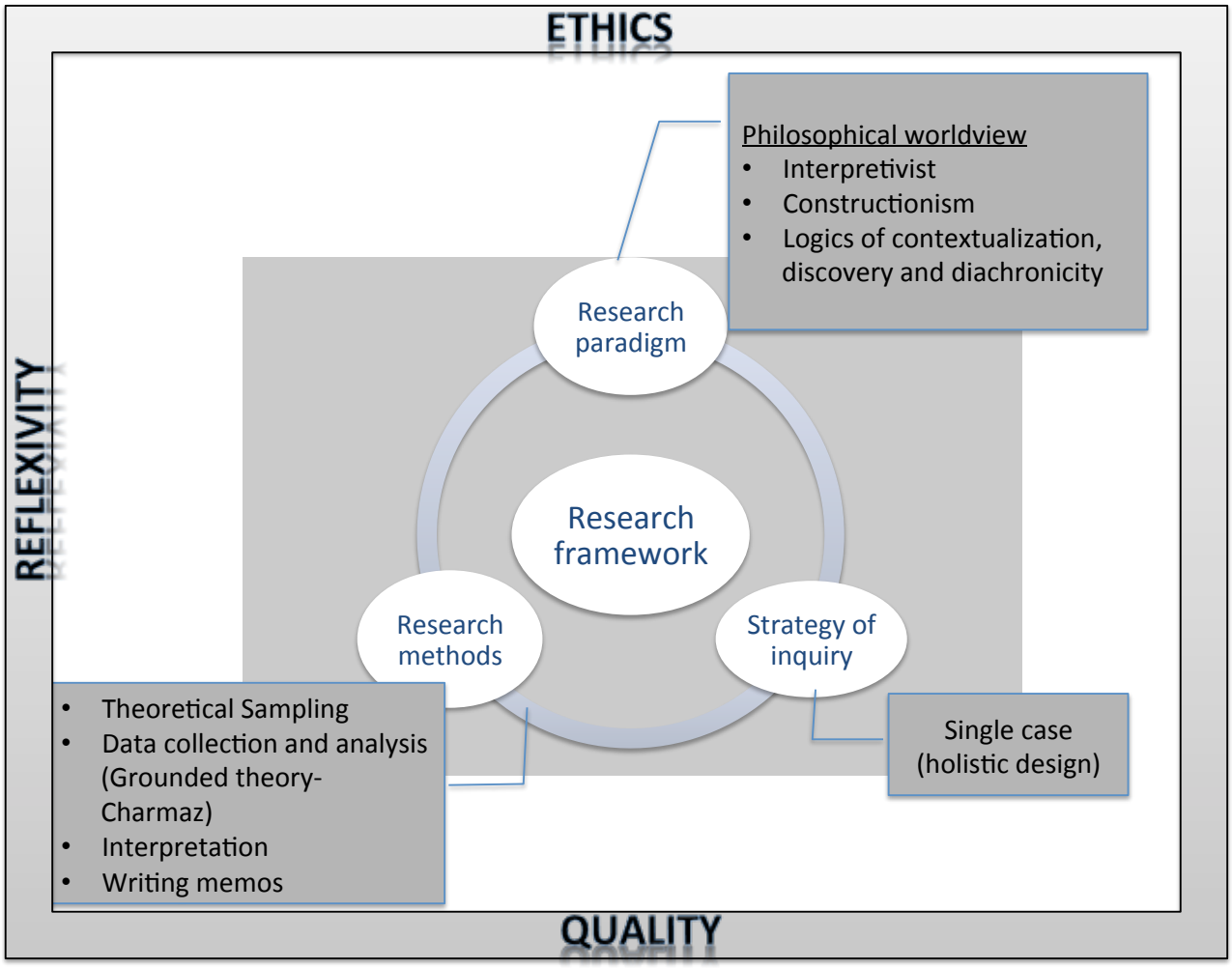
A research design focuses on the end-product and all the steps in the process to achieve that outcome (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). The main function of a research design is to enable the researcher to anticipate what the appropriate research decisions are likely to be and to maximise the validity of the eventual results.

Research design in qualitative studies rejects the idea of a single document that contains an entire blueprint for a piece of research with *a priori* strategic and design decisions up front. Qualitative research is characteristically exploratory, fluid and flexible, data driven and context sensitive (Mason, 2002). Therefore research design is considered but continually reflected on with care throughout the research process. Research design in this study was about planning and organising the activities and requirements to achieve the objectives of this process.

The design process also contained choices at critical junctures during the research process. Knowing upfront which philosophical position guided the research problem and approach essentially guided decision making.

This chapter describes the plan for the execution of the study and motivates why qualitative methods were suitable for the research question, while presenting an overview of the research paradigm guiding the study. Thereafter it describes the other two supporting elements of the approach, namely the strategy of inquiry and the research methods. Three additional components of the research design covered in this chapter include quality, ethics and reflexivity. The design elements pertaining to this study are conceptualised in Figure 2.1 and discussed in the sections that follow it.

Figure 2.1 : Research design elements



Researcher's conceptualisation of the research framework

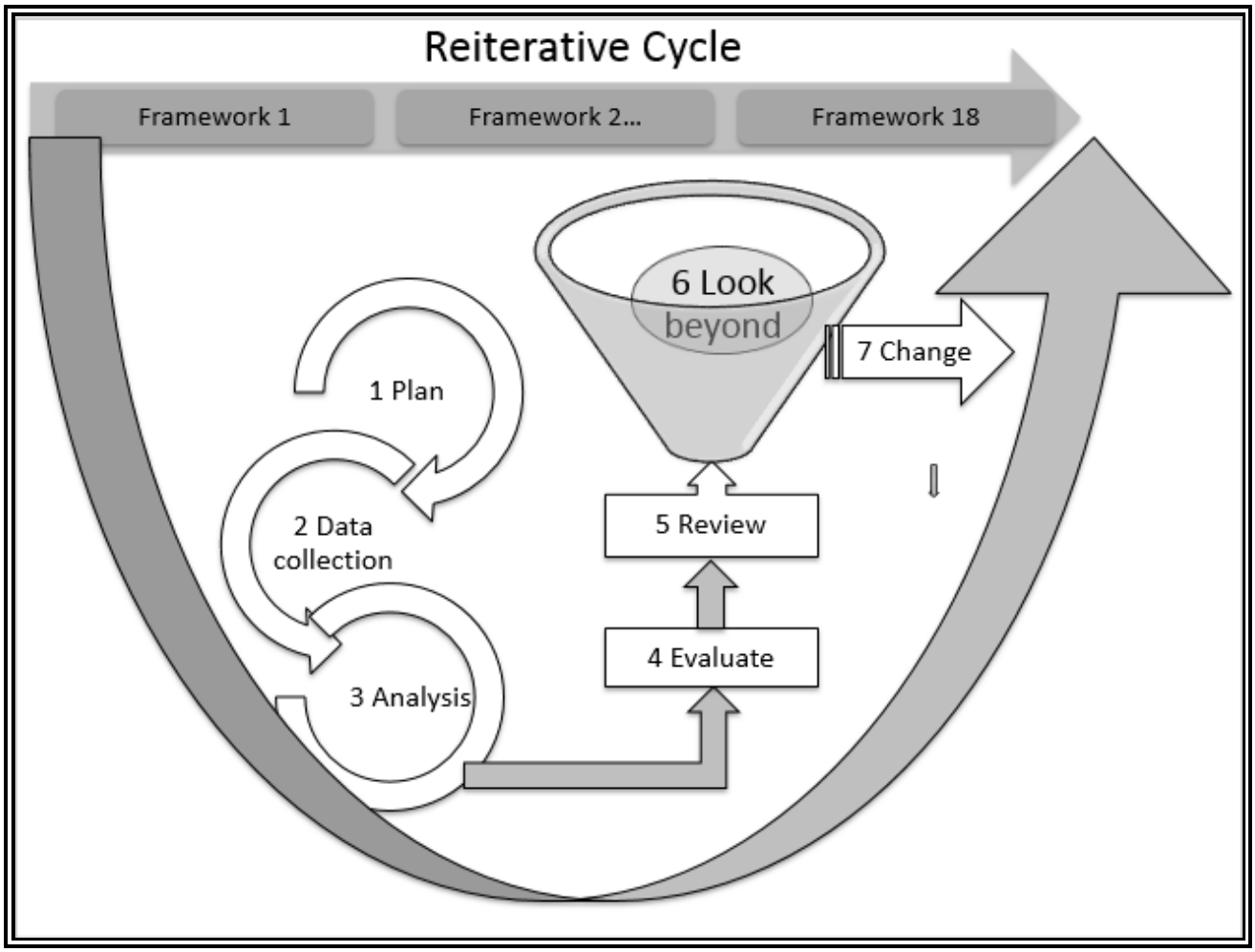
2.1 INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

All researchers bring some level of conceptual framework to the research process (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Eisenhardt, 1989). Charmaz (2006), for example, acknowledges that the researcher comes to the process with some background and technical knowledge. It is therefore important to acknowledge the role of the broad literature review on the current state within ODC (organisational development and change) theory that was undertaken prior to the submission of this research proposal.

A researcher's conceptual lens acts as a filter because choices need to be made with

regard to the huge range of data collected and observations made (Eisenhardt, 1989; Fitzsimmons, Callan, & Paulsen, 2014). Accordingly, facts are both theory-laden and value-laden (Guba & Lincoln, 1989): theory informs the research question; value resides in the analysis and interpretation of the data. The process of representing this conceptual structure and of confronting and explaining its underlying assumptions is key to high-quality research. The research themes, the world view of the researcher, the theoretical foundations of the study and the approach and methodology were all ingredients that culminated in the conceptual framework. A reiterative cycle of data collection, analysis, memo writing, evaluation and review to identify the themes and patterns in the data was followed, as reflected in the figure below (Edmondson & McManus, 2007; Locke, 2001). This approach reinforces the quality of case study research as was exemplified in interpretative cases used by Fitzsimmons *et al*,. (2014) and Isabella (1990). At the end of each research cycle (each interview and supporting or corroborating piece of data reviewed), the framework was revisited to incorporate new understanding of the research question, as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 : Research framework



Researcher's reiterative cycle of analysis

2.2 MOTIVATION FOR A QUALITATIVE APPROACH

The research question centred on a social phenomenon that has not yet been explored in the existing knowledge base. A qualitative research approach was selected in order to discover, describe and develop grounded theory (GT) towards explaining how the macro context and external power dynamics affected change in organisations. The inquiry was value bound, meaning that I was part of what was being studied. An interpretivist study sees people and their interpretation, understanding and verbalisation as the primary data sources (Mason, 2002). A more abductive approach (combining induction and deduction) was deemed appropriate as it was consistent both with the research goals and with the prominent methodology and assumptions used in similar studies (see for example studies

by Bartunek, 1984: Bamford, 2008; McKay Bradley & Chia, 2013).

The aim of the study was to gain a deep understanding of the phenomenon in order to explain it. The identified exemplary case could therefore provide the setting and actors to explore such depths. In the words of Mintzberg (2005, p. 2), the aim is "to find explanations about things in order to build a theory that holds together long enough to get us to a better theory". Qualitative research has a long and distinguished history and is considered an accepted methodology in all social sciences and applied fields of practice (Schurink, 2003). It is grounded in a broadly interpretivist philosophical position, which is concerned with how the social world is interpreted, understood, experienced or produced (Schurink, 2003). Meaning is very important to qualitative researchers and therefore exponents of this style are concerned with how people make sense of their life experiences (Langley, 1999). The research question, paradigm and philosophy, described in Section 2.3, supports a qualitative approach.

Qualitative research is based on methods of data generation that are flexible and sensitive to the social context in which data are produced, rather than rigidly standardised or structured, or removed from a "real life" or "natural" social context, as in some forms of experimental method (Rowley, 2012). Rather than framed by operationalised variables, this case study wanted to investigate the topic in all its complexity in context. The research approach selected was that of a case study combined with grouded theory method of analysis, as described in Section 2.4, and therefore the methods of data collection and analysis were also more flexible, reflexive and sensitive to the social context.

I was positioned in the natural setting where the phenomenon occurred and had personal experience of the process and insight into it. Interviews with informants were lengthy and presented the opportunity to probe the meaning ascribed to their interpretation

of events, similar to the approach used by Clark *et al* (Clark, Gioia, Ketchen, & Thomas, 2010).

This study focused on 'how' and 'why' questions and therefore a methodology was selected to best provide contextual insight and a deep understanding and appreciation of how the decision to change came about (Yin, 2014). The phenomenon required an intense personal interpretation of reality; therefore an interpretivist axiology was followed in order to explain rather than predict the world, using an abductive strategy to generate theory. The data from the informants was interpreted to explain the phenomenon. The focus was on dynamic processes aiming to explain rather than predict social phenomenon (Crotty, 1998; Sutton & Staw, 1995).

As a methodology within the qualitative research frame, a Grounded Theory (GT) approach is also frequently used in change management research (Bamford, 2008; Eishenhardt, 1989). GT shares the assumption with ethnography that the social world must be discovered using qualitative methods. According to DeCock (1998), the distinction between the two is that the researcher interested in GT is an active sampler of theoretically relevant data in order to engage in systematic theory building (the 'grounded theory' can be seen as the end product of the research), while an ethnographer is trying to get the fullest data on a group.

2.3 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

All researchers approach their studies with a certain research paradigm or worldview. Their philosophical stance informs the methodology, thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria (Crotty, 1998). A worldview is a way of seeing, being and acting in the world and it is important for researchers to specify their scientific beliefs and ethical considerations (Schurink, 2003). In presenting my worldview and

analysis, this section presents and examines interrelated domains of ontology and epistemology.

The ontological assumptions are concerned with beliefs about what there is to know about the world (Crotty, 1998; Suddaby, 2006). These assumptions speak to our understanding of reality. Knowledge is within the meanings people make of it; it is gained through people talking about their meanings; it is laced with personal biases and values; it is written in a personal up-close way; it evolves and emerges and is inextricably tied to the context in which it is studied (Crotty, 1998; Suddaby, 2006).

At face value, the uprising in this study was about ending outsourcing of non-core services at the Academy, mainly for financial reasons. The deeper, inherent meaning that surrounded this issue however could only be understood through the interpretation of the insight and meaning making from the various informants to this study. An interpretavist paradigm that I hold was therefore aligned to the research question.

Epistemology deals with processes and sources of knowledge and therefore what was important and what could be counted as evidence (Crotty, 1998). Alvesson (2003) related various metaphors to the interviewing process and referered to participants in qualitative research as ‘informants’ because he deemed the interview to be an arena for construction work. Pratt, 2008 also alludes to participants as informants. In his view people participate wordlessly in a survey whereas in qualitative research the aim is to capture the voice of the informant. This research therefore adopted the metaphor and refers to research participants as informants. The informants in this study were situated in their workplace or in its vicinity, the aim being to minimise the distance or objective separateness between researcher and those participating in the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). In qualitative research it is ideal for the researcher to become almost an insider (Mason, 2002).

However, given the sensitivity of the topic and the situation, the Proposal Defence Committee suggested that an observer role would be more appropriate. This role resulted in me accounting for interpretations and meaning making against research data during reflection (to be discussed in detail in Section 2.7). Arguing reflexively or multivocally implies making an argument through a meaningful range of perspectives, experiences and standpoints including my own as researcher (Mason, 2002). Furthermore, since the informants included members internal to the organisation (including staff, union representatives and students), as well as those outside the organisation (the media and activists, for example), I had to ensure a level of trust to report on interpretations in the fairest and most representative manner.

The philosophical assumptions underpinning my worldview, as well as the nature of the question, can be described as interpretivist constructionism. This worldview asserts that social phenomena and their meaning are continually being constructed by social actors and that the truth depends on the frame of reference of the knower (Crotty, 1998). The role of power and ideology is acknowledged, but the "real world" can be discovered through a systematic, interactive methodological approach (Yin, 2014). A subjective point of view of how social phenomena can be known is upheld, and although I will give voice to the story as told by the informants, it will happen in the context of the my interpretation.

An interpretive paradigm aims to understand people (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). Dilthey (1833-1911) argues that there are two fundamentally different types of science: natural science and human science. Human sciences are rooted in an understanding of the lived experiences of people (Neuman, 2011). All humans attempt to make sense of their world and therefore they continuously interpret, create, give meaning, define, rationalise and justify daily actions (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). Interpretivism therefore focuses on

exploring the complexity of social phenomenon in an attempt to gain understanding. As an interpretivist, I therefore believed that social reality is shaped by the participants and by the values I brought to the process (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Participants interpreted the events and constructed meaning from them (Gephart, Topal & Zhang, 2010). According to Wisker (2008) and Blumberg, Cooper, and Schindler (2011) the basic principles of interpretivism are that

- the social world is constructed and given meaning subjectively by people. Human beings are subjects that have consciousness, or a mind; while human behaviour is affected by knowledge of the social world, which exists only in relation to human beings;
- the researcher is part of what is observed; and
- research is driven by interests.

As far as research methodology is concerned, Henning, Van Rensburg, and Smit (2004) argue that interpretive understanding is grounded in an interactive, fieldbased inductive methodology, intwined in a specific context, which is how this case study was approached.

When considering the design of a study, Mouton (2012) proposes three "logics" to consider, each with implications regarding the nature of evidence that emerges. These "logics" relate to differences in approach to reasoning and lead to different ways of knowing what is being studied. These modes of reasoning are

- the logic of contextualisation versus the logic of generalisation;
- the logic of discovery versus the logic of validation; and
- the logic of diachronicity versus the logic of synchronicity.

2.3.1 The logic of generalisation vs the logic of contextualisation

The logic of generalisation aims to generalise statistically from a small group of (relatively homogenous) people to a larger population, where the smaller group is shown to be a representative sample of the larger one. Generalisation focuses on external validity or transferability (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010) and the influence of context is relatively unimportant.

The logic of contextualisation, on the other hand, is precisely about the particular, be it an individual, a group or an organization and the context (Mouton, 2012). Yin (2014) maintains that case study design privileges internal validity and analytic or theoretical generalisation as opposed to a logic of generalisation. The aim of this study was to make sense of the phenomenon in its context, providing an in-depth understanding of interactions between the concepts of importance. The logic of contextualisation was employed in this study since the research problem manifested itself in an organisation and the aim was to explore the process leading to a decision to change, taking into account the broader context. Case study designs typically aim to capture the uniqueness or contextuality of the case being investigated (Mouton, 2012) .

2.3.2 The logic of validation vs the logic of discovery

The logic of validation versus discovery refers to the choice between validating existing theories, models and hypotheses on the one hand and developing them as part of a study on the other (Mouton, 2012). Validation implies deductive reasoning and involves testing propositions and hypotheses derived from existing theories (Mason, 2002), whereas discovery aims to generate and construct typologies, theories and models, and utilises retroductive or analogical modes of reasoning (Mouton, 2012). The aim of this study was to build on existing theory regarding organisational change interventions and, potentially,

to develop new theory. Employing the logic of discovery was therefore deemed appropriate.

2.3.3 The logic of synchronicity vs the logic of diachronicity

This logic refers to the time period over which research is conducted. The logic of synchronicity refers to the study of a phenomenon at a particular moment in time and could be likened to cross-sectional research (Mouton, 2012). The logic of diachronicity refers to the study of a phenomenon and its development over an extended period of time. The aim of this study was to track a process of change, implying the logic of diachronicity. How the context influenced change was explored specifically and therefore a key component of this was understanding the shift in context over time. It was therefore important to explore the relationship between human behavior and changes in the context over the period in which the behavior was embedded, such as differences in the discourse of identity of the contract worker 10 or more years earlier and at the time of the case. The present behavior was located in its historical antecedents, and organisational behavior was located in its sectoral, economic, social and political context (Pettigrew, 2002).

2.3.4 How the different logics informed the research design

Adopting the logic of contextualisation, discovery and diachronicity provides the grounds for the specific research design. Bearing in mind the research objectives, the research design was a single holistic case study. This allowed for a detailed look at the non-linear dynamics at work in the perspective informing the approach to organisational change (Yin, 2014). The unit of analysis in this instance was an intervention: the process leading to a decision to change (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). The unit of analysis was important because it governed the level of sampling, data collection and analysis. For example, where the decision to change process was treated as the unit of analysis, as in

this case study, the focus was on a single event or a set of discreet episodes separate from both the immediate and the more distant antecedends that gave those events form, meaning and substance (Pettigrew, 1990). Pettigrew (1985) cautions that focusing on a process as a snapshot in time, thereby failing to provide data on the mechanisms and processes through which the change was created. To address this, a contextualistic and processual approach was taken, drawing on phenomena at vertical and horizontal levels and the interconnectedness of these levels over time. This was done, for example, by examining the impact of a changing macro context (socio economic and socio political) on features of intra-organisational context and interest group behavior and by looking at the sequential or temporal interconnectedness among phenomena in history and at the time the event occurred. Thus, heeding the advice from Pettigrew (1990), the research focused on embeddedness, studying change in the context of interconnected levels, temporal interconnectedness, exploring context and action and focusing on explaining how the change came to be as opposed to validating a single grand theory. In summary, the research design aligns with the logics of contextualisation, discovery and diachronicity.The next section presents the strategy of inquiry.

2.4 STRATEGY OF INQUIRY

Combining case study with Grounded theory design

The strategy of inquiry for this research included a case study design incorporating Constructivist Grounded theory analytical procedures in the tradition of Strauss and Corbin but specifically the framework presented by Charmaz (2006). Hartley posits that the aim of case study research is to provide an analysis of the context and processes which illuminate the theoretical issues being studied (2004:323). According to Yin (2014), the case study design allows for the investigation of a contemporary phenomenon in context,

whilst retaining the meaningfull characteristics of real life events. The major difference between the case study design and GT is that the latter details the procedure for data analysis while the analysis process proposed by Yin (2009) is not as rigorous for analyzing an interpretive case study data as the procedures and techniques proposed by Strauss and Corbin and later refined by Charmaz (2006).

Hughes and Jones (2003) state that grounded theory is consistent with interpretive case studies that investigate social and organisational contexts. Hughes and Jones (2003) suppose that there are some justifiable reasons for the use of grounded theory in interpretive case studies. However, Hughes and Jones (2003) alluded to a discrepancy between the interpretive perspective and the GT procedures by which they ought to be applied which Strauss and Corbin defended. By using the techniques of constant comparative analysis and of asking questions for each code (i.e. what does this mean and what does it represent), interpretations are made by the researcher, especially when new concepts emerge; this is still under the interpretative assumption that the researcher is considered part of the research process (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Integrating the grounded theory method and case study research methodology has been applied and defended within Information systems research (Halaweh, Fidler & McRobb, 2008) as well as case study research in organisational change management (Rosenbaum, More & Steane, 2016). Both constructivist GT and case methodologies allows for theory development and starts with a literature base that informs the research question. The chief characteristic of case study research is the specification of the boundary and the scope of the research cases and the unit of analysis (e.g. organisation, group of people, certain system, activity); this is compatible with the grounded theory concept of theoretical sampling as mentioned by Strauss and Corbin (1990) where the

criterion for selection of the cases and the unit of analysis in the case study is relevance, and theoretical sampling serves to seek in-depth information from the cases, and to discover and develop the concepts and theories. In this study the unit of analysis is the phenomenon I want to say something about, i.e. the process leading to a decision to change. This needs to be distinguished from the sampling unit which includes individuals and documentation informing this process. The ontology dictates that the interpretations are done by the individuals included in the sampling unit, however the researcher applies a constructivist grounded theory method to analyse these interpretations to construct meaning and new interpretations which is continually tested and validated and ultimately informs the grounded theory developed.

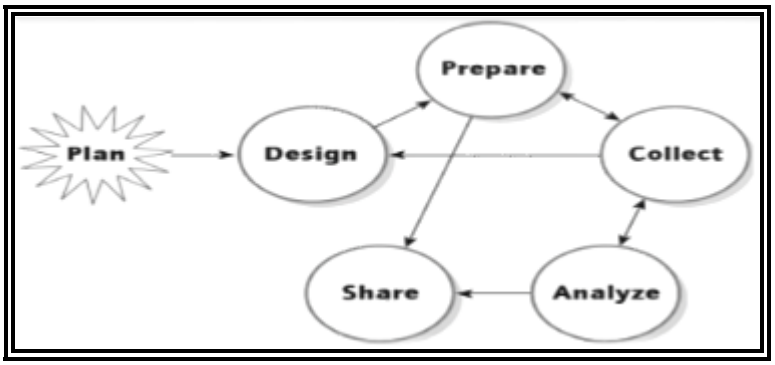
2.4.1 Case study design

Yin (2014) notes that there are three conditions to consider when considering research methods: (a) the type of research question posed, (b) the extent of control a researcher has over actual behavioral events, and (c) the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to entirely historical events. The most suitable strategy of inquiry for the research problem was a case study because it was best placed to answer *how* and *why* type questions, required no control over behavioral events and focused on contemporary events.

Based on the research question and the logics chosen, the most appropriate design was a single, embedded real-time longitudinal study (Silverman, 2005; Yin, 2014). The longitudinal nature of the case was based on archival records and comparing a historical timeline of events in the macro and micro contexts and how they unfolded over time and impacted the process at a particular point in time. A single case presented the opportunity to build theory by exploring and presenting the events and related narrative within context

in thick description (Geertz, 1973). Such research promotes the logic of discovery (Weick, 2007). A proposed case study process has been taken from Yin (2014) and is presented diagrammatically below.

Figure 2.3 : The case study process



Source: Yin (2014, p.1)

Yin (2014) has presented an in-depth definition of case study distilled from three decades of research. He referred to complexities created by the large variety of variables present in the analysis and the need for comparing findings through a form of triangulation. He brought in the concept of theoretical sampling for data collection (logical and purposive sampling was also included) (Yin, 2009). The table below indicates how this is applied in the current study.

Table 2.1 : Case study definition and application to study

Component of the definition	Definition	Application to this study
Scope: "A case study is an empirical enquiry that …"	(1) "…investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when …"	The phenomenon is the change process with a focus on the source of change.
		Real-life context: Within and just outside the organisation where this change unfolds.
	(2) "…the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident."	The macro context forcing the organisational change decision was broad but had to be distilled through the investigation. The phenomenon under review, the source of organisational change', was not always clearly distinguished from the macro and micro context.

Technical: "The case study inquiry…"	(1) "…copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result…"	Many variables could have an impact on the study, ranging from variables of people and personality factors as well as the multiple contexts and the variables in the context that can potentially influence the situation.
	(2) "…relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulation fashion, and as another result …"	Data from interviews (semi-structured and unstructured), observations and documents – implying multiple sources of evidence – during data collection. Relevant appropriate media sources were also used.
	(3) "…benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis."	No set propositions were made at the onset of the investigation; however the Change literature was intensely reviewed. This Change lens and the researcher's experience in the field of ODC guided data collection and analysis.

Source: Yin (2014, p.15)

Building new theory through case methodology has not always been acceptable in research circles (Eisenhardt, 1989) and was considered to be one of the most challenging approaches in science. Yin (2014) therefore called for rigour in case study research and proposed a methodological process that would earn scientific acceptance of the findings. This process is seen to be linear, yet iterative (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). The case study protocol outlined below and followed in this research, addresses some of the concerns relating to case study methodology.

2.4.2 Unit of analysis- Locating and selecting participants

The unit of analysis refers to the major entity (process) being analysed and therefore data could be collected on individual, group or organisational level. I had to ensure that all data collected took a similar or complementary form in a technical or organisational sense, so that they can be straightforwardly aggregated, or grouped together, or made comparable in some way (Mason, 2002). This highlights the unit of analysis in this study, namely an organisational level process as seen through the eyes of individual informants

and reflected through document analysis and observation. Accordingly, interview sampling was done at an individual level but the observations were in reference to an organisational process of change. The process then became the primary unit of analysis (Pettigrew, 1990). The analysis across the various scripts and data sets was consistently kept to a standardised GT approach and techniques, thus ensuring consistency and openness to discovering new codes with each script. The key task was to weave the argument and analysis derived from the different data sets together intellectually, both ontologically and epistemologically, at the level of explanation (Mason, 2002). The change process in context addressed the explanations across vertical, horizontal, micro and macro contexts over time. It located the change in past and present time (Pettigrew, 1990) and consistently explored context and action. Using the GT method of analysis, I proceeded through the analysis of data looking for concepts that formed the basic unit of analysis (Lawrence, 2015), clustering these into categories. This culminated in an overarching theory to explain the phenomenon.

2.4.3 Sampling – locating and selecting participants

Sampling in qualitative research can follow different sampling logics (Flick, 2014) and can thus vary between formalised and more flexible or purposive ways of selecting a sample. A formal logic would select strictly according to numbers or types to include in the sample. A different logic would be to locate the sample more purposefully. In GT research, sampling decisions are taken neither formally nor in advance but as the research progresses through the continuous collecting and analysing of the data (Fendt & Sachs, 2008). Therefore purposive sampling was employed in this study. The nature of the research question and the approach taken were also characterised by less defined concepts and required the greater openness and flexibility in approach provided by purposive sampling logic (Miles & Huberman, 1994) .

The number of interviews required was not set at the onset of the research process. An initial interview conducted with the OR was largely focused on gaining an understanding of the Academy and the process that had unfolded. Equipped with this information and supporting data, including organisational documents and media articles, the I outlined how the process had unfolded and presented the story line to the OR and the Research Supervising Committee. A stakeholder analysis was discussed and an initial group of informants were identified to participte in the research. The stakeholder groupings agreed to are presented in the table below (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 : Stakeholder groups for the phenomenon studied

Stakeholder category	Code
Leader from Uptown Academy	L
Employee Representative	U
Student Representative	S
Impacted Employee (Contractor)	C
Secondary Source (media or documents)	M
Researcher	R
Employee at Uptown Academy	IE

Researcher's pseudo name codes for categories of stakeholders

In theoretical sampling the idea of what is still missing in the data drives the sampling decisions (Flick, 2014). Since this requires openness and flexibility, I remained open to suggestions made throughout the data collection process. Whenever a new idea or type of informant emerged in an interview, consideration was given to broadening the group of informants. Existing participants often suggested possible representatives to be included in the sample, which meant applying a snowball sampling strategy (Mason, 2002). In snowball sampling, interviewees are asked to nominate other people who may be relevant to include in the sample (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Inclusion in the study was also based on availability.

The selection of representative individuals from each of the stakeholder groups was also based on inclusion criteria designed around the theoretical framework of the phenomenon under review, as well as the aims of the research. Suitable individuals included

- senior leaders with experience in the Academy (understanding of the organisational context);
- informants with a level of understanding and experience of the process as it unfolded. These informants were involved either directly in the process leading to the decision to change, or were on the periphery supporting the process.

- informants with a level of understanding of the concepts of macro context, power and organisational change.

Another sampling logic considered the documents and videos to be included. When addressing documents as data in research, researchers often set up a selection of such documents as an archive or a corpus of material (Edmondson & Mcmanus, 2007). Therefore in this instance sampling was based on discovering the right exemplars of documents to address the research question (sampling inside materials and cases). In some instances participants were not available to conduct 1-on-1 interviews. For example, media interviews were included as data with the consent of the interviewee. I obtained permission to use the interview quotes and confirmed that the answers dealt with the same question posed in the research.

The case under review and the context surrounding it had much public interest and therefore it was very easy to source relevant information in the public domain. The public website of the Academy provided background information to assist in gaining a level of understanding of the research environment. To manage the volume of data available, only data directly associated with information collected through the interviews were studied. This was to expand, corroborate or challenge assumptions from the research themes (Yin, 2014).

The code groups (axial coding) built from 12 initially to 18 after nine rounds of interview and analysis but then remained consistent throughout the remaining interviews, giving a level of comfort to the RC on data saturation. An example of this is found in the works of Bertaux and Bertaux-Wiame (1981), who notes that they sampled until they reached a theory-saturation point or basically until they had a picture of what was going on and could explain it appropriately. In this case a similar observation was made when I saw nothing

new in the data. Although at times criticised, this approach is underpinned by two principles (Mason, 2002): it reinforced the rigour in the study because it ensured an in-depth understanding of the process as it unfolded, and the sampling was also dynamic and ongoing in practice. As the themes started unfolding through memoing and deliberations, the RC agreed after interview number 18 that the likelihood of data saturation was sufficient to stop the data collection process.

All the informants were open to follow-up conversations if required and therefore I consulted with some of the informants at regular intervals during data analysis to discuss the emerging themes and interpretations. This supported the quality management in the study as consistency and accuracy were tested with the informants (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010). Not all informants were included in such conversations as the level of seniority of some informants meant they were not easily available for a follow-up interview. The OR however was a consistent participant in this process of data collection and analysis, not only to check for accuracy and consistency, but also to contribute towards enhancing triangulation. All interviews were conducted in Gauteng, predominantly in the vicinity of the organisational sites, and lasted from 45 to 90 minutes.

2.4.4 The case protocol

The protocol of Yin (2014) starts with an overview of the case (planning and design phases), which in this dissertation is covered in chapters 1, 2 and 3. This includes the problem statement and research questions and describing the actual case. Following ethical clearance from the academic institution, I then set out to prepare for the fieldwork. The case study was selected based on this being an exemplary case and therefore no pilot was required. Data collection and analysis followed, as described in Chapter 2, and the results were captured in Chapters 4 to 6. Results from the initial analysis in Chapter 4 were consistently analysed against theoretical sampling as well as existing theory on

constructs uncovered. This is presented in Chapters 5 and 6, while the final GT propositions are expounded on in Chapter 7.

The selection of the case was both purposive and opportunistic and presented an opportunity to shed empirical light on the theoretical concept or principles (Yin, 2014). In addition, the phenomenon under review occurred in the organisation that was accesable to the researcher, who was invited to study and write up the case as the ODC process unfolded.

Aside from the design considerations, the following practical considerations were taken into account in motivating a single case study:

- I was a scholar-practitioner completing a study towards the PhD on a part time basis.
- The depth of a case study required heightened awareness and time in the field as well as a dependency on the availability of informants. The demand for data collection were persistent and draining.
- Qualitative research does not rely on automated data processing but instead takes effort. The researcher basically becomes the processing instrument (Frey, Botan and Kreps, 1999). Hours of transcribing, coding and memoing characterised the research process.

2.4.5 Data Collection

For a qualitative case study approach, Yin (2014) identifies six sources of evidence, namely documents, archival records, interviews, observations, participant observations and physical artefacts. In this study the data (evidence) included documents, a small sample of archival records as well as observations. These all formed part of secondary data used for triangulation. The primary data in this study was sourced from individual interviews with various role players (participants).

Before data collection began it was necessary first to interview the OR to facilitate a sound understanding of the whole undertaking, then to satisfy the RC and the OR that the allocation of informants to stakeholder groups was representative and finally to obtain ethical clearance from the university. Thereafter, a detailed data collection plan was developed to facilitate interviews with informants. Snowball sampling increased the number of interviews from 11 to 18.

The data collection questions represent a set of substantive questions reflecting the researcher's actual line of enquiry (Yin, 2014). The interview questionnaire is attached as Appendix C.

The practical approach to data gathering was to schedule interviews as and when the individual informants' diaries allowed, as this was a real-life situation that was dependent on informant availability (Frey *et al.*,1999). Time was also scheduled for completing field notes after each interview.

2.4.5.1 The data collection philosophy

The nature of qualitative research implies that a level of subjective data exists in the minds of individuals and therefore it is important to understand the meaning people attach (Schurink, 2003) to the events in their environment. In this study the focus was on the dynamic nature of organisational change and the data was therefore contextualised to extricate maximum meaning. The phenomenon was studied essentially from an insider perspective because the informants represented not only the Academy itself but the full spectrum of the observed phenomenon cutting across external boundaries, as alluded to by Mats Alvesson (2003). This included all stakeholders who would have been affected by this process and had firsthand experience of it.

Every informant in this study, whether a full-time student serving temporarily as a student representative, a manager dealing with organisational phenomenon on a daily basis or the employee/contract worker directly impacted here, were engaged and passionate about the process as it unfolded. Ontologically, this was an essential part of their life and the positive and negative experiences of the process they lived through were shared with me. These honest responses were at times astounding and testimony to the good rapport established between myself and the participants. Some of the detail could not be reported as it would compromise the confidentiality and leave the informants vulnerable. The answers were incorporated into the overall analysis, however, and thus had an impact on my ontology as researcher, who was drawn into their problems and experiences.

Epistemologically, I gained insight into the work experiences and environment of these informants while spending time on site during fieldwork and data analysis. The OR allowed me to be on site as often as possible during the five months of data collection and observation. The primary objective of observation in this research was to allow me to understand the context and experience in the Academy and furthermore observe certain processes following the studied phenomenon. These observations in the field were useful to test the data from the interviews (Mason, 2002) but mostly they enriched my experience and understanding of the phenomenon and environment.

The aim essentially was to gain a holistic understanding of the phenomenon and the contextual nature of the occurrence by using a wide array of data: interviews, documents and observations. Therefore the research procedures were flexible, exploratory and discovery oriented.

2.4.5.2 Semi-structured in-depth interviews

The qualitative interview is in essence about achieving a dialogue. Semi-structured questions were drawn up based on the initial critical literature review to guide the conversation (Rowley, 2012) as well as the research questions (Bamford, 2008). Following suggestions by Mason (2002), the interviews reflected the following characteristics:

- an interactional exchange of dialogue. All interviews were done in person on a 1-on-1 basis;
- a relatively informal style. Care was taken to build rapport and keep the conversation light, allowing the Informant to go where they needed to go in the conversation, even if it meant going off the point if they needed to let off steam to express some emotion, if they felt strongly about something. By keeping focus on the research objective and questions I was able to guide the conversation without taking a journalistic questioning stance.
- a thematic, topic-centered biographical or narrative approach (Flick, 2014) was followed. Having working experience in the field of ODC, I found it relatively easy to keep the interviews on track. Initially the interviews were open ended, allowing the informants to explore the meaning they attached to the process as it unfolded. After six transcripts had been recorded and analysed, the interviews became less open-ended and slightly more structured as patterns began to be identified that provided themes within which interpretation could be explored during subsequent interviews. Care had to be taken not to probe too quickly or to push an informant into a direction but instead, through probing lightly, to explore the themes and meaning (Charmaz, 2006). If by the end of an interview certain themes had not surfaced, subtle probing along those lines was done to constrain the informant to either corroborate or negate

previous insights or to expand to new insights.

2.4.5.3 Fieldnotes

Fieldnotes are writings produced in or in close proximity to “the field”. Proximity means that fieldnotes are written more or less contemporaneously with the events, experiences and interactions they describe and recount. Fieldnotes are a form of representation that convert just-observed events, persons and places into written accounts. In reducing the welter and confusion of the social world to written words, they (re)constitute that world in a preserved form that can be reviewed, studied and thought about time and time again (Mason, 2002). According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005), observation notes (fieldnotes) contain a comprehensive account of the participants, the events taking place, the actual discussions and communication. Comprehensive observation notes enabled maximum control over the situation to be maintained.

Observation notes were taken immediately after each interview and were categorised into three types: methodology notes, personal notes and theoretical notes (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2003).

Methodology notes refer to possible influences on the research process, such as environment, comfort and interruptions (Bamford, 2008). Personal notes reflect the personal reflection of the researcher, including emotions and physiological state of both the researcher and informants, as well as the experience of the participant during the interview, including references to body language and behavior (Eisenhardt, 1989). Theoretical notes include remarks on factors contributing to the content of the interview, such as research questions adjusted, emerging themes/topics, reminders and suggestions for interviews to follow (Eisenhardt, 1989). These observation notes therefore provide a

written account of what I saw, heard, experienced and thought during the interview, and consequently contribute more depth and detail to the research findings.

The written notes made during interviews were useful for keeping track of probing questions later in the interview. This also avoided the need to interrupt an informant and potentially break their train of thought. Notes were also made of impressions of the setting and the timeframe during the interview. This was critical to manage researcher bias (Mason, 2002). Notes were also recorded during observations in certain settings at Uptown Academy and I used it later during interviews as cues to probe or test the meaning I assigned. Notes were not restricted to writing as technology allowed for voice recordings to be made during this research. These were made during observations in the field or whenever I had thoughts about the research. Fieldnotes also included continuous reflection, as recommended by Schurink (2003).

2.4.5.4 Documents

Flick (2014) noted that documents could be thought of as the "physical traces" of social settings. Given the public interest in this process as well as the public nature of Uptown Academy, documents were available in the form of media reports surrounding the process and company information made publically available. The information in the public domain allowed me to become acquainted with the Academy and to glean information on the process as it had unfolded at a macro level. Following the analysis of the interview scripts, some of this documentation became a critical source in data triangulation to elaborate on or corroborate the findings or at times to challenge information. This contributed to the quality of the data analysis (Yin, 2014). Much care went into deliberation prior to using documentation in the public domain as cognisance had to be given to the setting and intent when the document was originally produced (Flick, 2014).

Documents on the history of the organisation as well as newsletters containing interviews with some of the informants were available on the public website of the Academy. These were reviewed for their relevance to the context and the case description. Where secondary interview quotes were relevant, they would be tested with the informants during the interviews.

2.4.5.5 Photographs and video

A picture is worth a thousand words, the proverb declares, and that resonated in this case study. The media abounded in material on the context leading to the case, including recorded data (in the form of photos and video clips) taken during the process under review. These images were produced by human subjects in the context of, or in response to, human and social interaction (Banks, 2007), as the phenomenon under review was in process.

The images and video footage were used as secondary sources in this study to corroborate or build on data collected from interviews. Content and semiotic analysis (looking at the meaning of an image) were applied when analysing this data. These methods are essentially descriptive, with the aim of producing data that is then analysed against the theoretical frame (Banks, 2014).

2.4.6 Data Recording

2.4.6.1 Recording and transcribing interviews

According to Kowal and O'Connell (2014) all social scientists doing qualitative research must attend carefully to the phase of transcribing the verbal research material. For these experts, this refers to any graphic representation of selective aspects of verbal, prosodic (the way in which they are spoken) and paralinguistic or non-verbal vocal behavior (Kowal & O'Connell, 2014).

With this in mind, all interviews were recorded, following consent from the informants, on a small digital voice recorder. Silverman (2005) believes this is particularly valuable towards ensuring reliability and rigour of qualitative research. The recorder was placed out of sight so as not to distract or become a hindrance for the psychological well-being of the Informant. Each interview was transcribed verbatim immediately after the appointment. Observations and field notes on observations relating to non verbal aspects of behaviour made during the interviews were included in the transcripts. These transcripts were then used during data analysis for coding as required by GT. The original transcripts were saved to a confidential database and a copy was edited to remove any names or any distinguishing information that may identify an informant. This updated copy was then loaded onto the data analysis tool.

2.4.6.2 Storing, retrieval and safeguarding of data

Ethical requirements include the care that must be taken to safeguard confidential research data. To this end personal technology devices were secured with anti-virus software, password protected and safely locked away when not in use.

All data used in the analysis was saved on my personal computer in pdf format (a format to present and exchange documents reliably) safeguarded with backups and then copied to the software used for data analysis. Backups to the cloud as well as to an external drive and a second home computer were made daily while analysing. An audit trail of the documents and interview transcripts is available on request.

2.4.6.3 Ensuring quality while collecting data.

In summary, three overriding principals important to any data collection in case studies enhanced construct validity and reliability and contributed to the quality and rigour of the study: the use of triangulation, establishing a case database and maintaining a chain of

evidence (Gibbert and Ruigrok, 2010; Yin, 2014).

Triangulation centers on collecting information about different events from different perspectives (Yin, 2014). To illustrate this, the following excerpts from the data are provided. Social activism was an early code and ultimate theme for explaining the first research question: how the macro context influenced change. A number of informants during the interviews validated this and this was further evidenced in media articles; for example:

IL1:74 '*He can make or break the process'* (referring to an external activist); IE3:9 '*He is a very influential individual and he came here on his own steam, not affiliated with any one particular group'* (referring to the same activist). This was further evidenced in media articles (a picture was included in Chapter 3 demonstrating his role) and an article quoted in the data referenced this same activist in the context of the case. A multitude of such examples are described in Chapter 4 and contained in the audit trail for this research, also demonstrating potential contradictions and how they were dealt with.

Triangulation was considered the best way to elicit divergent sources of information and explore various constructions of reality. Through an audit trail and study database I have sorted all codes with supporting evidence and these are available on request. This approach ensured multiple voices being sought out and considered.

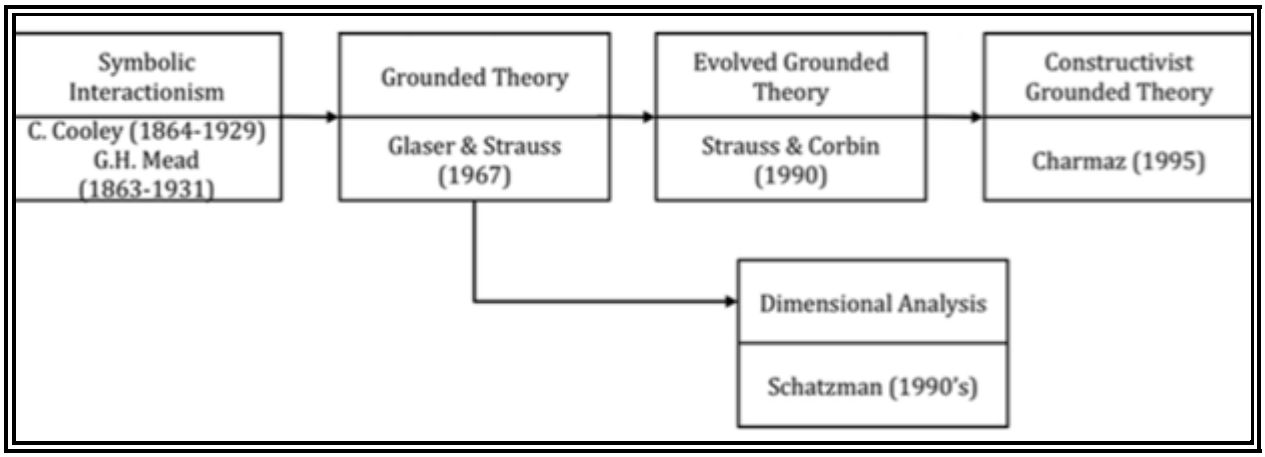
Secondly, the sheer volume of data collected in this study necessitated an approach to manage data in a systematic, orderly and easily retrievable manner. I employed a database that presented a formal assembly of evidence distinct from the report (Gibbert and Ruigrok, 2010; Yin, 2014). This database was consolidated and saved in Atlas.ti (Friese, 2016) with an audit trail attached as an addendum (available on request).

Lastly, a chain of evidence was maintained to allow the reader to reconstruct the progression from research questions to final conclusions (Gibbert and Ruigrok, 2010; Yin, 2014). This chain of evidence is presented in Chapter 4.

2.4.7 Data analysis

Data analysis was done using the GT analysis method in the tradition of Strauss and Corbin (1990) as described by Charmaz (2006). From a historic perspective, GT has its roots in symbolic interactionism. The development timeline is given in the figure below (Luyt, 2012).

Figure 2.4 : Basic timeline for Grounded Theory development



Source: Goulding (2002); Mills *et al.,* (2006) (Interpretation in Luyt, 2012, p. 39)

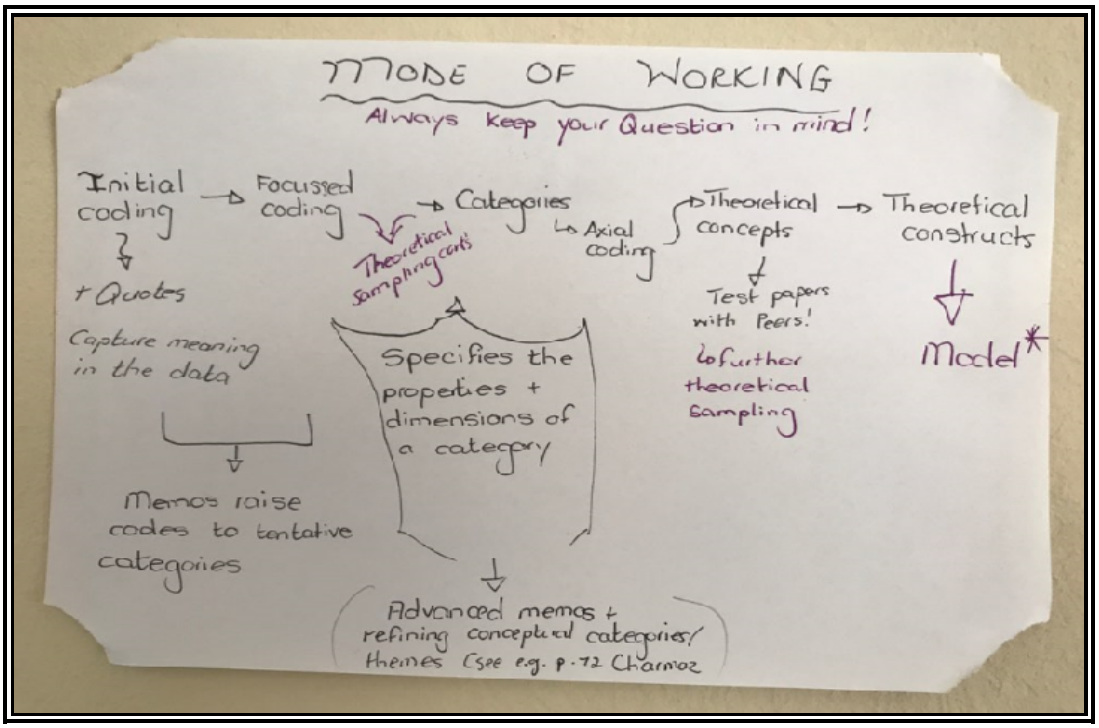
It is important to note that GT has undergone some iteration. These iterations are important since they formed a link with the research philosophy used (Mills, Bonner & Francis, 2006). The "evolved" theory proposed in the 90's by Strauss and Corbin (1990) argues that a pre-existing truth does not exist and that a truth would emerge based on the context and the specific informants. This tended towards a constructivist approach that was formalised by Charmaz into what is known today as Constructivist GT (Charmaz, 2006). A key principle of this approach was that I became a co-author who assisted in reconstructing meaning from the information provided by the informants (Mills *et al.,* 2006).

In addition, it was seen as acceptable to have some literature review inputs as a starting point or to "stimulate thinking" (Mills *et al.,* 2006). From an ontological point of view, constructivism was based on the relativist approach, which stated that truth only existed relative to a context, while from an epistemological point of view constructivism supported the subjective relationship between the researcher and the informant (Mills *et al*., 2006). The appropriateness of the GT method has been established in change management research and there are a number of elements that confirm this (Eisenhardt, 1989):

- The academic analysis needs to be recognised by those being studied.
- It allows the researcher to begin the interpretation process during data collection.
- It is of maximum use when dealing with qualitative data gathered by: observation; face-to-face interaction; semi-structured or unstructured interviews; case study material; document sources.
- The researcher is not able to hide poor-quality work behind impressive techniques.
- The quality of the final product is more directly dependent upon the quality of understanding the researcher develops than with other methods.

At a personal level, I felt very anxious about this methodology, using it for the first time. After completing the course material in research methodology, case study research and GT data analysis methodology, I sketched the framework in Figure 5.2 below as a guide through the journey, commencing with data collection and analysis.

Figure 2.5 : The researcher's personal data analysis frame



Personal data analysis frame used by the researcher

Although the data analysis software package, *Atlas.ti* (Friese, 2016) was chosen for organising and sorting data, it must be noted that the initial six interview transcripts were analysed manually. This enabled me and my co-coders to get a feel for the data and the underlying storyline. Co-coders were involved to enhance quality in the process of data analysis and meaning making.

2.4.7.1 Analytical strategy

Data analysis in qualitative research is a reiterative process that continues between data collection, analysis and writing, theory development and refinement (Edmondson & Mcmanus, 2007; Charmaz, 2006). The starting point was formulating an analytical strategy that would treat the evidence fairly, produce compelling analytical conclusions and rule out alternative interpretations (Rowley, 2012). Yin (2014) proposed four general strategies, namely i) relying on theoretical propositions, ii) developing a case description, iii) using both qualitative and quantitative data and / or iv) examining rival explanations.

The review of existing theory contributed to establishing the research focus for this study without compromising the flexibility required by the exploratory nature of the research question. My professional experience in the field of ODC provided the sound theoretical foundation necessary for relating the informants' inputs to the organisational context.

Following the first interview, which was with the OR, I complemented this with documentation available in the public domain and started constructing the storyline of the case. The primary data provided by the interviews was augmented by secondary data in the form of organisational documentation and media coverage (Langley, 1999). The analysis, which sought to tell a story based on themes (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991), followed guidelines described by Miles and Huberman (1994): firstly, interviews were conducted and the details of the events were researched so as to develop a thick description of the case (Geertz 1973). This case description is presented in Chapter 3.

2.4.7.2 Analytical techniques

Qualitative analysis of semi-structured interviews through a constructivist GT process formed the basis of analysis. This was then compared and supplemented with data from unstructured observations as well as document and video analysis. The analysis included open coding and axial coding, which is the process whereby core themes are integrated during qualitative data analysis (Charmaz, 2006). In GT, axial coding is the process of relating codes (categories and concepts) to each other via a combination of inductive and deductive thinking.

Following these steps allowed me to apply the analytical techniques. The interviews were analysed one at a time, thereby providing a reiterative process where each script presented codes, constructs and themes providing clues to an ultimate explanation of the

phenomenon. This process was then repeated and compared 18 times over.

Specific analytical techniques could be used along with any of the research strategies (Rowley, 2012). These techniques are specifically intended to deal with issues of internal and external validity (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010). Five analytical techniques are presented by Yin (2014), namely i) explanation building; ii) pattern matching; iii) time-series analysis; iv) logic models and v) cross-case synthesis. The cross-case synthesis can only be used in a multiple case study design and therefore will not be elaborated on here.

Data collection and analysis were done concurrently, as proposed for a GT analysis approach (Charmaz, 2006). *Explanation building* was the most time consuming and difficult process of this study as it had to stipulate a presumed set of causal links about 'how' or 'why' the change happened (Yin, 2014). This process happened in narrative form and included presenting papers to peers at international conferences. These naratives also started reflecting on theoretically significant propositions highlighting critical insights toward answering the research questions. This process however also had challenges. I had to maintain focus on the scope of research as the process could potentially veer off topic. Also, an unwanted selective bias could lead to explanations that glosses over key data and thus it was important to maintain focus and ensure evidence through data to build explanations for what happened. The explanations were also tightly sense checked against the database and followed a chain of evidence and was continuously peer reviewed.

Another technique applied was *pattern matching.* The application of an alternative template strategy (Langley, 1999) allowed several alternate interpretations of the same event to be proposed, based on different but internally coherent sets of *a priori* theoretical premises. Each interview therefore presented an explanation of the event that was

reviewed and tested 18 times over. This is similar to Yin's (2014) idea of pattern matching. Patterns in the data and unfolding explanations could thus be matched, providing greater surety when data saturation was achieved. The coded responses evolved and were combined to present an exploration of the context and the power dynamics that forced change on Uptown Academy.

After completing the initial data analysis, I sourced information available online and other documents provided by the organisation, that chronicled the activities of this process and the process of time, thus allowing for further refinement and exploring the *time series analysis*. Tracking changes on the process of in and outsourcing over time served to strengthen the case study and particularly the explanation building. This assisted not only in strengthening the description of the case but also highlighted incidents that could be factored in as potential causal events.

The last technique, namely *logic modeling*, implies matching empirically observed events to theoretically predicted events. The tool stipulates and operationalises a complex chain of occurences over an extended period of time by matching outcomes to predictions (Yin, 2014). This technique alignes to the step in GT of selective coding where a conditional matrix is applied. Elements of the technique was used during pattern matching. However, this technique was not strictly applied as per the case methodology or GT analytical approach as no predictions were made upfront. Selective coding is defined as the "process of selecting the central or core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 116). In this final stage of GT analysis, selecting and identifying the core categories and systemically relating them to other categories provides the basis of the grounded theory. Essentially it is about creating

a storyline that narrates the categories and their relationships; a storyline around which everything else is 'draped' (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). However, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) cautioned against following the conditional matrix approach strictly as axial codes and categories tend to occupy centre stage and distance the reader from the experience. In a constructivist GT approach, the researcher can move the analytical methods further into the realm of interpretive social sciences, emphasising meaning. Therefore, in line with a constructivist perspective I considered and then applied an alternative step in the analysis. It became evident during analysis that there was a discourse on identity that influenced the process of out and insourcing over the years and therefore a complimentary technique to GT was applied. The researcher analysed the narrative and how accounts used local and cultural resources (Denzin, 1990), examining how speakers took on certain roles and identities through their talk and looked for particular outcomes in the talk and what the discourse produced (Silverman, 1998). In his GT study Aguinaldo (2012) noted the usefulness of this technique to analyse the narrative due to its capacity to resolve dilemmas of voice and achieve reflexivity. The dilemmas of voice could surface when the view of the researcher conflicts with that of the informant. The narrative analysis approach manages this potential dilemma because it does not impose preconceptions but reflexivity acknowledges the researcher's contribution to the research process. The triangulation of analytical processes enabled the researcher to "establish converging lines of evidence to make the findings as robust as possible" (Yin, 2006, p. 115).

2.4.7.3 Analysing the data

The interview recordings and notes were transcribed in a text format (using MS Word output) and data segments were identified. Once these transcripts were made anonymous, they were saved in a format that could be used in *Atlas.ti* and then uploaded to the software.

Three main groups of analytical options were available at this stage: memos, categorising strategies (such as coding and thematic analysis (Reissner, 2011), and connecting strategies (Luyt, 2012) using deduction to determine whether the new situation matched existing theory as embodied in a pre-defined category list determined from the literature review (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Another approach would be to use the categories that emerged to build a new model as used in similar methodological approaches (e.g. Fitzsimmons et al, 2014

For the purpose of this study, the Constructivist GT approach (in the tradition of Charmaz) was used for data analysis. This approach favors process studies (Pettigrew, 2002) and the stepping stones involve the creation of categories, typologies and impressions of the relationship among factors, moving on to causation between patterns and finally to fully explanatory models that interweave all the factors together (Mintzberg, 2005).

2.4.7.4 Initial coding (open and focused)

Coding implies that labels are attached to segments of data that depict what each segment is about (Mason, 2002). The coding in the research project started with open coding of the initial text, where themes were identified in words, phrases or sentences. I remained open to what was happening in the interview statements (Mills *et al*,. 2006) and kept the terminology used in the initial codes as close as possible to the statements made by informants (refered to as quotes). Through this process a succession of concepts emerged that started forming the building blocks towards a GT model. The initial codes grew from 81 codes in script one to 128, later refined to 121 codes after completing the entire process.

Through refinement, analysis and interpretion the initial codes were escalated to

second order codes in a process of focused coding (Goulding, 2002). This process involved analytical thinking, deliberation with the supervising committee and peers as well as memoing to refine the analysis. Over time these codes started taking on specific characteristics that could be described on a continuum. Depth in the data evolved.

As noted earlier, the data collection and analysis followed a cyclical process and therefore the codes were refined and developed in depth and meaning throughout the process. As early as the 8th cycle (Interview transcript number 8), no new focused codes emerged. However, the team wanted to proceed to ensure that all voices in the process were 'heard'; i.e. all stakeholder groups were included in the research. This also allowed for greater depth to be explored and probed on the identified focused codes, while maintaining an open-ended and exploratory style of interviewing. Axial coding was commenced at this stage (see next section).

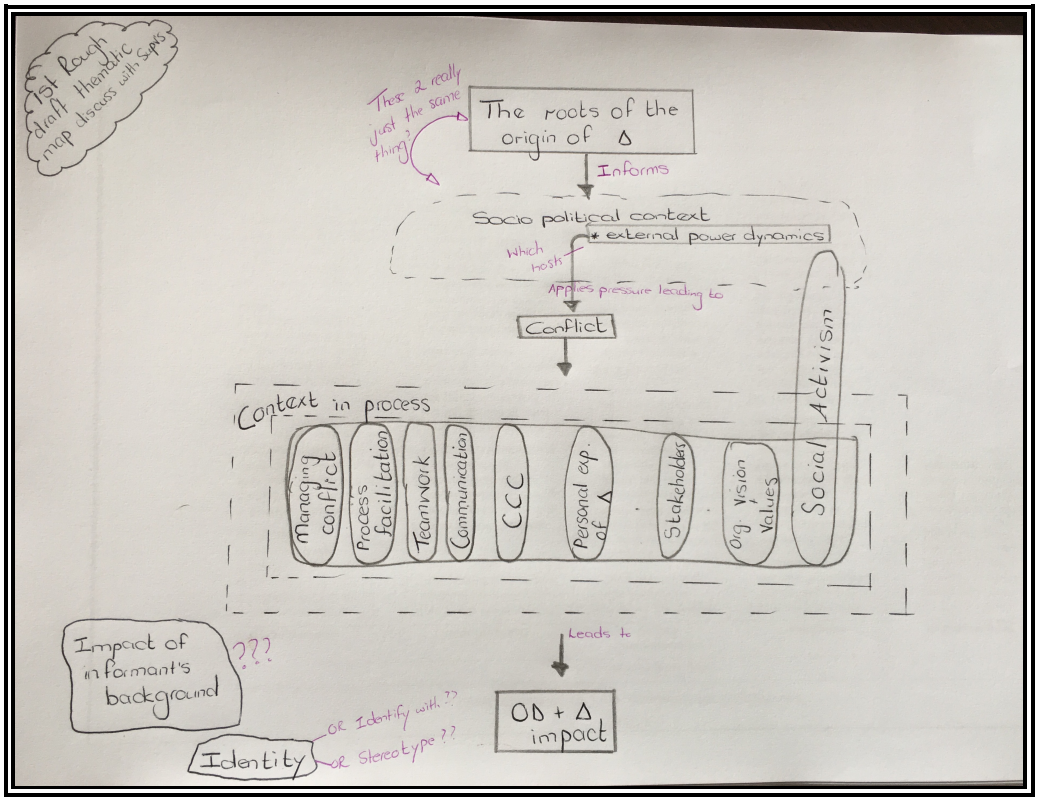
Throughout the process the quality of the data analysis was monitored through an ongoing review of the codebook, ensuring that there was no duplication and reviewing the appropriateness of the quotes informing the codes and the consistency across the cycles. This was further complemented with random blind coding throughout the analysis cycle and addressing potential contradictions in explanations. This was important because creative insights often arose from the juxtaposition of contradictory or paradoxical evidence. The process of reconciling these contradictions forced the insights to be reframed into new *gestalt* (Bartunek, 1988).

Through open and focused coding, the most salient categories in large batches of data started emerging. These focused codes were the starting point towards theoretical integration throughout the subsequent analytical steps. "Focused codes" means using the most significant earlier codes to sift through large amounts of data and requires decisions

about which initial codes makes the most analytical sense to categorise data completely (Goulding, 2002). The initial six interviews were coded manually, which gave a sense of the themes emerging. These scripts were then loaded into *Atlas.ti* and coded again and also coded by a blind coder as part of the quality assurance throughout the research process. This analysis was then documented, reviewed and discussed at regular intervals with the supervising committee and subject matter experts.

The sketch below is an example of a rough picture of the initial groups discussed after analysis of six transcripts. As can be noted, a number of themes were identified (such as organisational culture) but not all themes ultimately emerged in the final model.

Figure 2.6 : The first discussion of themes with supervising committee

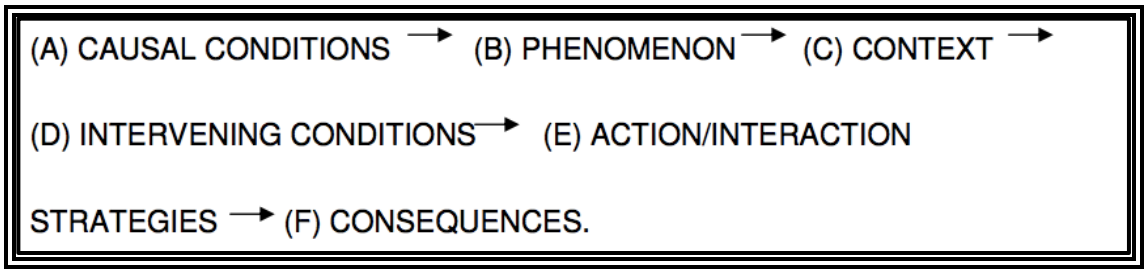


Rough notes from the researcher

2.4.7.5 Axial coding

Axial coding relates categories to subcategories and specifies the properties and dimensions of a category (Mills *et al*., 2006). The broad categories were then compared with each other to determine links between ideas and sub categories. In essence the axial coding paradigm can be presented as follows:

Figure 2.7 : The Axial coding paradigm



Source: Charmaz; 2006

Throughout the coding and analysis I focused on specifying a category (phenomenon), for example Identity, in terms of the conditions that gave rise to it; the context (its specific set of properties) in which it is embedded; the action/interactional strategies by which it is handled, managed, carried out; and the consequences of those strategies. The results of this process are presented in Chapter 4. The aim of axial coding was therefore to integrate codes around the axes of central categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The procedure followed in implementing axial coding as well as key assumptions can be summarised as follows:

- explored and discussed the themes identified during open coding and the technical literature review and related them to each other (done in Chapter 5);
- integrated and reduced the themes, grouping together new ones that emerged under new underlying organisational themes that emerged (done in Chapter 4);
- reviewed the fieldnotes;

- applied systems thinking and analysis, concentrating on the inter-connectability between themes (Chapters 4 and 6);
- linked emerging new themes with themes from this phase in order to reassemble the data created by open coding and create a higher-order abstraction (Chapter 4) and
- applied an adjusted technique during selective coding to expedite meaning of the narrative (Chapter 6).

At this stage, emerging themes (as discussed in Chapter 4) were connected to the existing literature (Chapter 5). The evolving theory was then connected back to the research questions. Arranging the categories established a conceptual whole out of which the theoretical framework started to emerge.

2.4.7.6 Selective/theoretical coding

At this point of the process, analysis had to move towards developing a picture that was comprehensive and grounded. This was done following the five steps recommended by Strauss and Corbin (1990), as outlined by Charmaz (2006):

- explicating the story line
- relating categories around a core category by means of the paradigm
- relating the categories at a dimensional level;
- validating those relationships against the data
- filling in categories that needed further refinement or development.

This process led to the theoretical components of the framework (as presented in Chapter 6). Integrating and delimiting the theory and its constituent categories allowed informed decisions to be made on the categories. When they reached a point where subsequent data incidents did not result in any new naming activity regarding that category, a point of possible theoretical saturation (Eisenhardt, 1989) was achieved. This

was again tested with the Supervising Committee and peers and ultimately concluded in the writing of the final thesis. The main findings of the research, addressing questions 1 and 2, were presented at two international conferences to expound the developing theory.

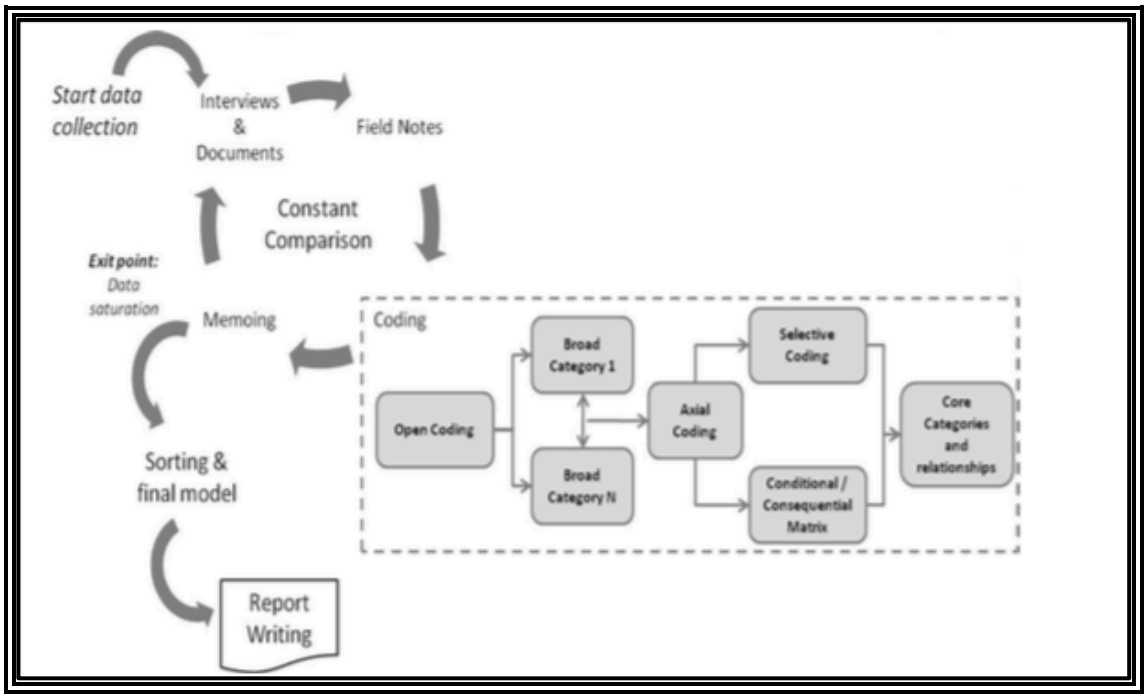
2.4.7.7 Writing

Memoing contributed to the coding process by documenting additional properties of the emerging categories. This linked them with the original context of the text so as to ensure that the intention of the informant was accurately represented (Charmaz, 2006). Regular engagements with research supervisors and other thought leaders in the field assisted in refining these ideas in the memos. Memoing was also a reflexive process and eventually formed the base for writing the thesis.

The cycle of data collection, field notes, coding and memoing was repeated as part of the ongoing comparative method (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010) in which similarities and differences were compared across the different interviews until such time as data saturation was achieved. As demonstrated in the rough draft of the initial manual thematic analysis, theoretical categories were identified and comparisons were made across the categories right from the onset of the data collection process. As the coding scheme evolved, care was taken to ensure that the codes and emerging categories were not informed by non-representative informants or on non-representative events, as advised by Miles and Huberman (1984). Care was also taken to avoid holistic bias (Rowley, 2012), which refers to the tendency to purposefully look for counter evidence to see more meaningful patterns than actually exist. This was again secured by ensuring that inferences could be corroborated through evidence in the data. Data saturation was achieved when no new concepts or categories emerged from new data, showing that data collection was complete (Goulding, 2002). This roadmap is represented diagrammatically

in the figure below.

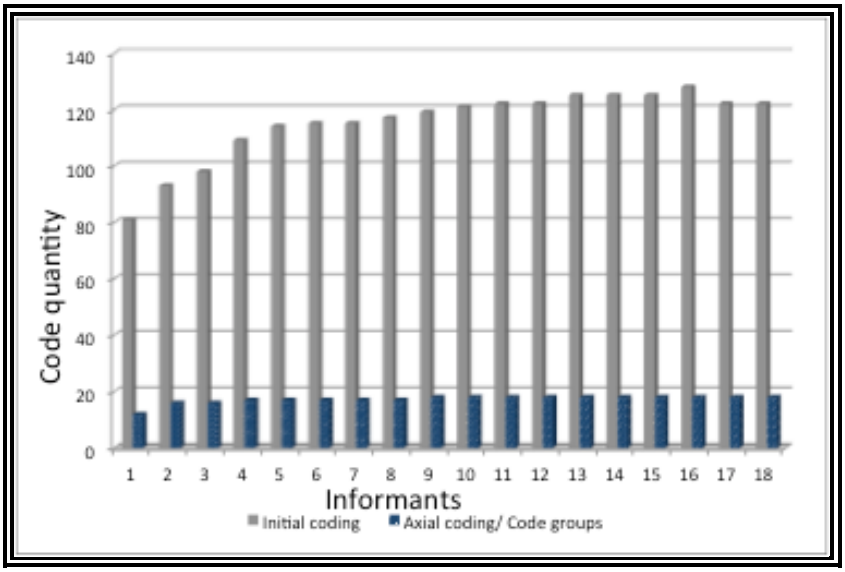
Figure 2.8 : Constructivist Grounded Theory Roadmap



Source: Burden (2007); Mills *et al.,* (2006); Smith (2004) (Combined in Luyt, 2012)

The graph below shows how data saturation was monitored through the coding. The initial codes grew from 81 with 12 axial codes to 121 and 18 axial codes, incorporating at least 1025 quotations. Forty five documents were eventually incorporated into the data set, 27 memos were drafted and approximately 23,5 hours of interviews were recorded.

Figure 2.9 : Data analysis coding tracker



Tracking quantity of codes throughout data collection and analysis process

2.5 ASSESSING THE QUALITY OF THE STUDY

Rigor and quality have been experienced as challenging in case studies because the procedures are much less standardised than those of quantative research and are therefore open to interpretation (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010; Silverman, 2005). This is unfortunate as one of the key thought leaders in the field of management and ODC management (Jean Bartunek) reflected that building theory from cases is frequently considered the most interesting way of building theory (Bartunek, Rynes and Ireland, 2006). This section sets out the measures taken to ensure a rigorous and high quality end product from the research process.

2.5.1 Trustworthiness in qualitative research

Qualitative researchers have often been accused of insufficient rigor in terms of data analysis (Yin, 2014). Yin (2014) recommends the following four tests commonly used to establish the quality of empirical social research:

Table 2.3 : Case Study tactics for four design tests

Test	Case study tactic	Phase of research
Construct validity	• Use multiple sources of evidence	Data collection
	• Establish a chain of evidence	Data collection
	• Have key informants review draft report	Composition
Internal validity	• Do pattern matching • Do explanation building • Address rival explanations • Use logic models	Data analysis
External validity	• Use replication logic across multiple cases	Research design
Reliability	• Use case study protocol • Develop case study database	Data collection

Source: Yin (2014, p. 45)

The four tests related to i) construct validity, identifying correct operational measures for the concepts, ii) internal validity, relating to the causal relationships, iii) external validity or generalisation of the findings and iv) reliability, demonstrating that the operations of the study can be repeated. For this case study, internal validity was not a priority, as it was not deemed an explanatory or causal study. However, steps were taken toward achieving this. The other elements of quality are described in Section 2.4.7.2 under analytical strategy and techniques. However, rigor in qualitative research centres on trustworthiness. Guba and Lincoln (1989) expanded this to credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability.

Credibility relates to whether the findings of the study actually represent reality (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). From a credibility approach, the advantage of the case study strategy inquiry was that a detailed analysis of the case was conducted. It was validated with informant quotes and evidence from secondary data sources. Furthermore, a transcript was reviewed by the OR. A full record of evidence is contained in the case audit trail.

A second analytic technique, explanation building, sets out a presumed set of causal links in terms of how and why something happened (Yin, 2014). In this case, the "how" and "why" were how the change process unfolded. Why did management react in the way they did? What made it possible for students and outsourced workers to set the agenda? This mostly occurred in narrative form. The steps in this approach (Yin, 2014) included:

- making an initial theoretical statement and/or proposition. This was done after the first interview.
- comparing the findings of the case against this proposition after every subsequent interview
- revising the statement of proposition
- comparing other details of the case against the revision
- repeating the process as often as needed.

To overcome difficulties and potential dangers in this technique, it was necessary to frequently check back with the original purpose of inquiry and examine possible explanations. Following the protocol, establishing the database and following a chain of evidence also helped (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010).

In this study, as explained earlier in this chapter, pre-conceived propositions were not set due to the exploratory nature of the research questions. The analysis kept the research questions as the focus point.

Transferability (also known as external validity) refers to how generalisable the results are (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Since this research study focused on only one case, a similar pattern matching approach applied as the one described above. Similarities to and differences from existing literature and theory could also be clarified (Chapter 5). The aim

for this study focused on theoretical generalisation, where formative theory in ODC could be applied in the field.

To address **dependability** (or reliability), Yin (2014) recommended the case protocol and a solid database. This would imply that the study could be replicated under similar circumstances and contexts at a different time (Tracy, 2010). The case protocol has been outlined in this chapter and a complete audit trail with all data sources is available on request. Data analysis techniques and tools were further applied in a manner to ensure transparency in terms of coding and analysis.

Confirmability, the fourth aspect of trustworthiness, relates to how objective the research was (Guba and Lincoln, 1985). In qualitative research this could be especially difficult as the researcher is inherently involved in the subject (Mason, 2002). To manage this, I had to document personal values up front and continuously track this to review how my own values influenced data analysis and interpretation. Apart from the quality assurance steps outlined in this chapter, Chapter 8 presents my reflexivity.

In summary, the choice to prioritise construct validity, internal validity and reliability influenced the type of design chosen as well as the data collection and analysis procedure decided on. The following tactics as presented in Table 2.4 were used to enhance the overall quality.

Table 2.4 : Tactics to improve quality in case study design

Construct validity (trustworthiness and confirmability)	
Data collection	Triangulation - use multiple sources of evidence
	Have informants review draft case study
	Write extensive field notes
	Audit trail
	Referential adequacy (audio recording and transcripts)
	Prolonged engagement and observation
	Identify, specify and measure incident
	Establish chain of evidence
Internal validity (credibility)	
Data anylisis	
General strategies	Clear research framework
	Case description
	examine rival explanations
	Theory triangulation
Analytical techniques	Data coding
	Pattern matching / constant comparitive method
	Explanation building (via memos)
	Visual mapping
	Time sequence
Reliability (dependability)	
Data collection	Case study database

Tacticts synthesized from Gibbert and Ruigrok (2010) and Yin (2014)

Sources of bias

The technique of interviewing holds in itself a source of bias, as was identified and treated in a gender disparity leadership study by Fitzsimmons *et al.,* (2014). Interviewer bias could occur when interviewees respond in a manner they presume the Interviewer would want them to (Flick, 2014). To overcome this, I kept the questions as open as possible and avoided trying to direct or guide an answer. Furthermore, although the interview was open-ended, a question sheet was maintained at all times to ensure questions were asked in a consistent manner.

Another challenge anticipated up front was that the researcher was also the interviewer

and due to the open-ended nature of the interviews, variation in questioning could occur. This was managed by ensuring that at a minimum all questions on the sheet were covered in all interviews. One of the supervisors also reviewed a sample of the scripts throughout the process.

2.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

There are two predominant theories in ethical philosophy, namely deontological theory and consequentiality theory (Burton, 2000). The predominant advocate of deontological theory was Immanual Kant (1724-1804), who held that morals ought to be based on obligation to others. For researchers this implies respecting every human being. Consequentiality theory states that scientists ought to produce the maximum balance of value over disvalue (Burton, 2000), implying that researchers should act in accordance with the consequences of their behavior and minimise suffering and maximise wellbeing. For me, the primary focus was on respecting every human being.

Being mindful of the theoretical context and in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the Research Institution, all decisions and actions regarding this research project were in compliance with their existing rules and guidelines. Ethics in research is about being responsible and embracing both personal and institutional morality. The code of ethics of the research institution where this PhD is registered obliges reseachers to address pressing problems in the broader South African communities, to maintain justice at all times, to show respect and professionalism and to take care to observe benevolence. Special care was taken in this study to protect the integrity of the content and process but more importantly the human subjects that formed part of the study. This included gaining informed consent, ensuring accuracy in reporting, protecting privacy and confidentiality and selecting participants equitably.

2.6.1 Gaining informed consent

All participants in the research project were fully informed about the purpose of the research and the research design elements. Most of them were introduced to me through the organisational representative (OR). Before the commencement of the interview, each participant signed a consent form, after which their willing participation was also confirmed and recorded. Participants understood that the consent included the recording of the interview, the use of data for research purposes and possible publication in a scientific journal. All of them had some level of understanding and experience of the process being explored and were willing participants in the study. No persuasion or coercion was used. Signed consent forms were saved in the research database and are available on request.

2.6.2 Accuracy in reporting data

I personally transcribed each interview and reviewed the accuracy afterwards by reading through the script while re-listening to the recording. Not only did this provide a level of confidence about accuracy but it also gave me multiple opportunities to engage with the data, also an established step during data analysis (Braun and Clark, 2006). At regular intervals, samples of the transcripts were read and reviewed by a member of the Research Committee (RC) (Tracy, 2010). All copies of transcripts and recordings were secured and are available for audit at any point. With the 3rd and 15th script an outsider to the research process read and listened to the script to ensure that a reliable transcription had been done. Each interview was transcribed immediately following the meeting and analysed before the next interview commenced. This ensured that I did not experience data overload or fatigue in capturing the interviews.

The data analysis process furthermore observed the principle of accuracy (Langley, 1999). All analysis, codes, ideas and themes were supported by direct quotes from

participants with triangulation among the participants and corroborated as far as possible by other sources (e.g. documents or media references).

2.6.3 Protecting privacy and confidentiality

Research ethics invariably promotes the safeguarding of identities. Due to the sensitive nature of the events, Uptown Academy requested a high level of confidentiality with this case especially. All personal data was shielded behind anonymity. Pseudonyms for participants and referenced organisations or entities were provided where applicable. The name of the organisation was not referenced in the case although the context and character of the organisation were described (in Chapter 3). Only the RC knew the identity of the participants and the organisation studied.

2.6.4 The integrity of the researcher

A further priority applicable in this research was the integrity of the researcher. A summary of other elements that were adhered to is tabled below:

Table 2.5 : Additional ethical elements for primary data

Term	Applicability to Primary Data
Plagiarism	Relevant citations to be given of any direct quotes to be used, especially in the case of interview data. The anonymity of the individual who is being quoted will be preserved. Direct quotes from the data set are presented throughout the document in italics.
Financial incentives	No incentives, financial or other, were used to solicit participation.
Physical or psychological harm	No physical harm came to any participant in the study. Informants were assured of anonymity and the utmost care with their information. Furthermore, as a qualified psychologist and experienced interviewer, I ensured that informants were comfortable with the interview process at all times.
Informed consent	An informed consent form was signed at the beginning of each interview.
Data storage	The fact that research data will be stored and archived for 10 years was disclosed to the organisation.
Data fabrication	Once data of the interviews had been coded and consolidated on organisational level, it was disclosed to the individuals who participated in the interviews to ensure that they agreed with the findings.

False reporting	An audit trail of interview scripts and other data sources has been incorporated in the research report to validate findings and discoveries. All data sets are available to the supervising committee and the external examiners.

Source: Kotzé (2010:14) (Adapted by (Luyt, 2012)

Final permission by Uptown Academy to conduct the study was obtained in writing. This was stored with the primary data. The fact that permission has been obtained at organisational level does not presume all participation would be voluntary (Mason, 2002). Any individual had the right to decline participation and therefore individual consent was obtained prior to commencing every interview.

Integrity and honesty are of utmost importance for a researcher but even more so in this case since I was involved in the interviews (Schurink, 2003). The objective of the case study was to do a detailed study of the phenomenon in the Academy that could reveal potentially sensitive information to me. I was however bound by ethical standards, including non-disclosure of information as well as not using any information obtained for anything other than academic purposes (Uptown Academy code of ethics). To confirm this I signed a confidentiality agreement with the Academy.

2.7 REFLECTING ON REFLEXIVITY

A thesis methodology chapter would not be complete without a few remarks on reflexivity (Schurink, 2003). Reflexivity implies thinking critically throughout the research process about what you are doing and how and why you are doing it, confronting and often challenging your own assumptions and recognising the extent to which your thoughts, actions and decisions shape your research (Mason, 2002). Through note keeping and memoing I have effectively been reflecting on this research process since the research curiosity sparked. This included reflecting continuously on:

- the research questions

- the case location and gaining access
- purposive sampling
- data collection and analysis
- the recording of data and resolving field issues
- the audience and reporting.

Reflection was done through personal memos, field notes and reflective discourses with the supervising panel and other thought leaders as well as using co-coders to manage quality.

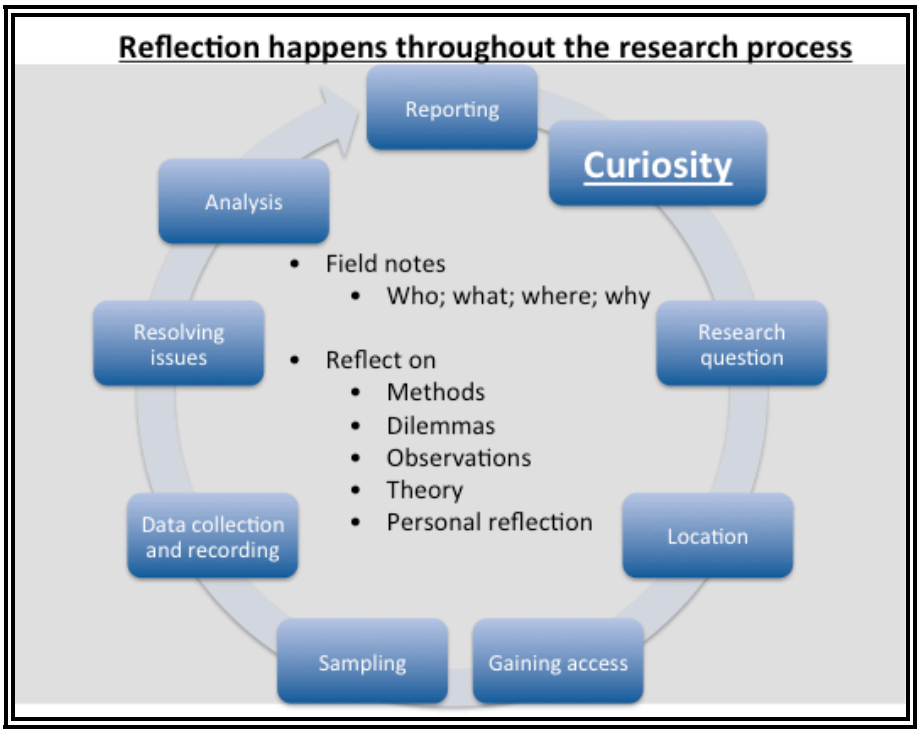
Finally, reflection (for example on what, who, where and why) was focused on areas such as methods applied, potential ethical dilemmas, observations, theory and literature and also included self-reflection. For sampling purposes I had to reflect on how the setting influenced the research process (Mason, 2002). Consideration had to be given to how and where to interview participants, not only to make them comfortable but also to create a setting conducive to recording the interview and comfortable for me to take notes. In selecting and adding particpants, as described under sampling, I had to continuously reflect on how these decisions contributed towards answering the reseach questions. Seale (1999) holds that quality in research design and methods must involve a critical and reflexive practice; therefore in this case I had to continualy engage with how to make a convincing case for the explanations and arguments presented, applying a form of reflexive methodological accounting. The qualitative approach taken in this study defines the researcher as the instrument in the collection and analysis of data (Mason, 2002) and therefore I consistently reflected on these processes and on my own role in the process. It must be noted that the analysis method chosen was an interpretive and constructivist GT approach and method and not reflexive data analysis. I merely reflected on the process.

Furthermore, being an observer during the process, I had to continually account for my role and acknowledge and critically engage with the range of positions, place and identity during the research process (Rowley, 2012). Fieldnotes also assisted in the ongoing reflexive process. The interpretivist nature of the analysis also had an impact on how the fieldnotes were taken (Yin, 2014). I therefore made fieldnotes on my own analytical ideas and choices during the analysis process.

I also had to reflexively examine my own criteria for judging what is ethical and moral (Mason, 2002). In this regard my own experiences and values as well as professional ethical code ascribed to as an IO (Industrial and Organisational) Psychologist had an influence. In some professions many of the codes focus on self interest and self protection (Plummer, 2001) but the ethical code for IO Psychologists emphasises the protection of the interest of the subject and is therefore appropriate in their search reflection process in this case. Personal reflection had to remain within the constraints of the research and not wander off on a journey of unbounded introspection or self-fascination (Spencer, 2001).

This reflective journey is summarised in the figure below.

Figure 2.10 : Reflexivity



Personal reflective process of the researcher

2.8 CONCLUSION

The study reported here was designed to explore the interpretations that various stakeholders constructed to explain how unplanned change happened. Eighteen informants were interviewed, representing the views of different stakeholders in the process including management, students, contract workers, organised labour and employees from Uptown academy. These multiple perspectives on one focal event allowed for a replication logic where each informant script was used to test emerging theoretical insights (Yin, 2014).

The philosophical assumptions underpinning all the elements of the study can be described as interpretivist constructionism (Crotty, 1998). The design aligned with the logics of contextualisation, discovery and diachronicity (Mouton, 2012).

The unit of analysis was the process leading to a decision to change. Qualitative

research is characteristically exploratory, fluid and flexible, data driven and context sensitive (Mason, 2002). The focus of the research question centered on a social phenomenon that has not yet been answered in the existing knowledge base and thus a case study from an interpretavist perspective was best suited.

Following careful reflection on the research questions, purpose, choice of design and objective to build theory, the plan for this study was to pursue a single embedded case study focusing on internal validity, construct validity and reliability (Guba and Lincoln, 1982 in Tracy, 2010). In Chapter 5 it is demonstrated that analytical generalisation could be achieved through linkages between findings (presented in Chapter 4) and previous literature, using abduction as the logic mode of inquiry (Van de Ven & Poole, 1994). The inquiry was value bound and a more abductive approach taken here was consistent both with the research goals and with the prominent methodology and assumptions used in similar studies (e.g. Bartunek, 1984 in Langley, 1999; Bamford, 2008; McKay Bradley and Chia, 2013).

An initial outline of the case history (Eisenhardt 1989, Langley 1999; Yin, 2014) was researched and documented and discussed with the RC, whereupon specific informants and critical leading questions were agreed to for interviewing. I also engaged with informants at an unstructured level during observations. A case study approach (Yin, 2014) allowed for a detailed look at the non-linear dynamics at work in the perspective informing the approach to ODC. Building theory from cases is frequently considered the most interesting way to build theory (Bartunek, Rynes and Ireland, 2006 cited in Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010).

Ethics were strictly aligned to the educational institution's ethical code. Rigor in qualitative research can often be challenged and therefore strict adherence centered on

trustworthiness. Guba and Lincoln (in Tracy, 2010) extended this to credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability of the results.

All interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim so that the raw data could be analysed systematically. The analysis procedure followed the GT approach formulated by Glaser and Strauss (in Charmaz, 2006) and specifically the constructivist GT guideline advised by Charmaz (2006) and employed in similar styles of research (Bamford, 2008). The interviews served as the primary data informing the research, but they were supplemented with secondary data input including organisational documentation, observations and related news clippings (Langley, 1999).

I kept detailed fieldnotes that later served as valuable qualitative sources for triangulation and reflection (Bamford, 2008) and later augmented the evolving theory (Van Maanen, in Pettigrew, 1990). Figure 4.12 under the main findings presented in Chapter 4 outlines the data structure from initial coding to axial coding towards constructs and themes.

To protect the identity of the organisation and informants, psuedonyms were created. Data collection and analysis were done concurrently as proposed for a GT analysis approach (Charmaz, 2006). Initially, the first four interview scripts were analysed manually using thematic analysis to get a sense of what was happening in the data. This was followed by in-depth coding and analysis using Atlas.ti program (Friese, 2016) after each interview, writing memos, discussing and interrogating codes with the Supervising Committee as well as peers and continuing the cycle with 18 informants and a number of documents and observations until satisfactory data saturation was achieved (Eisenhardt, 1989; Suddaby, 2006).

CHAPTER 3
A CASE OF UNPLANNED FORCED CHANGE
YOU CAN NEVER STEP IN THE SAME RIVER TWICE (HERACLITUS)



Poster from the #Ocypywallstreet movement, 2011

CHAPTER 3 : REPORTING ON WHAT HAPPENED

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the context of the protest action at Uptown Academy in 2016 (the case). In order to align the case against the research objectives, a narrative overview is given of the events leading to the decision to do away with outsourced service contracts in the areas of garden maintenance, security services, food services and cleaning. After approval and ethical clearance had been obtained for this research, interviews with an organisational representative from Uptown Academy followed to provide an understanding of the environment and the events that took place there. This was reinforced through a review of the history of the higher education (HE) sector in South Africa and of Uptown Academy (the Academy).

To understand the unique case, the reader will be navigated through the macro socio-political context of South Africa as it applies to the case. At a meso level, this chapter reports on outsourcing over the years in the HE sector. Finally, the character of the case will be discussed in the context of the events that took place at the Academy.

This section aims to set out a thick description of the context in which this case unfolded. Thick description, a term popularised by Geertz (1973), refers to a detailed description of actual behavior, sufficient to permit the reader to experience below-surface appearances by offering an understanding of underlying patterns and context that give the analysis meaning (Leeds-Hurwitz, 2015).

3.2 A SOCIO-POLITICAL CONTEXT LEADING TO A NEW NORMAL OF CHANGE

A decision to insource contract workers at Uptown Academy was experienced as a

major organisational change. This decision was forced onto the organisation through the mobilisation of students and contract workers. The mobilisation came on the back of a victory on the nation-wide sectoral #Feesmustfall (#FMF) campaign. This section presents the story of the change at Uptown Academy during 2016 as it transpired at macro, meso and micro levels.

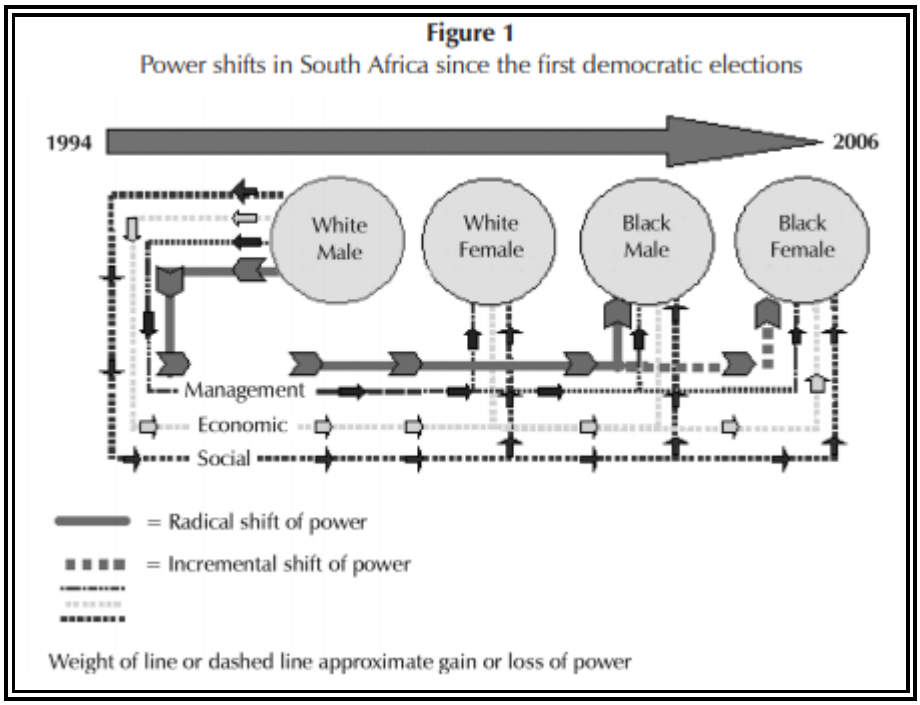
3.2.1 The socio-political macro context

The titanic effort that has brought liberation to South Africa and ensured the total liberation of Africa, constitutes an act of redemption for the black people of the world (Nelson Mandela, 1994).

The South African journey to democracy was made famous by Nelson Mandela and twenty one years later, the roots of the movement we experienced during 2015/16 rested in the dialectical dynamic between material conditions and frustrated expectations following this achievement of freedom (Habib, 2016).

South Africa is a complex and diverse society with various identities embedded in its social fabric. According to Booysen (2007) shifts in the dominance, status and power basis of the different groups have taken place over the years since the advent of democracy. The figure below depicts the shifts in political, economic, managerial and social power that took place in the broad race and gender groupings over this period.

Figure 3.1 : Power shifts in South Africa since the first democratic elections



Booysen (2007, p. 7)

Political power was almost exclusively a white male domain prior to 1994 but literally overnight, on 27 April 1994, formal political power moved to black males predominantly (Booysen, 2007). Over the years there has been a significant shift towards the empowerment of females, ushering in an era of social and economic restructuring of the governance and power relations in South Africa. Legislation has been amended to fast track the empowerment of all its citizens. A *Finance Week* study in 2005 showed that white South Africans owned and controlled just over 50% of the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE), compared to 98% in 1994 (Rautenbach, 2005). However, inequality has also increased within the black community due to the development of a strong black middle class and a so-called black elite (Rautenbach, 2005). Booysen (2007) further acknowledged a social power shift post 1994 towards a more 'African renaissance' philosophy, suggesting that race group categorisation was entrenched in a manner that cemented old identities and superficially re-arranged the positions of dominance in South African society. These dominant social identities spilled over into the South African

workplace.

In the context of our case in South Africa, prior to democracy in 1994 strong social and political activism attended the fight for freedom. The ANC was one of the strongest liberation movements in this fight as stated in their website article Content of brief ANC history (http://www.anc.org.za/content/brief-history-anc) and post democracy it came into power nationally. The reality on the ground, however, was that much of the progress made by the government was about pushing a capitalist agenda at the cost of the poor (Modisane, 2014,) as stated by News24 website article on 22 April 2014 regarding elections; opinions and anylsis how Mandelas sold out the economic struggle. http://www.news24.com/elections/opinionandanalysis/how-mandelas-anc-sold-out-the-economic-struggle-20140422).

Various media sources confirmed this observation, as Moodley and Shabodien (2015) point out: *our post-apartheid reality has, however, unfolded with massive disconnects*[3] *between the provision of the rights enshrined in our much-lauded Constitution and the realities on the ground. The growing discontent of people living in poverty is being expressed through different forms of mobilisation and protests, with South Africa earning the dubious title of 'protest capital of the world' with an average of 35 protests every day*! In the article they make the link between protesting students whose parents may be the same miners who continue to protest for a decent living wage and working conditions. The general populace discontent against the ruling party (ANC) was further noted during the 2016 elections where the EFF managed to increase its number of voters by over 40% and the Democratic Alliance (DA) replaced the ANC in three top constituencies. The discontent was stated on the Businesstech website article Government 133864 DA sweeps top 3

[3] Quotes in *Italics* have been taken from the data set of the researcher and can be referenced in the Audit trail addendum to this thesis.

positions in the Tshwane ANCs Didiza is a no show. (https://businesstech.co.za/news/government/133864/da-sweeps-top-3-positions-in-tshwane-ancs-didiza-is-a-no-show/).

The case focused on outsourced workers. In South Africa, the exploitative labour relations, financial exclusion and structural racism experienced by outsourced workers (Johnson, 2001) clashed harshly with the expectations of South African people post-apartheid. Support for the ANC government has been based on an allegedly progressive program. The end of the apartheid regime was supposed to coincide with a process of democratisation and the redistribution of wealth, but the hopes of ordinary people have been disappointed by actual developments. The hope of the general population in the ANC has been gradually crumbling over the last ten years. The community protests for basic services since the 2000's (Steyn, 2015), the Marikana massacre [4] of August 2012 (Farlam, 2012), and now the student and workers movement within the university, have eroded the legitimacy of the ANC government and its rainbow nation narrative. Memory of the Marikana massacre and the very visible public demonstrations, disruption and destruction of property across the country heightened the level of angst experienced on the Uptown campus during the 2015 / 16 mobilisation.

In 2013 cracks started to appear in the major representative body for democracy in South Africa, the ruling party (ANC). At that point, the leader of the ANC youth league, Julius Malema, started drawing away, and this culminated in the formation of a new

[4] The Marikana massacre took place between 10 August and 20 September 2012 and presented a lethal use of force by SA security forces against civilians . 34 Mine workers died and 78 wounded and more than 250 people arrested. The illegal strike originated from a deadlocked wage negotiation but the social context was a prevailing feauture. Some commentary referred to the incident as the 'ANC's Sharpeville'. According to Terry Bell, Marikana was a watershed, a turning point that is likely to have a profound and long-term impact on South Africa's social and political environment. "But, unlike other watersheds over the past 53 years, it may provide the basis for political diversification rather than uniting disparate opponents of a single authority," (Citypress, 2012)

political party, the EFF, which sets itself up as the ‘lefters’ party fighting for those left behind in democracy (Stone, 2013).

A student leader was quoted in the media as follows: *This is not something that started now. It started in 1976 when students were brutalised and killed and they also said Afrikaans must fall. We did not expect we would still be fighting the same struggle after so many years of democracy* (SL2). He also referred to the political dynamic, noting that *‘most of the issues at the moment are driven by politics ahead of the elections. There is grandstanding. Some issues are pertinent, but why now? Look at the timing’*. (SL2)

Writing in the public media, Greg Nicolson (2016) commented that *student groups at Unisa, where the Economic Freedom Fighters Student Command (EFFSC) has been prominent during this week's protests, accused the EFF on Wednesday of political posturing.* The political ideologies and discontent experienced by the students were echoed by another prominent writer, Professor Adam Habbib, Vice Chancellor at another HE institution in South Africa and in a lecture at the Annual Consulting Psychology conference in 2016 he referred to the socio-political roots of the challenge that was being experienced in the country.

In as much as the political posturing from a national level was observed at the micro level on campus, some political parties made this very blatant and expanded the posturing to full on war. War-like terminology was often used, and in the broader socio-political context political party leaders talked about a “war council” when they met to strategise around the situation.

Figure 3.2 : Meeting of the EFF "War Council"



Tweet from the EFF- 23022016

The preceding socio-political context was also infused with a socio-economic reality. From a socio-economic perspective, the six years preceding this case study presented another unique example informing the context. In 2009 the world experienced a global recession. South Africa experienced this as a financial crisis and persisted in maintaining a blended economy characterised by elements of capitalism limited by state ownership and regulation.

Prior to 2009, the ANC as the ruling party continued to enjoy majority support in governance. Following the economic crises the economy in South Africa continued to take pressure which translated into financial constraints, an increase in unemployment and a general increase in poverty levels. However, the political transformation led to an increase

in black economic empowerment. The transformation impacted a small elite group and led to an increase in the middle class, but the poverty levels of the masses of non-white citizens remained high. Fast forward to 2014 and the new generation of students, who had experienced two decades of democracy but not the ANC struggle days, felt frustrated by what they perceived as a lack of progress in terms of equality and empowerment. These masses were feeling ‘unheard’ and under-represented and this gave rise to leftist movements with a strong socialist perspective to represent the voice of the struggling masses. The blended economy contributed to the frustration experienced in the HE sector due to the unaffordability of higher education (Jansen, 2017).

A prominent social activist, David Sebei, the leader of the Workers and Allied Socialist Party (WASP), uses the concept of a blended economy (De Waal, 2014) when a country with a predominantly capitalist economy still experiences very high levels of poverty and inequality. This includes a developing country like South Africa. In such a society, socialist movements fight for fairness and economic freedom (Sebei, 2014) much as the ANC fought for political freedom during the apartheid era. In 2012 this was observed in the mining industry in South Africa through the much-publicised Marikana events. WASP was also instrumental at that stage, and in an interview in 2016 David Sebei noted that the same tactics learned during the Marikana protests were applied during the #Outsorcingmustfall (#OMF) campaign (Arendse, 2016).

The macro context of this case therefore includes the general frustration experienced by society in the material conditions and frustrated expectations related to democracy attained post apartheid. Political ideologies and dynamics nationally influenced this and impacted on the case, as did the role of social activism in a blended economy.

3.2.2 In and outsourcing over the years – a meso perspective

The HE sector experienced major shifts in the period 1994-2004 during the 'post apartheid reform'. We also cannot forget the periods during the 1960's, 70's and 80's when students rose up against the inferior Bantu education system and the compulsory teaching of Afrikaans as well as numerous working class battles against apartheid. Campuses have traditionally been used to fight political battles, but the role of HE in social transformation was more prevalent during the apartheid era (Reddy, 2004) and less so at Uptown Academy. Furthermore, this is not unique to South Africa; HE leaders globally reflected on *the increasingly politicised environment of HE against the background of student protests in Quebec, Canada in 2012 and Chile in 2011 and 2013* (IL7).

The South African tertiary education system is affected by well-developed international processes of the commodification of knowledge, the foundation of the currently dominant model of the "market university" (Johnson, 2001). These processes have generated protests across the globe, from London to Toronto. In the last two decades, South African HE institutions have also experienced public expenditure cuts, making them increasingly reliant upon student fees and private funding (Habib, 2016). Furthermore, private-sector companies have increasingly profited from providing services, such as cleaning and gardening, considered "non-core" within the university. In the vastly polarised South African society, these circumstances and the cost of living make access to tertiary education practically impossible for the majority of the population.

These two issues, commodification, which saw a shift in the HE operating model and the move towards outsourcing, and the increase in student fees, created the conditions in which change arose in 2015 / 16.

Following the global trend of cuts in the public sector, the University of Cape Town

(UCT) engaged in extensive retrenchment and outsourcing of all “support services” in 1999 (Johnson, 2001). Many HE institutions soon followed suit, including Uptown Academy. This cemented one pillar of the new ‘market model’ of HE institutions. At the same time the government reduced subsidies substantially over the years (Jansen, 2017), forcing institutions to seek funding elsewhere. This filtered through to the private sector, which brought about a further reorientation of the curriculum towards the needs of capitalism as stated by CHE website in their article CHE presentation to commission of inquiry on 17 August 2016. (www.che.ac.za/sites/default/files/CHE-presentation-to-commision-of-inquiry-17082016.pdf).

The driving imperative behind the outsourcing of workers at HE institutions was to cut costs. It was justified by the assertion that universities needed to focus on their “core business” of teaching and research. Through this process, however, hundreds of workers (predominantly semi- to unskilled non-whites) were retrenched, lost most of their benefits and salaries were reduced when they joined the outsourced companies (Johnson, 2001). Under the practice of outsourcing, workers experienced precariousness, insecurity and exclusion (Johnson, 2001). The sense for these individuals was that black workers previously exploited under apartheid were once again exploited and excluded in the name of “neutral”’ economic imperatives of excellence, efficiency, and competitiveness (Luckett and Pontarelli, 2016). Two important points to note are firstly that when Uptown Academy opted for outsourcing it was not perceived by the workers to be done as a business imperative at a commercial level, and secondly that it reflected the socio-political and socio-economic context in terms of the conditions for the contract workers and the sense of marginalisation they experienced.

The outsourcing also had an impact on the bargaining power of employees. In South

Africa employees are allowed to be represented by representative union bodies. This practice and policy was however governed by the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), a partner in the tripartite alliance with the ANC. COSATU stipulate that *only unions registered in a specific sector may be allowed to represent employees from that particular sector*. However, as much as this prevails the layman's knowledge, the Labour court maintain that employees may be represented by a union, irrespective of that unions registered scope as stated by Labourguide website article on which trade unions are allowed to represent employees at the CCMA. (http://www.labourguide.co.za/most-recent/1815-which-trade-unions-are-allowed-to-represent-employees-at-the-ccma). Since the contract workers on the campus were distributed among different employers in different sectors, the representative worker unions recognised by Uptown Academy were not able to become a voice for contractors as their employment fell outside the education sector. Although attempts were made to assist such workers, the representative unions were constrained by legal measures (Johnson, 2001) and the outsourced workers were rendered voiceless. For many years, these employees had to deploy other tactics to survive in an oppressive environment. Their voicelessness did not imply that the issue had disappeared, but only that they could be *branded a trouble maker if they raised it* (Luckett and Pontarelli, 2016).

The National Health, Education and Allied Workers union (NEHAWU) responded to the advent of outsourcing in the 1990's by taking various higher education institutions such as the University of Cape Town (UCT), the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) and the Uptown Academy (UA) to court (Johnson, 2001). As the only labour union that has been fighting this mandate over the years, NEHAWU has been embroiled in Labour Court cases with UCT, UP and Wits since 1999. According to Johnson (2001), the speed and scope of restructuring within the universities during 1999 shocked workers at the time. The outcome

seemed to be a sad and demoralised workforce that was essentially uncertain of the future for themselves and their children. This was the outsourced worker we observed at Uptown during 2015/16.

As early as July 2015 campaigns such as the one promoted in the poster below attempted to mobilise the outsourced workers in the HE sector, but without much success.

Figure 3.3 : National Outsourcing poster campaign



Poster campaign on streets of Pretoria, July 2015

In a broader macro context beyond the HE sector, WASP claimed that its autonomous youth wing, the Socialist Youth Movement (SYM), had started mobilising outsourced workers since early October 2015 (Arendse, 2016).

Over the years, many attempts have been made to end outsourcing but this was usually met with the logic of management about what was reasonable and possible: insourcing was not financially viable and would harm the quality of education afforded to students. This argument was finally rejected. Writing in the media, Professor Habib noted

that *the students, through their protests in October and November of 2015, put affordable, quality higher education and the insourcing of vulnerable workers on the national agenda in a way that has not happened before* (Habib, 2016). Against the background of outsourcing in HE, it was necessary to understand the student movement that ultimately brought this issue back on the leadership table.

During October 2015 reports came through, first on twitter, of a #Rhodesmustfall (#RMF)5 campaign that was launched at an HE institution in the Western Cape. The demand for the removal of a statue of Cecil John Rhodes at UCT became a symbol of the rejection of the continuing colonial legacy and the perpetuation of structural racism. A movement initially sparked in the traditionally "white" universities emerged in October and November in eighteen tertiary educational institutions.

Following this, in mid October 2015 the HE student body in South Africa came together calling for free education. This, protesting students believed, was something promised to them when apartheid fell in 1994, the new government took office and the country entered a new democratic era (Lucket and Pontarelli, 2016). The October national movement then mobilised into an extensive shutdown of the HE system in South Africa. The ultimate decision by President Zuma that no student fees would be increased during 2016 subdued the situation and it was at this point that students returned to their respective campuses and the engagement continued at individual institutions.

The initial protest on the affordability of higher education was a multi-racial, multi-class movement supported by a diverse audience. The photos included below reflect the

[5] Cecil John Rhodes (1853 – 1902) was a British businessman, mining magnate and politician in South Africa. He served as Prime Minister of the Cape Colony from 1890 to 1896. He believed in the project of British imperialism and "founded" Rhodesia, now Zimbabwe. The University of Cape Town is built on the Rhodes estate.

intensity and scope of the protests. The poster below was posted on campus at Uptown Academy prompting students to join the national mobilisation during October 2015 when the #Feesmustfall (FMF) campaign gained momentum nationally.

Figure 3.4 : Poster on Uptown Academy campus and on the Student Repesentative Council (SRC) website calling for mobilisation



Researcher observation of poster on campus

This was followed by the mass mobilisation of students to the Union Buildings in Pretoria to present a memorandum to Parliament and the Minister of HE demanding free education. The picture below depicts students from Uptown Academy starting their march from the campus. University vice chancellors and students representatives met with President Zuma inside the union buildings. He decided that there would be no increases in fees in 2016 but he did not appear before tha protesting students who had gathered outside. Some students turned violent and the police responded with force.

Figure 3.5 : Thousands of students marching to the Union Buildings



CREDIT: Fezekile Msimang (20151023)

Figure 3.6 : Students protesting on campus



CREDIT: Shen Scott (20151023)

In the media it was also reported that social activists (not students only) participated in the movements, including the leader of WASP. The tweet below shows the support from external activists.

Figure 3.7 : WASP Twitter feed during #FMF campaign



Tweet courtesy of L. Sejake, (20151023)

Kyle Findley (2016) analysed social media throughout the #movements in HE over the 2015/16 period and validated how social media fast-tracked the campaigns. *The resulting social movement has been unprecedented in its scale and earnestness. In addition to taking to the streets, students (and many other South Africans) took to social media to voice their frustration and articulate their demands* (Findley,2016).

The situation at the Union Buildings on 23 October 2015 was stressful. With students from most of the campuses in Gauteng and surrounding areas transported in marching to the union building, the police were under pressure to maintain order.

The picture below depicts how police had to extinguish fires started by members in the crowd.

Figure 3.8 : Police extinguish a fire started by protesting members in the crowd



CREDIT: Fezekile Msimang. Image source (20151023)

Figure 3.9 : Portable toilets were set on fire by unknown members in the crowd



CREDIT: Fezekile Msimang Image source (20151023)

Figure 3.10 : Police on scene during #FMF mobilisation



CREDIT: Fezekile Msimang Image source (20151023)

The #Outsourcingmustfall (#OMF) campaign reached astonishing achievements in a relatively short space of time with HE institutions across South Africa committing in principle to end outsourcing. Although the details of the agreements were different at different HE institutions, what emerged from all of them was the political defeat of outsourcing labor practices in the sector. Outsourced workers and students fought side by side, and continued to fight across the country to end the practice of outsourcing in South African universities.

All of these socio-political forces for change created the historical context for the situation that prompted this case study.

3.2.3 Insourcing as a major change at Uptown Academy - the micro context

Uptown Academy has been in existence for more than 100 years and in the 1980's opened its doors to non-white students for the very first time. After years of transformation it rendered the introduction of a dual-lingual mode of instruction, larger numbers of students of all races and an employee demographic shift. However, one informant

believed that there remained a *perception that the cultural symbols on campus remained largely of a white, Afrikaans culture and tradition* (TM1, 2016). This perception led to an informal a-political movement at the academy during early 2015 aimed at highlighting experiences of cultural supremacy and marginalisation (TM1, 2016).

When the nation-wide student movements started gaining momentum in September 2015, this non-partisan faction of students at Uptown Academy took up the cause of more affordable education and mobilised to that effect. On campus, the SRC presented a memorandum to management petitioning against fee increases proposed for 2016 (site Facebook page). Only a *small group of students participated in this protest (*S2). Further action from the EFF branch on campus saw them raising issues around language with the management team, who warned this group to use the formal structures and specifically that matters were to be channelled through the SRC as stated on Facebook article UAEFF1. (www.fb.com/UAEFF1).

In October 2015 a presidential task team was established to address the national issue on fees, but on the Uptown Academy campus management also commenced consultations with protesting students. By the time the national debate and movement ended up at the Union Buildings in October to hand over a memorandum to the President, the student movement at Uptown Academy had already drafted a memorandum for management.

On 21 October 2015 a thousand students protested peacefully and handed over the memorandum which included the following demands:

- We demand free education.
- We demand no fee increment (zero percent) across the board.

- We demand that no person(s) participating in this mass protest action be victimised and/or prosecuted by the University or its affiliates.
- We demand provision be made for students participating in this mass protest action to catch up on any academic activity which was disrupted and/or missed as a result of said action.
- We demand that Food Services (UARs) must decrease their prices to be market competitive. In the interim, we are launching an investigation with the Competition Commission, as well as the office of the Public Protector in order to follow up.
- We demand that any and all financial decisions impacting on students must be proposed to students no later than September each year.
- We demand that a student's financial status shall have no bearing on their ability to retain their Residence placement.
- We demand that every person who is deemed fit for financial aid, as per the NSFAS criteria, receive such financial aid from the University.
- We demand the removal of application fees as well as the residence levy fee.
- We demand that a seat be allocated to a student representative on the Standing Committee of the Council.
- We demand no interest rate (zero percent) on any outstanding fees owed by a student.
- We demand no registration fee.
- We demand that Council convenes and ratifies this document in our presence as stated by ENCA website article Reopen Monday. (https://www.enca.com/south-africa/reopen-monday).

Note that none of these demands made any reference to contract workers.

The management team responded with a statement agreeing to a 6% fee increase cap and a commitment to review the issues raised as stated by UA website newspost article 2180801 update fees at UA. (www.ua.co.za/news/post_2180801-update-fees-at-ua).

In response, the EFF student branch committee on campus released a statement declaring that this agreement was not with a representative body and that no quorum was present at this meeting (www.fb.com/UAEFF2). Plans for further demonstrations forced management to shut down the campus and cancel lectures for the rest of that week and obtained a secret court order interdict against protesting students displaying 'disruptive behaviour' as stated on IOL news website article UAsecret interdict. (www.iol.co.za/news/UAsecret_interdict).

The very next day, the presidency released a statement that President Jacob Zuma would be meeting with university and student leaders. On campus, mobilisation continued to the extent that management was forced to keep the campus closed and suspend the academic program as stated on the UA website newspost 2181159 student protest at UA latest information. (www.ua.ac.za/news/post_2181159-student-protest-at-ua-latest-information).

The photos below shows the students mobilising on campus prior to the Union Buildings event.

Figure 3.11 : Images of student mobilisation at Uptown during #FMF



Photo credit to Herman Hoogenboezem Image source (20151023)

Figure 3.12 : Images of student mobilisation at Uptown during #FMF



Photo credit to Herman Hoogenboezem Image source (20151023)

As depicted in the photo below, the mobilisation was notable for the strong unity between students of all race groups and levels of privilege uniting against the exclusivity of higher education.

Figure 3.13 : Image of the Academy's diverse student mobilisatio during #FMF campaign



CREDIT: Shen Scott Image source (20151022)

The collective student movement and mobilisation to the Union Buildings on 23 October 2015 prompted a new momentum and gravitas back on campus and the earlier agreement was revisited as stated by News24 website article Song-dance as UA students prepare for march on Union Building 201551023. (www.news24.com/SA/Song-dance-as-ua-students-prepare-for-march-on-Union-Buildings-201551023).

On 26 October the campus reopened and the dispute with the students was resolved. The university released a statement per their UA website newsletter 4634 (www.uanewsletter.co.za/4634) acceding to all 13 demands put forward on 21 October and addressed further issues raised by the protestors, including the following:

- To set up a commission in collaboration with all stakeholders to consider the issue of outsourcing.
- To consult with Senate, the Council, the Department of Higher Education and Training and all other stakeholders in considering only one language of tuition, namely English. A written report to be provided on the matter before the end of the year.
- To provide transport to town, provided that students propose a route.

- To revive agreements with the late head of residence affairs, so that students are allocated affordable accommodation and not studios.
- To allocate food for residence students during the exam period for those who have run out of meal funds.
- To develop a programme to listen to students.

Success in one campaign (#FMF achieved a Presidential decision for no increase) fuelled momentum to continue on further campaigns. The tactics to mobilise were not unique to Uptown Academy as the media carried reports of multiple HE institutions being shut down by protesting students and workers. The rest of the year continued with smaller uprisings against language policy issues but overall the institution was able to progress with the academic program towards the year end shut down in December.

The beginning of the new year saw a new momentum in the movement when protesting now included the outsourced contract workers. The photo below was taken early in January 2016 when contract workers and students mobilised outside the campus against outsourcing.

Figure 3.14 : Police shoot student and worker protesters as they disperse



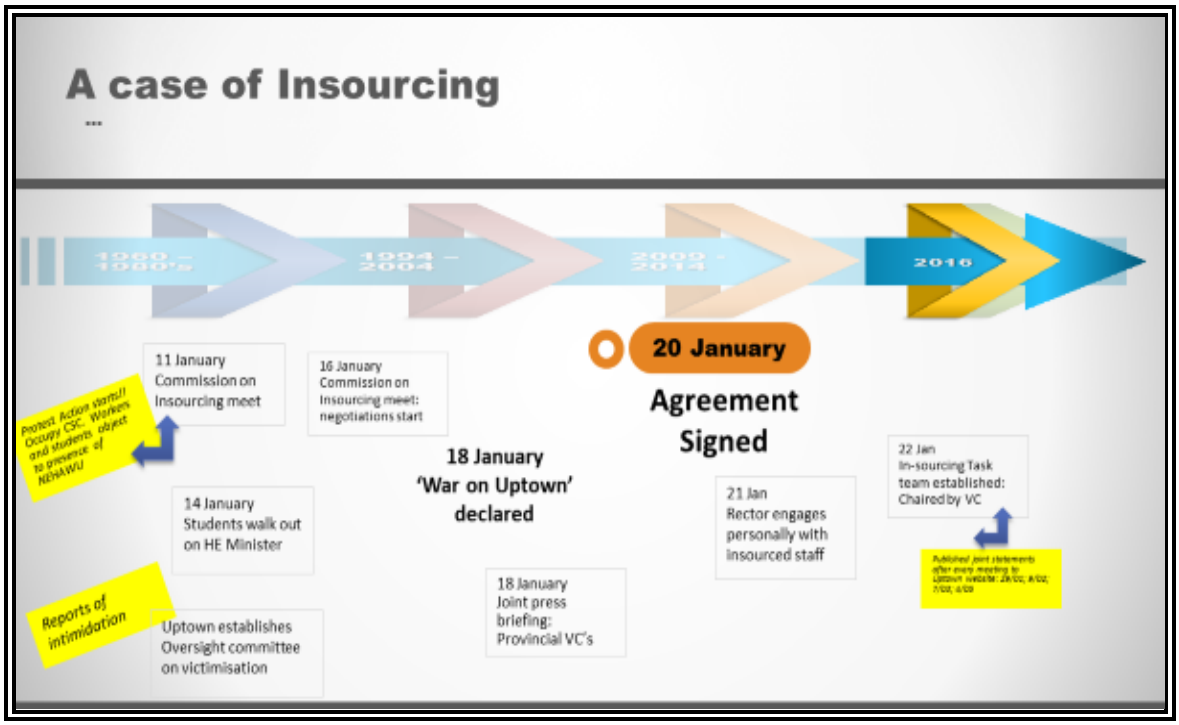
CREDIT: Christine Vermooten, (The Citizen Image source, 20160113)

In line with their vision for a new society, students and workers were demanding free education and better conditions for the black working class.

"10 Days of War"[6]

The new year came with an escalation in mobilisation as contract workers now joined the student protestors. The entire process from the moment the protestors occupied a central building at the organisation to the signing of an agreement took only 9 days. The nature and timeline of the process are reflected in the figure below.

Figure 3.15 : 'Ten' days of War



Researcher presenting the case to her supervising committee

The period between 11 and 20 January 2016 was referred to by some insiders as *ten days of war*. It was just days before the majority of the students would return to campus so management wanted to resolve the matter urgently.

[6] Technically it was 9 days from inception to a conclusion of the decision. An informant kept referring to it as '10 days of war' and therefore the researcher stayed with this emphasis.

On the 11th, protestors occupied the Client Service Center (CSC) and with that in essence shut down major support and administrative processes as stated by UA website news post 2210247. (www.ua.ac.za/news/post_2210247). The 11 January movement to occupy the CSC building brought with it a limitation on the security available on campus because at this stage #OMF had been included on the agenda and therefore security personnel now formed part of the protests or were abandoning their posts. Physical tactics like mobilising groups of protestors and then physical action like loud singing and clapping to intimidate management were deployed and this created conflict. The protestors had power in numbers. Violence in the form of attempts and threats to destroy physical property further intimidated management and caused conflict.

On the 12th, mass protests once more delayed registration processes on campus and the Academy obtained an urgent court interdict to prevent protests on campus. Police on the scene shot rubber bullets at the protestors and a statement was released by the Academy that it would shut down for the day, '*to ensure safety of staff, students and property'* as stated by the UA website newspost 2213899. (www.ua.ac.za/news/post-2213899).

Figure 3.16 : Police shooting at protestors during #OMF movement



CREDIT: pretorianews.newspaperdirect.com (20160113)

The collective student and contractor mobilisation on campus continued for the remainder of the week, communicating on a new student movement Facebook page that campus would be shut down as mobilisation continued as stated on Facebook article uaSM1. (www.fb.com/uaSM1).

Management continued with talks in this regard and released statements to update all stakeholders as stated on the UA website newspost 2215217. (www.ua.ac.za/news/post_2215217). By 16 January no agreement had been reached and the Academy was forced to remain shut as mobilisation continued outside the gates of the campuses.

On 18 January a statement on Facebook from student representatives stated that a request was made to management to lift the court interdict as it was jeopardizing trust between the parties as stated on Facebook newspost uaSM2. (www.fb.com/uaSM2). In this statement, claims were further made that workers and students feared that management were not serious about resolving the issues, that contractors were losing pay for every day not worked and that some workers feared victimisation and their refusal to return to work was based on fear.

The power balance initially favoured the mobilisation effort of the protesting students and contractors. However, a balancing of power transpired throughout the process, power shifting between the protestors and management. For example, on the 11th it was only when the head of the organisation arrived that discussions commenced and agreement was reached to establish a commission on insourcing as stated on the UA website newspost 2210247. (www.ua.ac.za/news/post-2210247).

On 16 January the commission on insourcing met and the negotiation and consultation processes commenced. On 18 January the protestors declared '*war on Uptown Academy*'

(L1) when the negotiations reached a deadlock.

The *ten days of wa*r were described as a period characterised by long hours (often off campus, in meetings and engagement) involving key influencers, continued protest action and the establishment of a temporary media team to handle communication. It included evacuation from campus, which was experienced as chaotic at times, and there was much uncertainty among stakeholders.

On 20 January 2016 an agreement was signed between management and a large representative consortium, a temporary structure which included employee representatives, student representatives and contract labour representatives as stated in the UA website newspost 2218521. (www.ua.ac.za/news/post_2218521). This agreement solidified the decision to do away with outsourced service contracts in the areas of garden maintenance, security services, food services and cleaning as stated in the WWMP website (www.wwmp.org.za/index.php).

In an organisation of the size and stature of Uptown Academy, with very strictly defined governance structures and processes, this represented a major change at an organisational level in this short space of time, demonstrating the power of external contextual dynamics.

3.2.4 History and character of Uptown Academy

Historical context

The foundation years of Uptown Academy span the period 1889-1929 but it was officially established in 1902. The foundational years were influenced by the Anglo Boer war (1899), the Union of South Africa (1910), the First World War (1914-18) and the Great depression (1929) as stated in the UA website article 258117 UA history.

(www.ua.ac.za/about-ua/article/258117/uahistory).

Originally established as an English medium institution, it evolved into the only full bilingual (English and Afrikaans) university and remained as such until the early 1930's. Very soon Afrikaans speaking students outnumbered English speaking students and by 1932 the University Council decided that Afrikaans would become the only medium of instruction. The Academy was by then almost predominantly white and Afrikaans in character. This brought with it strong cultural roots in the new Afrikaaner national tradition. Afrikaans is an African language with a very specific 'black history' (Willemse, 1991) but the Afrikaner Christian nationalists who came into power in 1948 brought ideas about society, economy, culture and language that gave birth to apartheid. Under apartheid rule language was deployed as a tool of tribalism in the service of a divide-and-rule policy and it became a marker of mis- and under education (Willemse, 1991). One of the unintended consequences was the level of loathing developed for the Afrikaans language. This was important as it established a critical attitude towards the very traditional nature and Afrikaans character of the organisation.

The expansion years (1948-1982) were characterised by physical growth and expansion and also an increase in modernisation. This was also a period that saw the promulgation of apartheid[7] legislation in South Africa (1950's), the Sharpeville massacre [8](1960), the establishment of the Republic of South Africa (1960), the Soweto riots[9] (1976) and the restructuring of higher education(1982). These years formed a very important

[7] Apartheid was a system of institutionalised, or systematic, racial segregation and discrimination in South Africa between 1948-1991.
[8] Sharpeville massacre was an event that occurred on 21 March 1960 starting at the police station of a South African township called Sharpeville. The day of demonstration against Pass Law (one element of apartheid) ended in the police opening fire on the crowd, killing 69 people with 289 casualities, including 29 children.
[9] The Soweto uprising by students was the result of the introduction of Afrikaans alongside English as medium of instruction in high schools as well as other factors including the Bantu education system (another element of apartheid).

base and historical context for the case under review. The nature of the discontent emerging from the students during 2015 relates to a perception that the inequalities and pain experienced during this time was not sufficiently addressed and even after 21 years of democracy freedom and equality were still not felt and lived by all.

Following the shifts in the country, 1982-2008 saw the beginning of transformation at Uptown Academy. The main characteristic of this era was the transformation back into a fully bilingual and multi-cultural institution. This occurred during the transformation that was happening in the country, which saw a referendum on a new constitution (1983), the ANC unbanned and Nelson Mandela released in 1990, the Population Registration Act and Group Areas Act repealed in 1991 followed by the first democratic elections in 1994. In 1989 the Academy was declared officially open to all races. A broad transformation forum (1995) included both students and staff in the process to restructure the Academy into an internationally competitive and locally relevant university. As part of a transformation process the Academy was meant to incorporate English and SePedi as second and third languages of communication. English and Afrikaans remained the only languages of instruction, however, and the cultural systems on campus, in terms of signage, statues and residence tradition, remained largely Afrikaans with little to no adaption/inclusion of other cultural systems (sahistory.org.za, 2015).

During the 2015 student uprising it was clear that the idea of a fully transformed, multi-lingual multi-cultural institutional culture existed "*only sporadically*" (TM1, 2016). It was only during 2015 that a language task team was established to review the language policy at the Academy. Student political organisations on campus had been challenging the lack of transformation and a social media campaign aimed at highlighting experiences of cultural supremecy and marginalisation was deployed (TM1, 2016).

This historical context is important because although apartheid had been officially demolished, the case reflected how aspirations for freedom, equality and identity continue to be a source of much mobilisation until today. The mobilisation of the students in 2015/16 demonstrated that the move towards true freedom and democracy was still but an aspiration.

The organisational character

The character of Uptown Academy has been defined and developed over the years and at the time of the study could be summarised as follows.

Tradition was always a cornerstone. From the formative years in the 1930's traditions like initiation were established and are still practised as an important element of first year orientation. Afrikaans is still widely spoken on campus and the perception exists that *students who cannot speak the language nevertheless have to subscribe to the cultural norms attached to it* (TM1,2016).

Although not officially part of management decision-making, the student body has always had a voice in the governance of the organisation. The nature of the academy has always been one of stakeholder engagement and the first student council was founded in 1909 (sahistory.com). Numerous student governing bodies exist as part of institution governance including the Student Parliament, the SRC and the Constitutional Tribunal (student court). The Student Parliament serves as a plenary body of student governance while the SRC is the executive body of student governance. The SRC represents the interests of students when dealing with the management structure. This is a very important consideration because what happened in the case study was that this structure essentially disintegrated and in a very short time a new interim body was created. The case also

presented the role of the campus political party groups and the role they played in the disintegration of the SRC and the formation of a new body and how the politics playing out at a national level (macro) cascaded down to organisational level (micro) as stated on Facebook article UAEFF3. (www.fb.com/UAEFF3). Lastly, this interim student body, which traditionally represented the interest of students, was seen to expand as the students became the vehicle to voice the concerns of contract workers as well as stated on the UA website newspost 2213899. (www.ua.ac.za/news/post_2213899).

The essence and nature of the Academy is that of rendering a service. Although it does have clear measurable performance indicators, the essence of a service organisation is that it is a business activity that creates value and provides advantage to its customers by accomplishing the change the client wishes to see (Kescer, 2014).The core service activity was set in education and academic research.

The professional service is labour-intensive, and interaction and client orientation are significant. Staff rendering these services are grouped into the academic function and support services.

The organisational governance can be described as democratic, participative, delegation-based leadership. This however entails cumbersome structures and processes of decision making and engagement. Following Mintzberg's typology of organisations (Lunenburg,2012), this organisation adheres to the professional bureaucracy type with highly governed decision-making processes and structures, significant delineation in business core and support functions, standardised skills and knowledge and a division of skill and high levels of specialisation. Power tends to be tied to expertise or position. The organisation is bureaucratic in character with formalisation and standardisation of procedures and a high level of control. Mintzberg (in Lunenburg, 2012) considers this type

of organisational characteristic fitting in a complicated but stable environment. It has strong and established historical roots, and tradition is strong. In this case, however, the tradition is informed by a *minority white elite* (MK1, 2016).

The Academy has grown and expanded to a national organisation with strong influence into an impacted by global and national environment. The character of the Academy set out in this section is important at two levels:

- It sets a criteria for analytical generalisation of the findings;
- It makes a strong case for the purposive strategy of sampling: its very nature is at odds with this kind of change .

3.3 CONCLUSION

The socio-political and economic context that gave rise to the case study was a major event during 2015 / 16 in South Africa, as articulated in Chapter 1 of this thesis. It attracted much interest as the pain the students were expressing in the #FMF and #OMF campaigns was something that resonated with a large proportion of the populace. As the biggest student uprising since the formal end of the apartheid regime in 1994, it brought with it images of the Soweto uprising in 1976 and kept the attention of the country. The movements shook national politics and shifted the national agenda. After 21 years of democracy with the previous liberation movement (the ANC) governing the country, the issues of the decolonisation of the education system, the financial exclusion of students and the exploitative nature of the externalisation of work processes have finally been advanced by the struggle of thousands of young students and outsourced workers across the country. Situating the struggle of the outsourced workers and the subsequent decision to insource within this context therefore presented a unique case to study unplanned

change forced onto an organisation from a socio-political context with peculiar power dynamics. When the students took on the plight of the voiceless workers it led to a decision in January 2016 to insource more than 2000 employees. As evident in the findings presented in Chapter 4 and the audit trail, the impact of the change was much greater than the financial impact (full time employees with extended benefits paid).

In the next chapter, I will present the findings from the case study, making a case towards new knowledge for the field of ODC.

CHAPTER 4

IDENTIFYING CONCEPTS AND OVERARCHING CATEGORIES

CHAPTER 4 : INITIAL DATA ANALYSIS, DIMENSIONALISATION AND EVOLVING CONCEPTS TOWARDS THEORY BUILDING

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the initial, discovery phase of data analysis and presents the open codes and how they are organized in the data structure. Applying grounded theory meant that as data was being collected it was immediately analysed for meaning through the application of the coding techniques described in the methodology section. This chapter presents the initial concepts and categories as they relate to the exploration of the research questions. It will therefore present the initial findings in clusters of the macro context, power, and auxiliary process. The detailed codebook can be referenced in the audit trail, added as an annexure to this report. This chapter validates the macro context and highlights the conditions in the external environment that gave rise to organisational change. It also describes the conditions through which external power came to be experienced as conflict.

4.2 INITIAL CODING

During initial coding and analysis it was important to stay open to exploring whatever theoretical possibilities relating to the study aims could be discerned from the data. As Charmaz (2006) advised, reflection was done through the following questions:

- What was this data a study of?
- What did the data suggest? Pronounce?
- From whose point of view?
- What theoretical category does this specific data indicate?

Coding remained as close as possible to the actual data and words used by the informants, focusing on words that reflected action.

Open coding was the very first step in analysing the data and refers to the naming and

categorising of phenomena (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Data coding happened serially; i.e. working through each interview transcript and labeling everything. The initial labels, or *in vivo codes*, came from actual data taken from the transcripts, secondary documents and observations. These concepts were the building blocks towards theory development (Baptiste, 2001). The data coding was interpreted and analysed against the research objectives and therefore the analysis in this chapter also follows the structure aligned to themes and categories linked to the research objectives. These themes showed the links between the different categories as well as how this linked to the whole, as the whole picture informs the understanding of the parts and their connections (Dey, in Van Aswegen, 2010). This was the first step towards axial coding (covered in Chapter 6).

When I broke down the data analytically during initial coding, a succession of concepts emerged that started forming the building blocks of the grounded theory model. The initial codes grew from 81 codes to 128, later refined to a final total of 145 codes. Through continuous refinement, using background knowledge on the context and theory, I started building these codes up towards 2nd order codes through a process of focused coding. This involved analytical thinking, deliberating with the supervising team and peers and writing memos about the phenomenon and how it could be further investigated. The text and background knowledge and experience in the phenomenon made it possible to specify different properties of the phenomenon being studied and enabled me to articulate the focused codes. These codes started taking on specific characteristics and could be described as constructs. This gave the research team a sense of comfort that dimensions in the data were beginning to crystalise.

Open and focused coding is an expanding procedure and therefore since the process of data collection, analysis and memo writing was cyclical, the codes were becoming more refined throughout the process. In fact, as from the 8th informant I noticed that no new

focused codes were emerging. It was too early declare data saturation, however, as a number of diverse stakeholder views were still missing from the research process. This enabled a deeper exploration of the identified dimensions with the remaining informants. The interviews were still fairly open-ended, allowing informants space to reflect on and share their views on the process. However, the developed themes now gave specific questions to explore in depth during the interview.

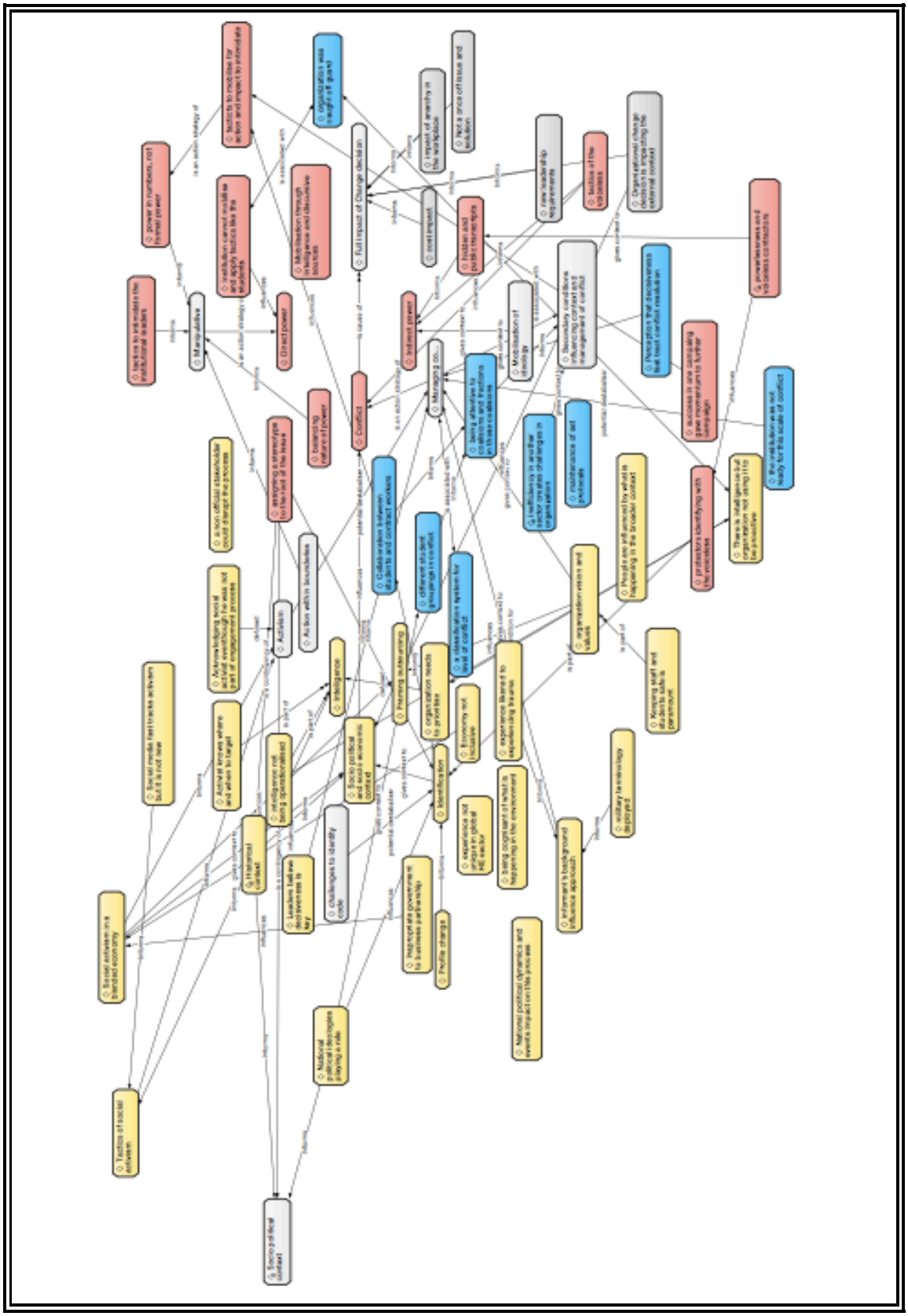
The figure below presents a mind map of the most prominent initial codes that would later feed into the ultimate theory development. The themes that emerged from the data were grouped under the categories of the research questions, with this chapter exploring

- how the macro context influenced change
- the external power dynamics forcing the change.

The themes in the figure below can be read as follows:

- Yellow Codes linked to the macro socio-political and economic environment
- Red Codes linked to power dynamics and experienced conflict
- Blue Secondary codes not directly associated with the above objectives
- Grey Codes linked to the impact of the decision to change.

Figure 4.1 : Second order initial open code mind map



4.3 ELEVATING DATA TO CONCEPTS

In the nomological network at the end of this chapter (Table 4.12), I presented a summary of the concepts and categories uncovered during coding. This section will elaborate on the concepts, presenting the evidence from the data sources to describe the storyline of unplanned change.

4.3.1 Perspective 1: Caught off guard: how the macro context created the conditions for unplanned change.

The first objective of the research was to explore how the macro context created the conditions for unplanned change in an organisation. The first level of themes during coding therefore addressed this question. Firstly, I validated my assumptions on the socio economic and socio political context influencing the change. The study then found four major factors that explained how this happened: activism in a blended economy; intelligence and the power to mobilise; the organisational context in terms of vision and values; and the manner in which outsourcing was framed.

Hashtag (#) Movements

A close reading of the media reports suggested that at face value the change originated through a #Rhodesmustfall (#RMF) campaign started in the Higher Education (HE) sector in Cape Town (South Africa). Various #campaigns[10] cascaded from this event, including "#Outsourcingmustfall" (#OMF), which really started at the #RMF event (IL1:21)[11].

The #RMF campaign had anti-colonialist sentiments and reflected a perception of division and racism, previously disadvantaged students feeling that they did not belong at the university. After this campaign had escalated to a national discourse, the discourses to

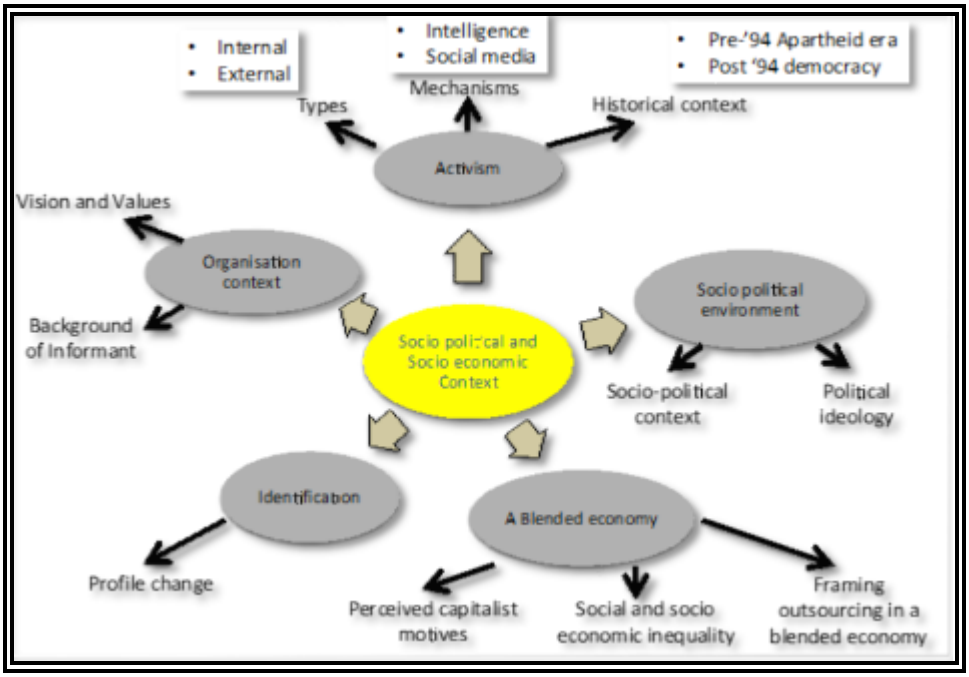
[10] A #campaign refers to a social media movement.
[11] Quotes in *italics* have been taken from the data set of the researcher and can be referenced in the Audit trail (addendum to this thesis).

follow included elements of identity, socio political issues and economic issues, as described in Chapter 3.

Tracking the roots of the origin of the change culminated in a socio-political context, which created the environment for forced change in the organisation. As one informant noted : *it was totally not our decision and it was influenced by a context beyond our control* (IE1:12). This led to conflict in the organisation. The research explored how this conflict was created and how the organisation dealt with it. Furthermore, it explored how this context and external power dynamics led to a decision that created change in the organisation. What emerges in terms of understanding how the macro contexts impacted the organisation was that

- organisations are part of a broader system or institutional field and therefore management must consistently be cognisant of what unfolds in that macro environment and how it influences the micro context
- intelligence can operationalise power to mobilise
- national political ideologies can influence stakeholders in the micro environment
- management needs to be cognisant of how their operational practices are framed and what institutional context informs the framing.

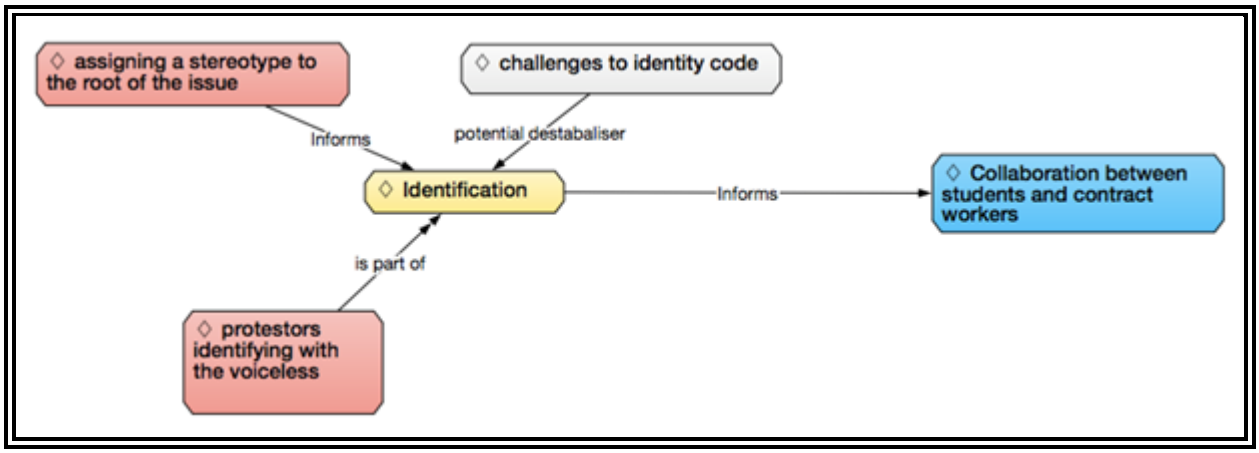
Figure 4.2 : The macro context network



4.3.1.1 Identification

During the data gathering and analysis process I started seeing potential links between identification and how the power manifested. However, for ease in following the analysis the coding on identification will be presented here. In Chapter 6 the relationship between identification and power will make more sense.

Figure 4.3 : Identification network



Profile change

The next section will demonstrate how the collaboration between students and workers happened, leading to action against the Academy. In Chapter 3 we read how, following democracy, public higher education institutions opened their doors to even more opportunities for diverse students. This brought with it a profile shift in public HE institutions that the organisations *were not always keeping up with* (IL4:45).

Referring to the students, one leader's view was that *they walk in and out of campus. What they saw were black men and women bending down, looking down. Everyone looking up, standing straight are white. The people cleaning, in the garden and security, looks like them* (IL4:58). For some of these students the contract workers could have represented their parents and they imagined *their parents being underpaid* (IL2:28) and they started identifying with the voiceless contract workers.

The new profile on campus presented a new social dynamic that had a much greaterimpact on discourse and solutions (IL5:64). The view was that if the organisation was still predominantly white and Afrikaans, we would have seen a different discourse (IL5:63). Furthermore, the students are also more politically orientated, representing a number of political views and a bigger diversity of political affiliations (IL10:8). These student bodies have the ear of government and political parties and this weakened institutional autonomy (IL2:7).

A number of the early interviews seemed to support this idea, and it was not until much later that an informant appeared to be challenging this idea by alluding to the fact that the *original memorandum presented to management in October 2015 did not include outsourcing* (S1:24). This implied that the broader body of students initially focused only on the student issues and did not take on the insourcing issue. This same informant did acknowledge a level of identification with the contract workers, however, but felt that the

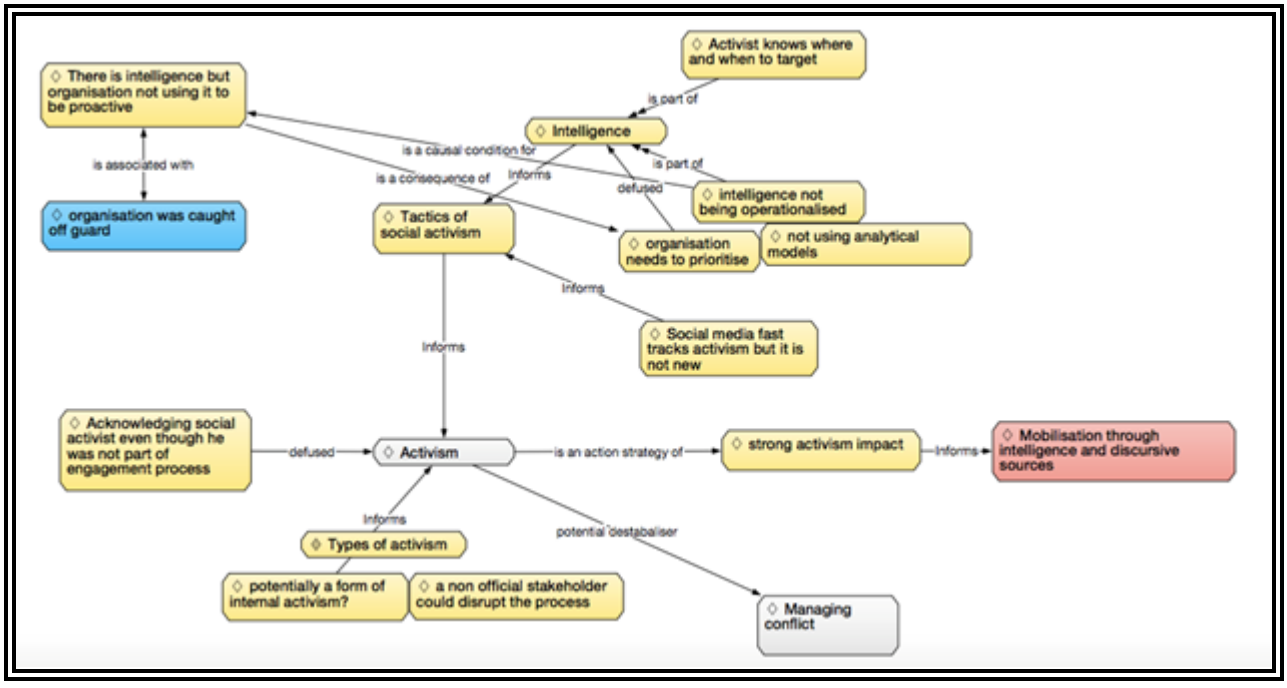
movement (#Outsourcingmustfall) was politically motivated rather than an identity driver and *very much informed by the principles of the EFF* (S1:28). This confirmed the link between the macro level political ideologies and the micro level political posturing.

The predominant voice of informants validated this level of identification between students and contract workers, however, the more so because it arose in a socio political context, which was aligned to the research question.

In conclusion, I began to question whether the students did in fact identify with "the voiceless" contract workers. I reviewed the scripts in relation to this code and then had a follow-up interview with the one informant who appeared to be challenging this notion. After a second discussion this informant confirmed that there was definitely identification from all but that, given the timing, identification in the form of protest action was politically driven. I had a brainstorming session with the supervising team and settled on the appropriateness of the category.

4.3.1.2 Activism and the intelligence to mobilise

Figure 4.4 : Activism network



Early reading into the event of the #Outsourcingmustfall campaign as captured in Chapter 3 identified the role of activism within the socio-political context. Much was published in the public domain to this effect.

The organisation acknowledged that someone external to the process and without an official role in resolving the conflict could be highly *disruptive to the process* (IL1:74). This was often experienced and represented as social activism. It was therefore important for management at the Academy to acknowledge this role and give it a voice in the process without disrupting the agreed upon governance to deal with the situation. The category therefore presented various types of activism involved in the process.

Types of activism

Two forms of activism were identified: external activism, as already alluded to, as well as internal and intermediary activism. Students at a tertiary institution would typically fit into an intermediary category of activism because they are part of the institution (internal). However, as this instance focused on administrative processes and students do not form part of these structures or have insight into them, they are therefore not considered internal to the organisation.

Internal activism

There was a form of internal activism experienced where knowledgeable individuals within the organisation identified with the cause of the protestors and chose to *align with them* and support them (IL1:81). Noting this, during the negotiations the process facilitator *allowed the company legal representative to engage* with this internal activist (a professor of Law in the Academy) and this contributed towards *a speedier process to resolve the matter* (IL1:86).

Intermediary and External activism

External activism came through a number of embodiments. The students *came into a terrain that was not theirs* (IL2:26) when they protested around the issue of outsourcing and therefore took on the role of intermediary activists. However, it did appear that *somebody was giving them these ideas* (IL7:32). There appeared to be a *very strong influence from the outside* (S1:20) and *other people, outside the campus structures, were influencing the process* (S1:21).

Some of the students *had mostly been working with a union called External Union G* (IL7:28) and these types of external unions were *clearly influential* (IL6:3). Students were suddenly throwing words around that they mostly did not even fully comprehend and then *you knew somebody else has been feeding them with ideas and vocabulary* (IL7:31).

Activists outside the organisation were also influential and added fuel to the momentum. A prominent and well-known social activist joined with some of the student groups, giving rise to the perception that the movement was *high jacked by professional activists* (IL3:50). This particular activist *has always been very instrumental in igniting social change in societies* (IL4:49) and he entered into the process although he was not formally *affiliated with anyone* (IE3:9).

Mechanics of activism

The exploration into activism revealed that the two elements through which activists drove their campaigns were intelligence and social media.

Intelligence

Initial data analysis presented an idea that I later coded as *Intelligence*. It was more than just having information. It was what you do or do not do with the information that

turned it into intelligence. The intelligence concept manifested in two spheres. Firstly, intelligence was a mechanism for activism. Activists were smart about their targets; for social activists, *timing was crucial in the life of the organisation* (IL5:35). As noted in Chapter 3, the student protest was initiated towards the end of the academic year at the brink of year-end examination season. Launching the #OMF campaign at the beginning of the new year at the Academy also made it a critically vulnerable time as the Academy was receiving the new intake of students and registration was a demanding and stressful process.

Nicolson (2016) also alluded to the tactics of social activism when he interviewed one of the social activists: “Sebei knew the same model could apply at universities — target a specific area at the right time, make sure the action has impact, and watch it spread” (Nicolson, 2016).

Furthermore, outsider activists targeting the issue of outsourcing across the country saw the opportunity and vulnerability of the HE sector: *they started at HE institutions because these are soft targets but they will move across industries* (IL5:49). In the broader macro environment the *insourcing campaigns impacted differently at different institutions* (IL2:19). The activists targeted the public HE institutions that were financially in a position to insource but they ignored the historically disadvantaged institutions (HDI’s).

The second form through which intelligence manifested was within the Academy. For the management at the Academy, the lack of operationalising intelligence contributed towards the unplanned change and to their being caught off guard. What also caught the organisation by surprise was the numbers and structure of the student and contractor movement, as *there was not one clear body to negotiate with* (S1:59).

Previous attempts to raise and address this issue saw the organisation prioritising other issues related to their own staff. This defused existing intelligence as there was not really an appreciation of *the extent of the problem and what it could lead to* (IL5:32) in earlier years. The problem was foreseen but the *intensity and impact was not* (IL5:45). It was also alleged that at times organisations today do not *look around and pay attention to the messages all around them* (IL9:44).

In previous years, the union representatives at the Academy raised the matter of outsourcing. At that time *it was only their institution, it was not the type of campaign witnessed in 2015 and early 2016* (U2:13). Had it been addressed at the time, the scale and impact might have been less. The Academy *understood that it needed to comply with legislation regarding equal work equal pay* (IL2:22). However, because *none of these HE institutions had a policy on outsourcing that specifically addressed people issues* (IL5:31) and they viewed outsourcing as a mere service level agreement, the severity of the issue and content was missed. Furthermore, the awareness did not reach a broad spectrum and it was not *a widely acknowledged or known fact* (IL7:14). *Beyond 2-3 executives, this was not on the radar for the broader leadership at the Academy and definitely not at Council* (board) *level* (IL7:24). When the issue of the discontent among contract workers emerged in 2015, senior managers started questioning whether *they were not in touch at all levels* (IL9:12). The feeling was that maybe they lived in an 'Eifel tower'. The organisation strategy *focused mostly on students and research, the core business of the institution* (IL5:44), but this created a gap at a strategic level in understanding matters situated in operational practices such as outsourcing a service. The question therefore revolved around not whether you have the information but rather *what you do with the information* (IL7:83). Furthermore, there was a realisation that an organisation with intelligence in the form of theory and models on the academic side may have a gap in

applying *insights into its own management and operations of the Institutional administration* (IL11:16). A key learning need was to *operationalise internal knowledge* (IL11:75).

One informant expressed the same sentiment through a little fable her grandmother used to tell her about a passenger who told a driver about a horse on the road. The driver eventually knocked over the horse; *I heard you but I thought the horse would move (*IE1:47). In the same vein, management at a certain level thought the issue would just fade away eventually.

There was a perception that "both the approach followed and the choice of topics South African academics have occupied themselves with have not enabled them to anticipate, let alone get to grips with, the burning worker and student issues that have catapulted universities into the #MustFall movements" (Habib, 2016:1).

Social media

In Chapter 3 we noted what Findley (2016) found in terms of the role of social media; the study also demonstrates how social media influences the success of activism. The view was that other than the speed and simplicity of the new technology, the *tactics were not perceived as new* (IL3:16;). *It was just the technology that has been different and that is a powerful communication structure because it is simple* (IL3:11).

Social media *has created a platform to fast track mobilisation* (IE2:46) *and at times through virtual gangs*. When the students united during the #campaigns, there was an interim student grouping created that was at the *forefront of this movement called "#SG1"* (S1:12) that *was very active on Twitter* (S1:7). The platform *incorporated various student structures on campus* (S1:11).

Messages would go out *on social media saying 'we will be marching at this time and*

this location' and appeals made for people to join, so external people would also back up the campaigns and mobilised with the students on various campuses (IL10:14). The view was that much of the collaboration *amongst students was largely facilitated by social media* (IL10:13).

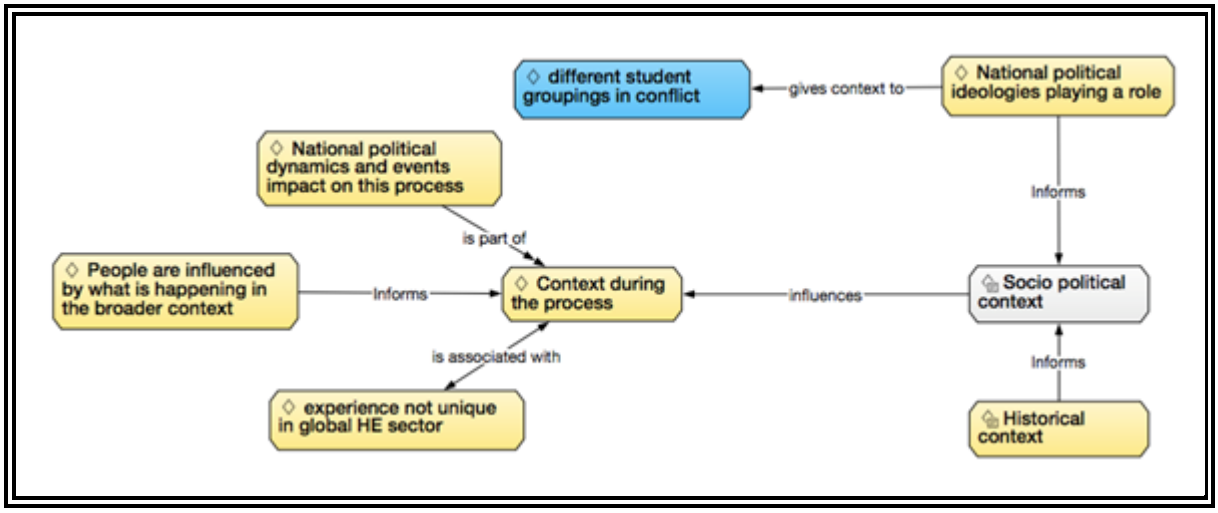
Historical context

Activism was also considered in terms of the historical context. Pre-1994 activism campaigns had mobilisation but at the time *agents were getting on trains with the activists and this was how they came by the organisational information* (IL3:10). A number of informants in this case kept reflecting back on *pre-1994 activism* and the immediate period following the 1994 elections and comparing this period to the events leading up to and informing the case under review (IL3:5). One leader noted how *they have to clean up the mess that has been left by Apartheid* (IL4:23) while a previously contracted employee shared how he likened being outsourced *to slavery or his situation during Apartheid* (C1:16).

This confirms that the historical context that was described in Chapter 3 definitely had an influence on how this case was experienced, and that *issues flowed out of that main revolution- referring to the fight for democracy pre-1994* (IL7:82).

4.3.1.3 A socio political environment with political ideologies

Figure 4.5 : Socio political environment network



The perception was that the issues that informed the #campaigns during 2015/16 could be *linked to a much longer political historical context and noted for example that during the negotiations to end Apartheid, some compromises had to be made by the ANC and it was such compromises that now sat at the heart of the student uprise* (IL11:38).

At the split from the ANC when the EFF was formed, as described in Chapter 3, the leader of the EFF *would always talk about this outsourced labour issue* (C1:18) and it was also noted that when the #OMF campaign began in early 2016, t*he government was initially silent on this (*C1:10). The perception was that *the government were not making good on their promise* (C1:50) in terms of equality and economic inclusion for all.

Political ideology

Chapter 3 established a highly politicised motive behind the #movements and the case study specifically. The view was expressed that *it all started with the big politics in the country* (IL5:3) and that there were strong *political elements in the movement* (IE2:28). Some even experienced the #OMF movement as merely *a vehicle to push political agendas* (IE3:10) and felt that the *conflict between the ANC and the EFF that were playing*

out at a macro level, were taking on an ideological stance at micro level (IE1:28) and the Academy *was not immune to this and had to learn to deal with it at any level* (IE2:30).

During the early days of democracy, COSATU took a strong stand against *outsourcing and its impact* (IL6:4) and in those days *NEDLAC was tasked to look at issues like a living wage for all, security of tenure and these things influenced the #OMF campaign* (IL2:10).

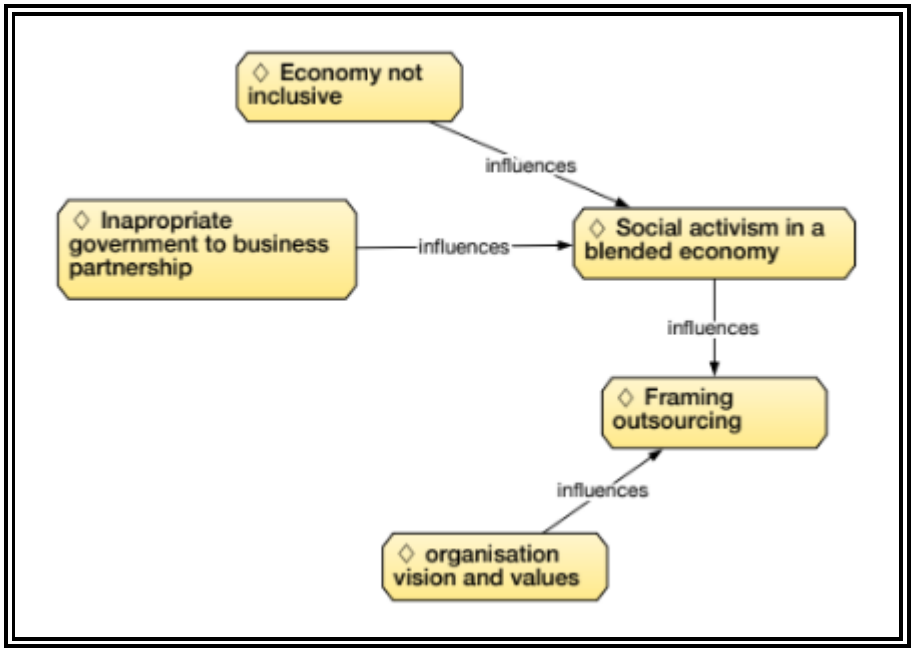
The case study presented *different groups of activists including student bodies that was politically associated* (C1:49) and we noted how *External Union G* mobilising with the students*, were aligned to the EFF* (IL7:29). They used the EFF student body specifically, and *mobilised through them* (IL5:6). It was a time where preparation for local government elections gathered momentum, *and the view was that much of this action was pushed by the EFF* (U2:26) to *gain membership* (IE3:21) as the EFF projects itself as having *a strong socialist ideology* (S1:43).

Factions in the student bodies started appearing following the #FMF campaign and *even though students were united in their fight on the issue of fees, the ANC affiliated student bodies were told by the government representatives to back off while the EFF branch pushed forward* (C1:51). When the #OMF movement gained gravitas at the beginning of 2016, the *EFF were the dominant group leading this (*IL5:47) and suddenly *allot of red shirts popped up* (U1:10)[12].

4.3.1.4 Blended economy and how it shaped the practice of outsourcing

[12] Red shirts refer to the branded clothing of the EFF party.

Figure 4.6 : Blended economy network



That the protests were also about *the missing middle* class confirmed the link to blended economies described in Chapter 3: *It was not only poverty stricken students seen marching (*IL11:37) and it was experienced as being *in principle about perceived social injustices* (U2:19). The contribution of a blended economy within the context was explored at two levels: perceived capitalist motives and social and socio-economic inequality. As the analysis proceeded it became clear that this environmental condition could influence the practice of outsourcing.

Perceived capitalist motives

The historical context of the ANC described in Chapter 3 reflected on the socialist roots of the party but the *perception was that the ANC leaders were among the first to build empires in the country* (U1:20). The view was that being in control as the government meant *money being exchanged between business and politicians and the people on the ground gets impacted* (C1:11) and this was even referred to as *the selling of the people* (C1:21).

The new government saw black empowerment and black representation in government positions on the increase but this was not viewed as total empowerment and fairness. The *lady sitting on a street corner selling tomatoes had no power just because she is black and there were now black women in parliament* (IL4:55).

Social and socio economic inequality

The coding now established a broadening of the theme on the socio political context to include the socio economic context. The decision to insource ultimately rested on *social cohesion and a political reality* (IL5:19).

As described in Chapter 3, although South Africa is a democracy it is challenged with deep levels of inequality. The perception was that *organisations were not confronting, at a personal level, the deep inequalities in the country* (IL9:30). The #OMF campaign was about improving the financial position of contract workers but what drove the battle for insourcing was that it was as much *about the victimisation of people and harassment they experienced* (U2:15). The contract workers felt *they could be done away with at any given time with very little wrongdoing and they felt vulnerable* (IL7:12). One worker stated overtly that *people like them were not taken care of in the industry* (C1:6).

Identifying with these contract workers, the activists also understood that *education was unaffordable also because of these types of employment practices* (U2:17). This synergy also made sense of the link between #FMF and a movement to stop outsourcing practices.

Framing outsourcing in a blended economy

The focus of the change in the case study was on the decision to insource services that were previously outsourced and therefore it made sense to also group specific codes that represented this practice. What was made very clear early on during the research process

was that *the outsourcing matter was an old issue* (IE1:19). The analysis presented three areas of focus: how management viewed the practice of outsourcing; the union voice and their earlier attempts to address the practice; and the approach to in- and outsource at the Academy over the years.

The services in question were part of the organisational model at some point in the past but *insourcing did not work for a variety of reasons and fizzled out because it was just too much logistics to handle* (IL3:53). Furthermore, it did not make *financial sense and it was due to economic reasons* (IL3:54) that this part of the business model was outsourced. In earlier years when the matter came up for discussion the *logic was always that the Academy was not an estate agency or a gardening or security company etcetera so it was better to let these services be performed by the professionals* (IL5:37).

During the years following democracy in the 1990's new legislation was introduced that compelled management to *comply with legislative requirements regarding equal work for equal pay* (IL2:22). However, they focused this only on their own employees without considering the labour legislation against outsourced services' employees. These services were governed through a service level agreement (SLA) and *none of the public HE institutions had a policy on how to deal with people issues within a SLA* (IL5:31).

When the outsourcing matter came to the fore in 2015/16, however, management took a different position on the practice, referring to it as *the narrow idea of what costs and benefits are; for example what the costs are of having campuses shut down and being branded through slogans like 'militarised work spaces'* (IL4:59). Those are long-term effects and therefore their point of view on outsourcing in the past, purely from a cost savings perspective and that the work was not core to the Academy's mission, no longer made complete sense. Management started looking at outsourcing and its effects as *a deeper socio political argument to be made on the practice of outsourcing and felt*

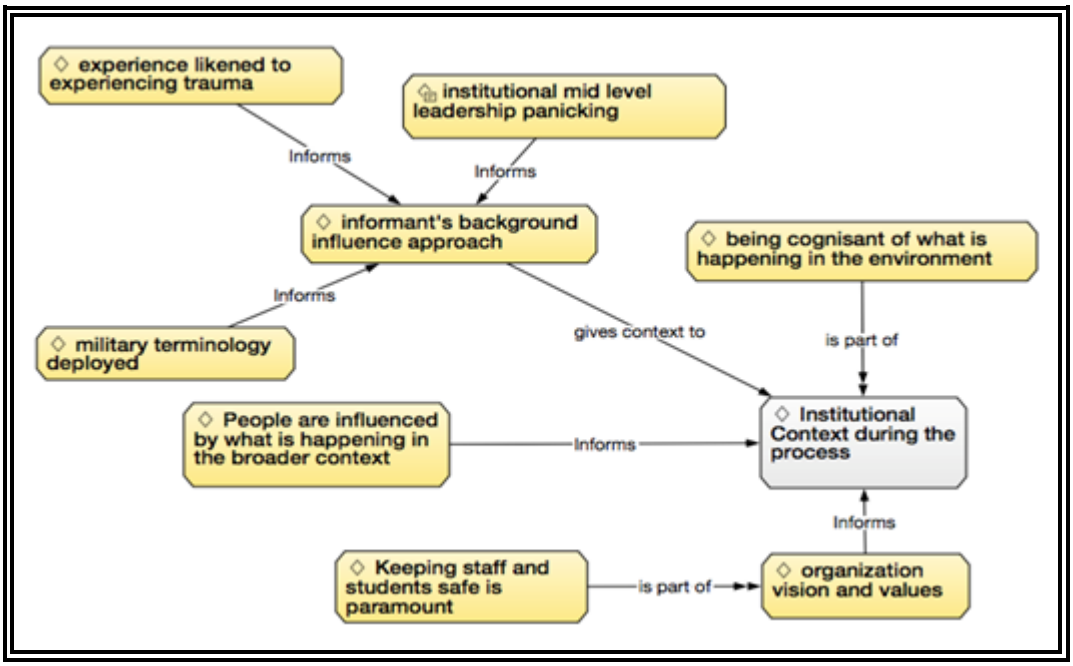
surprised at their own ability to get away with it for such an extended period of time before being confronted with the inequalities that have been taking place (IL9:61).

Not all parties at the Academy supported the outsourcing practice, however. The *socialist influenced argued for agencies (labour brokers) to fall* (IL7:31) long before the 2015/16 activism happened. The different activists that emerged to fight for insourcing during 2015/16 were discussed earlier in this chapter. However, in discussing the nature of power and the demand for change, Chapter 6 describes the types of activism over the 17 years before 2015. The internal unions at the Academy had for many years tried unsuccessfully to raise the issue. During the 1990's and early 2000's, *Vavi (*leader of COSATU) *was very vocal against outsourcing* (U2:63).

An important element noticed in the data analysis was that during the 1990's the process of outsourcing took *months of engagement with all stakeholders* (IL3:57) whereas in 2016 the decision to insource *happened very quickly* (IE3:47).

4.3.1.5 Organisational context- Vision and values

Figure 4.7 : Organisational context network



An analysis of the organisational context, although outward looking, would not be complete without acknowledging how managers at the Academy made sense of the process. This section therefore summarises findings related to the organisational context, focusing on vision and mission and touching on the impact informants' backgrounds had on how they experienced the events and process during 2015/16.

The ongoing violence and mobilisation at other organisations made employees at the case organisation anxious; the *country was burning* (U1:25) and this heightened the urgency and the need for a peaceful resolution.

The management team facilitating the process at the Academy were aware of what was happening within the process and using these cues to their advantage. The *context could shape or have a significant impact on the internal agenda* (IL6:18).

Within this context, there was another dynamic influencing the process facilitation and I considered this through the two lenses of organisational and individual filters. The

organisational filters related to the organisation's vision and values while the background of the informants informed the individual filters.

Organisational filters

Organisational vision and values

The issue here is whether the Academy lives up to the vision and values stated on its public website. On safety as a value it certainly seems to, describing the staff and students as core assets of the organisation. A personal communication I received from the Academy after the 'Union buildings movements' confirms this: *come home it is safe* (IL1:9). The *Vice chancellors in SA did not want the war zone* (IL3:25). The organisation through its efforts and communication lived this value and *assured its stakeholders that safety comes first* (U1:5).

Being evacuated from a building was perceived as *a very visible way of saying 'you are not safe and need to be removed' and it impacted the experience of work for people* (IE2:31). Therefore, a consideration in the management team's decision on insourcing was *whether it was in keeping with the value system* (IL6:7).

Informants also spoke very passionately about the vision of the organisation and how strategies had to be adapted following the decision to insource, but the *vision remained intact* (IL9:14). Therefore, although *the Academy had to be flexible, it remained true to the values and vision* (IL10:34). As much as the decision was made very quickly, management did *workshop on the question of whether this decision will allow the organisation to stay on course with its vision* (IL9:17). In as much as the decision initially appeared forced and the change was unplanned, a realisation emerged of just how aligned the movement was to the organisational identity. It may have appeared that *social cohesion and impact on society was at the opposite pole of the vision of becoming a world class HE institution, but*

it was not. The organisation makes up a community of people and the people were the drivers of the reputation of the organisation (IL9:59).

Individual filters

The exploration revealed that the background of informants informed their approach and attitude towards this process.

While this demonstrated the context, it also highlighted a link to the identity and experience of leaders having to deal with this process. For example, one informant very involved in the facilitation of the process had a military background and he would often reflect on military terminology or tactics during the interview. For another who had a background in communication, that concept came through strongly during the interview. Another informant was negatively impacted by the apartheid legacy and his views reflected this.

***I**mpact of the background of the informant*

The exploration phase in this case study presented a theme on the influence of an informant's background on the process. To some extent their background clouded how they experienced the process. For those involved in facilitating the process, it also influenced their approach to dealing with change.

One informant was irritated by the fear and stress of some of her colleagues during the crisis. Reflecting on her own background during the student uprising in the 1970s in South Africa, she said she had to *learn to duck. 'You can see a stone coming and you know how to duck'* (IL7:59). That experience taught her to deal more calmly in crisis situations such as were experienced in the case.

There was also a perception that the background of Vice Chancelor influenced the approach taken as the VC was more *open to dialogue and had an understanding of social*

ills and injustices of the past (IE3:43). For some leaders it was *a very bad experience when the workers were initially outsourced because they knew them and saw what they were going through personally* (IL9:28). This level of empathy was also reflected by Jensen (2017) describing the new role of leadership in HE institutions.

The initial data analysis therefore demonstrated the nature of the change being driven from a socio political context. The context highlighted the role of activism and identification in a blended economy in explaining how the context influenced change. However, activism and identification on their own could not create the change and therefore the trigger forcing this change appeared to be situated in an external power base.

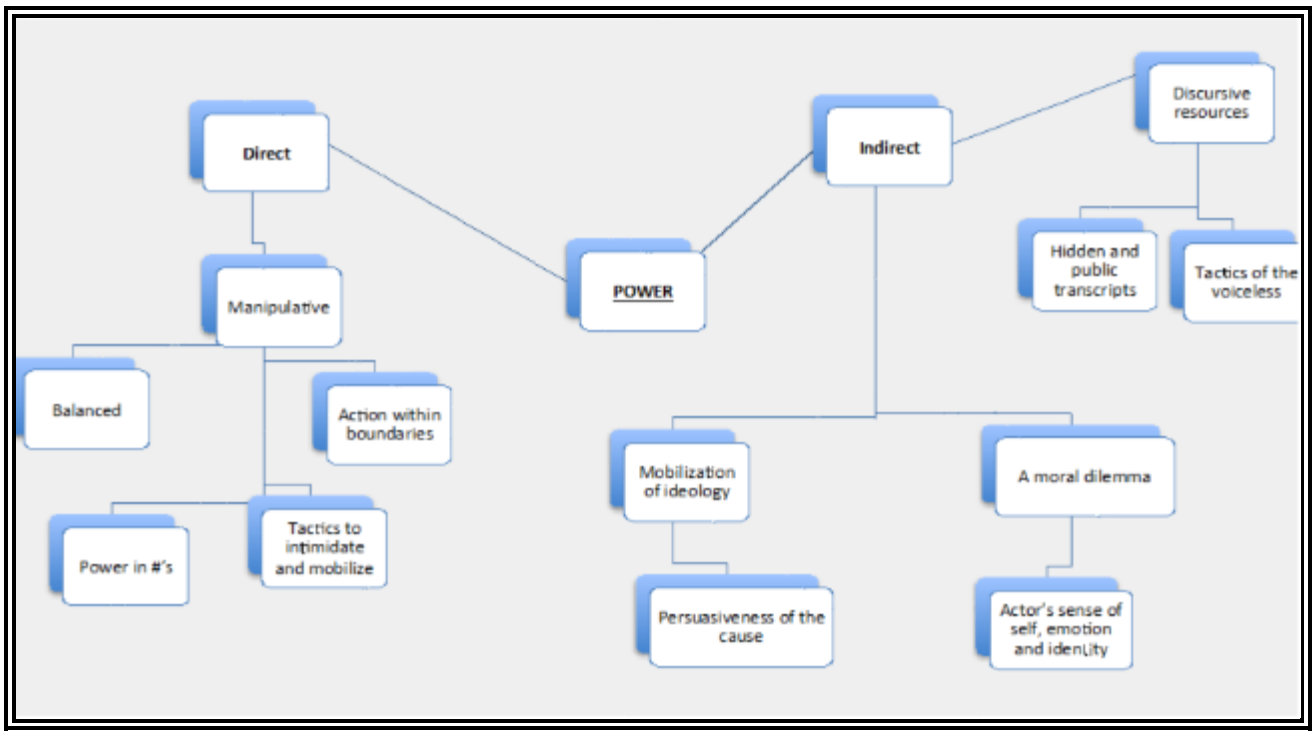
The next section therefore sets out to explore how the power manifested, forcing the organisational change.

4.3.2 Perspective 2: Episodic and systemic nature of force and the demand for change

The decision to insource was *pushed to conclusion by the violent nature of the student protests* (IL7:18) but also *at the heart of this decision sat human dignity* (IE3:18). The study revealed the distinctive nature of internal and external power, which was also expressed as direct and indirect power.

The second research question focused on an exploration of power relationships emerging from this context and how they were presented and deployed at both micro and macro levels. This section therefore presents the initial data and coding related to the power dynamics.

Figure 4.8 : Power network



4.3.2.1 Direct power

When mobilisation in the form of activism was asserted directly against the Academy there was a direct exercise of power that forced management to take certain actions. The force may not necessarily be direct physical power but rather manipulation through the implicit shaping of issues considered important or relevant.

Direct power in this case was exercised through the mobilisation of power in numbers within boundaries and the application of tactics to intimidate and mobilise. The analysis also revealed a balance in the power bases. At the start of 2016 #OMF protest action *came on the radar* and presented a *turn in the campaign to more violence* (U2:9). *It came quickly and with force* (IE3:47).

Manipulative power

Power in numbers

When the students and contract workers came together, for the Academy it was an *absolute innovative, new and unexpected thing that happened and it is what gave the activists the edge over the organisation* (IE1:25). To further gain momentum through power in numbers, the approach was also to *mobilise groups around the campus* (IL1:44). It was believed there were times *when managers were held at ransom simply because of mobilisation* (IL8:1). For example, one of the major movements or tactics was when the students *occupied and shut down the client center* (this is the heart of organisational administration) (S1:25). The mobilisation *forced management to close the institution* (IL9:32).

The manner in which the power in numbers happened was also interesting. Management perceived it at times as *the contractors and students ganging up against the organisation* (IL5:10). The manner in which the movement was united was also not *a typical movement led by one organisation with a well-formulated mandate* (IE3:14). This made it difficult for management to know who to engage with.

The students and contractors *continued on their protests and they stood firm on their demands. They became more vocal and applied more and more pressure on the institutional leadership* (IE1:3).

Action within boundaries

The mobilisation took on a smart tactical approach in that the contract workers did not mobilise directly against the Academy as this could get them into trouble. When the #OMF campaign commenced *all security guards abandoned their posts and chaos erupted* (IE3:28) because the Academy was now vulnerable against protestors. The students already had the platform following the #FMF campaign and that success demonstrated that when the students make a move *it does shake the organisation* (IL2:4).

As described in the section on activism, the protesting group was also smart in that they created a coordinated effort with no one particular protest leader. This complicated the situation for the management team as they did not have one specific leader or small leadership group they could engage with. The protestor's representatives would change throughout the process. Every day after engagement sessions or negotiation meetings the *protesting group would immediately congregate and bring together all stakeholders and they would plot and plan before they go home* (IL11:27). This was not always the case for the management team; in terms of the coordinated effort at the beginning, *the students were much better organised and were holding the reigns* (IL11:26).

Tactics to intimidate and mobilise

The tactics also aimed at intimidation of management with the intent to *bring management to their knees* (U2:41). This could take the form of a *narrative of violence and threats to burn down something to see how far backwards management can bend* (IL3:6). The perception was that *if you push the organisational leadership sufficiently you eventually got what you wanted* (S1:49). The students continued on their mobilisation and *they stood firm on their demands, becoming more vocal and applying more pressure on management (*IE1:3) and they had *the power to destabilise* (IL2:9).

The intimidation was a coordinated effort and very quickly *the students had mobilised forcing management to close the institution* (IL9:32) and in so doing *shut down the organisation* (S1:34). The perception was that management was *pushed into a corner and forced to change* (IL11:71) and had to succumb to *eventually conclude a deal because of the pressure they were under* (IL11:47). It was not part of the strategic plan of the Academy to end outsourcing or in its best interest from a commercial and operational perspective but the *hand of management was forced* (IL7:17) at that point in time.

The engagement style of the protesting activists furthermore contributed towards intimidating management. Before commencing with meetings *loud singing and clapping of hands* (IL1:31) would fill the venue. In a confined space that could be intimidating if you were not used to it. In the context of what was happening in the country with other HE institutions also *burning* and the Academy not used to this type of behavior, *the protesting group also played on the fear amongst staff members and they knew it would influence the decision by management* (U1:22) and *they were very threatening in their conduct* (IL7:38).

The tactic to mobilise was not unique to this case; in media clippings in the public domain it was noted that protesting students and workers shut down multiple HE institutions.

Balancing nature of power

Another dimension that transpired throughout the process was how the balance of power shifted between the management of the Academy and the protesting masses. The mobilisation created a shift in the power base and that *power flipped very quickly to the hands of the so-called powerless* (IE1:23). Traditionally management believed *they hold the power in organisations but then there came a time when the power dynamic shifted* (IL9:24). Some informants experienced this power dynamic very positively and saw it *as an exciting development, uncomfortable at times but the power shift could create opportunity for something new to emerge and that was positive* (IE1:29). However, although it may have appeared that the protestors had the upper hand, at times *the students were scared* (IL1:76) and even the contractors *did not always trust the process and were scared* (C1:39). As we noted in the section on socio political context, as much as the country has evolved through a process of democracy, *people would not always understand that they do have agency and they can make decisions and not have to be victims* (IL5:25). This case demonstrated just how far we still are from the true freedom of

democracy, however. Both sides in the conflict would have power *but it will take on different forms and was never quite equal at the same time* (IL4:14).

Although the power in the hands of the protestors *forced the management team into dialogue (*IL11:21) with protestors, at times management could *decide not to continue with engagement* (U2:32). When the students insisted that they were representing the contract workers and did not want the organisation union representatives in the room, the manager facilitating that meeting refused the demand and insisted that union representatives had the right to be present when employee matters were discussed. If they were excluded, *union representatives could lodge a case against the organisation at the labour court, which the organisation could lose* (U2:34). This decision and level of power forced the protestor representatives to engage to avoid returning to their constituents *with no feedback* (IL7:37).

Despite the flexibility it was essential for management to maintain certain protocols to ensure that no undue precedent was set going forward. As was described in Chapter 3, the South African labour legislation and supporting guidelines guide the governance on employee engagement and the recognition of representation in the form of recognised unions. .In this case, the unions from the organisation were not 'officially' representing the contractors during the 2016 negotiation process however: *as this was an employee related matter, unions with whom the organisation had recognition agreements had to be part of the discussion* (U2:33). Although the contractors at this stage were not yet employees, it was still deemed a *staffing matter and therefore unions could not be excluded* (IL7:35).

The management team realised this and at times would also *give in on small demands to maintain momentum and also have a continuously engaged* group (IL2:24).

Direct power can only last for as long as the activists can sustain the momentum. It did however appear that the tactics of activism are not always sustained and they tended to

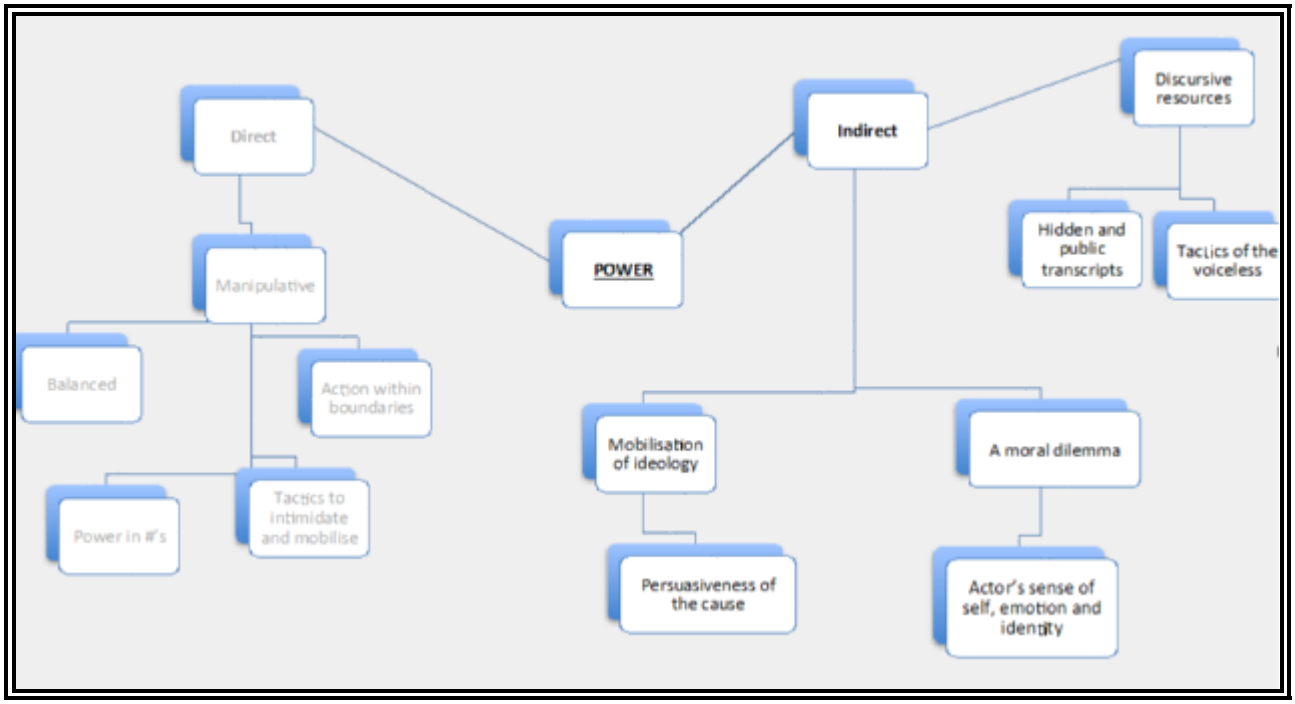
lose momentum. Participants on the hashtag campaigns tended to *lose interest and stopped going to the meetings* (S1:22) and this led to *struggle memory being lost* (S1:55) post January 2016. Writing on behalf of WASP, Trevor Shaku (2016) echoed this sentiment when he reflected on the lessons learnt from #FMF: "F*or example, the handful of SYM and other comrades at the meeting of 11 December 2015, warned that the lack of a program would create a situation where decisions will be made campus by campus. Campuses will begin and cease strikes at will, based on the balance of forces on each campus. This approach defeats the purpose of posing a countrywide united front of students to create sufficient pressure*" (http://workerssocialistparty.co.za/lessons-of-feesmustfall/).

In the case we therefore noted how direct power forced a change in the organisation through power in numbers acting within boundaries and applying tactics to intimidate and mobilise. This power could be fragile, however, as the balancing scale could tip back in favour of management at times. Another level of power was at play in this case, however, in the form of indirect power forcing the change.

4.3.2.2 Indirect power

The peculiarity of the power dimension further lies in the indirect forms of experienced power through mobilisation of ideologies, subjectification and discursive resources (the narrative).

Figure 4.9 : Indirect power



Mobilisation of ideologies

This concept is about the persuasiveness of the cause to mobilise individuals to take action. It would appear that the students and contractors were *not acting completely in isolation and there were bigger influences* (IL10:16). In section 4.3.1.3 we noted the influence of macro politics; the process here was *held at ransom by the EFF because of the matter on insourcing* (S1:30) through the EFF student branch. It was especially because it was so *politically emotive and tense and one of the political parties stated* publically *that they would shut down the entire province and make HE institutions ungovernable* (IL9:47). This form of anarchism had a major influence on the movement especially since we noted the united effort during #FMF whereas later the #OMF campaign was strongly influenced by the EFF political party leaders.

For the contract workers it was about mobilisation for a greater cause towards freedom. Through the students *consciousness were raised and young people were willing to take up*

the fight (C1:46). The students identified in the contract workers the same struggle their parents had to endure and therefore in as much as there was a form of anarchism, a social agenda and a form of liberalist ideology were also experienced. Alongside the rise of capitalism in South Africa there also exists the political interest of the burgeoning middle classes. For one informant, that was what informed his participation as he saw it as *allot more going on even though it had to eventually be reduced to a matter of insourcing* (IL4:51). Commenting on a statement from a senior leader at another higher education institution, one informant noted that *he did it in such inflammatory language where he said that if you do not insource you are like a slave trader, and that made it very difficult for anyone else not to follow suit* (IL5:30).

The indirect power therefore was firstly influenced by political ideologies of anarchism and liberalism but another level of indirect power came through in the form of a moral and ethical dilemma.

A moral dilemma

This case highlighted a manifestation of power through an actor's sense of self, emotions and identity as well as the actors at times becoming the subject of power.

Emotions, identity and sense of self

As has been noted, up to this point the fight for insourcing was not only about money: it also shed light on *the treatment of these contract workers* (IL7:10) and it became a *kind of a moral or ethical dilemma* (IL10:7). One informant noted that she felt *quite tense about what the insourcing would cost the organisation but the day when the contract workers returned to campus she felt absolute jubilation* (IE1:40) and it was clear that they were happy, or rather *ecstatic* (U2:16). On the campus, the employees of the Academy *projected a more negative perception toward executive management for firstly allowing this to happen and then also the manner in which it had to be resolved* (IL11:65).

The actor becomes the subject of power

This power was manifested through the organisational management as well as the contract workers. Management realised that *other HE institutions had already taken the decision to insource and therefore it would be suicide to try and stay out of it* (IL5:56) but at the same time they felt conflicted and experienced it as *unforgivable that they missed it* (IL11:6). 'It' refers here to the discontent of the contract workers. The management felt they had to *take responsibility for something created in other spheres* (IE1:22). These spheres allude to other sectors in the economy where contract workers were employed.

For the contract workers, the period leading up to the movement was a time when they felt vulnerable. The service level agreements the Academy had with the security contracting companies *had expired and were going on a month-by-month basis and therefore the contractors working for these companies were very insecure* (IE3:31). This was therefore the time something needed to change. One informant who was a contract worker declared emotively that the *bosses of private security companies were treating them like trash* (C1:7) and the *industry felt like a jungle* (C1:12). It would therefore make sense that at that moment, when there was an opportunity to bring out their voice through the students, the workers would take that opportunity to become a subject of power and exert their power. The outcome of *insourcing meant* their dignity being restored *(C1:52).* For the so-called powerless contract workers this could be explained through discursive resources.

Discursive resources

According to the Wiley online library (https://www.google.co.za/search?q=discursive+resources+definition&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwjuz4n75ZLXAhUFPBQKHTiIAi0Q1QIIZSgA&biw=1126&bih=653), by framing what participants do in discursive practices as 'resources', the emphasis is on the kind of

repertoire participants employ to achieve their goals in interaction; goals that may include a conscious desire to persuade or resist another participant, or to accept or reject a proposed action. This case presented an exploration of the power dimension through discursive resources of public and hidden transcripts as well as the tactics of the voiceless.

Public and hidden transcripts (term used by Informant)

The reality faced by the contract workers was described as a form of *voicelesness and powerlessness* (C1:44). Working at the Academy, these contractors did not feel they had formal representation. Their employer was not the same person they reported to or dealt with on site on a daily basis. *They had their own representative unions in their employment sector but those unions did not mobilise* (IL2:15). If they were to express discontent about their working conditions or conditions of service, *they could be branded a trouble maker if they raised it to their supervisors at this Academy* (IE1:44). The contractors therefore had to suppress their voice of discontent for a long time, *in a system in which they felt oppressed (*IL9:33). Although the Academy had labour unions, these were not entirely positioned to represent contractors formally. Furthermore, there were other more pressing and urgent priorities for the union representatives.

Management at the Academy did not prioritise personnel issues experienced by contractors. These workers were *missed because they were not viewed as workers but were seen in the light of a service level agreement* (SLA) *(*IL2:23). There were no processes for the contractors to follow at the Academy and *they were scared* (U2:47).

The degree to which this voicelessness was embedded was apparent to me in the anxiety with which new employees received their new contracts of employment following the insourcing decision. The smiling expression when the attention was on them turned to a frown and a look of concern when attention moved away from them. A group of security guards gathered at one of the entrances to receive their contracts from HR staff appeared

to be happy, but I sensed a level of anxiety. In an interview with a contract worker, I explored what I had observed and my suspicion was confirmed. After such a long period of powerlessness and feeling voiceless, just 'winning the battle to outsourcing' did not imply that the employees immediately felt safe and 'a part of'. During the observation, one employee (a contractor) noted to me that he *first want to read through it in his time*. His exact words were that '*we are from the jungle, so bear with us. Psychologically, we need to "de-colonise" the mind. It has to do with education. We've been hurt-pounced on in the jungle- so we are always waiting for that pouncing. Education is important but also bear with us from a psychological perspective'* (C1:23). Those words stayed with me. To me, they emphasised the level of hurt and anxiety still experienced by the workers, despite their victory.

In his book entitled 'weapons of the weak', Scott (1985) introduces his reader to the concepts of public and hidden transcripts. This idea came through in the case (quoted by an Informant) as it pertained to the contract workers, in this case referred to as the 'voiceless'.

The data started presenting clues on tactics the so-called powerless would deploy to enact their own form of power or to resist the strategies of the powerful. It was about tactical responsiveness: building tactics slowly until the strategy was ready for launching. One of the leaders reflected on this and summarised it when he shared that *it was in those moments, the little gaps, the lapses in concentration, in the little remote village that no one cares about, the people who look too stupid to bother with. It is in those spaces that tactics find their voice* (IL4:11). For the powerless this was a crucial weapon because *tactics that disrupt 'business as usual' capture the attention of the world and are crucial for change* (Moodley and Shabodien, 2016). This was described as *public and hidden transcripts* (IL4:9), and to understand the transcripts you have to explore below the surface. This was

not a new issue and although the contractors were seen as *part of the team they never brought up their discontent with the permanent employees* (IE1:43) but *contractors had to apply other tactics to survive* (IL4:46). The contractors *felt stuck and had to endure their fate* (C1:30). Therefore, for a long time the contractors had the hidden transcript of discontent and this case demonstrated how the hidden transcript was made public at the right time. For a long period the Academy had major shifts, as was described in Chapter 3, *and the management tend to give less credit to those that are insidious, like the shift in demographic* and its link to outsourcing *(*IL5:61).

Management at the Academy were not totally unaware of the hidden transcript, however. Some managers acknowledged that *they should have acknowledged when people were feeling what the contract workers were feeling* (IL7:53). The management team *failed to recognise that the social challenges could play out in their spaces and not just in the rural areas* (IL11:36). Management acknowledged that to some degree the *fate of the contractors and their unhappiness was not a surprise* (IE3:48) but *when it is about a bigger issue, one that touches the collective extending to the community, the structures did not allow the voice to emerge* (IE1:46). The discontent of the contract workers was never resolved but not listening to the voices does not necessarily imply *that the voice of discontent was going to go away* (IL7:43). Through a very tough experience the organisation learnt that *to listen or be aware of your dissenting voice in any organisation is extremely important* (IL3:29).

Comparing the #OMF campaign to the protest action experienced in the platinum sector during 2012, Nicolson (2016) alluded to this hidden transcript. *Earlier in the year (2015) the small activist group (referring to the WASP) had been speaking to outsourced workers who have long complained about their pay and conditions. But when the xenophobic attacks started in South Africa early in 2015, they turned their attention to*

*confronting that scourge (*Nicolson, 2016). This demonstrated again that the hidden transcript was there, but prioritising other matters meant it was left unresolved again.

Tactics of the voiceless

The vulnerable and voiceless contractors had to apply tactics, firstly to survive for the years they felt oppressed, then to be tactically responsive and finally to seize the moment when they had the voice through the students.

For a contractor the issue was job security and survival in a tough economic context and therefore *if you needed a job as well as wanted to get ahead, obviously you would comply* (C1:15). The contractors had to be *clever in working with the system and so doing* could survive (C1:17). They merely perceived it as *a choice between their interest and whether they were willing to be without a job* (C1:26).

As Scott (1995) said, the weapons of the weak are not the same as those of the perceived powerful; what matters for *the weak and or powerless is not strategy* (IL4:4). The weak do not *have time to design strategy and yet in times like these they will win because they are more flexible than the big strategy* (IL4:5). *Tactical responsiveness was much more important than strategy in some situations* (IL4:6) and, as noted earlier, the flexibility of the activists trumped the strategic strength and structured ways of the organisation. Earlier in this section it was noted that the tactics of the activists included how they would 're-group' and plan for the next day after every evening of negotiations. This was something the organisation was not equally good at. In the words of one informant, *small tactics build slowly and it is in the moments, the little gaps, the lapses in concentration, in the little remote village that no one cares about, the people who look too stupid to bother with, when tactics find their voice* (IL4:11), as was mentioned previously. In this case, the 'little remove village' represents the institution that treated the voiceless

contract workers as ‘people who look too stupid to bother with’, but who were able to ‘find their voice’ through the students and the #campaigns.

A final tactic applied by the contractors was seizing the moment as presented through the #campaigns. It was *not the in house union representative voices that management heard but rather the voice of the students were heard on this matter* (IE1:18). The contractors felt that *the organisation was listening to the students* (IL7:27).

In conclusion, power manifested itself, leading to conflict and a forced shut-down of the Academy. The protestors had power in numbers and applied tactics, which enabled the voiceless contractors in January 2016 to make the hidden transcript of discontent public. The tactics deployed were intimidating and sufficient to bring about change in the organisation.

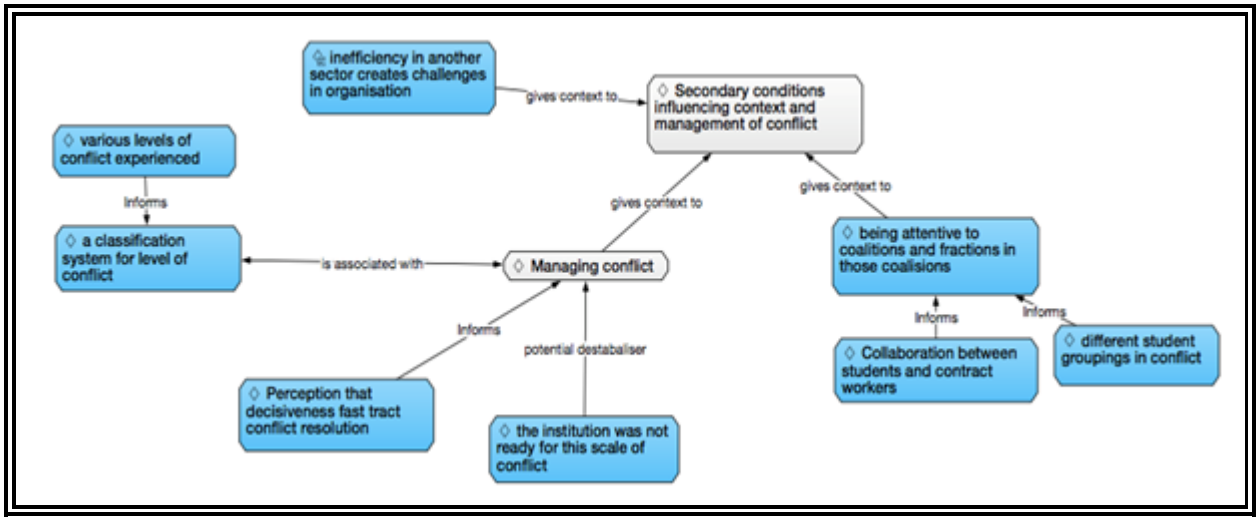
In addition to the balancing of power experienced between managers and protestors, the management team also experienced indirect macro pressure. Making the power dimension even more complex was a source of indirect power experienced through the mobilisation of ideology, subjectification and the deployment of discursive resources.

Having analysed the data against the two primary research questions, the analysis now turns to a secondary perspective: outlining codes influencing but not directly linked to the two objectives of the research.

4.3.3 Perspective 3: Secondary conditions influencing the context and the management of the conflict

The third perspective provided more depth and richness in understanding the contextual dynamics of the case as well as drawing attention to how management made sense of the conflict and dealt with it. It also provided a full account of the impact of this decision for the Academy.

Figure 4.10 : Secondary perspective network



4.3.3.1 Conflict management

Through mobilisation, the protestors created a situation of conflict with management that was the start of the process towards change. As a code family, the data presented three facets of this conflict: it highlighted how management understood and managed the conflict through the creation of a common language to classify conflict; it explored the management's organisational unpreparedness; it reveals the management conviction that decisiveness was key. Managers also drew on key stakeholders to enable an effective facilitation process.

A new common language - creating a classification system

Dealing with conflict, the organisation found that by classifying the level of conflict, they could facilitate its speedier and more streamlined management: A *system to classify the type and level of conflict experienced* (IL1:2) was therefore introduced. It became understood among those involved in dealing with this situation that level *one being the least extreme and level five the most severe level of conflict* (IL1:3).

Thus, by quickly assessing the conflict as level one, it was understood that it was not severe and merely a *peaceful demonstration* (IL1:6). There was an understanding of the

capacity and appropriateness of dealing with the conflict and therefore, for example, when a level five conflict was assessed, it would imply a decision would be taken to *handover the organisation to the authorities* (IL1:25) as the *campus would be locked down* (IL1:104). During the process leading up to the change in the organisation, various levels of conflict were experienced at different times.

Unpreparedness of the organisation

Attempts to manage the various levels of conflict experienced during the process revealed the degree of organisational readiness to deal with the risk of mobilisation against the organisation. Questions around the classification of the types of conflict and how to deal with them, as well as agility to manage evacuations, came to the fore as the data collection and analysis progressed. As noted in Chapter 3, the organisation was totally *caught off guard* (IL5:59) when the #OMF campaign hit them in January 2016. Management and the organisation as a whole experienced this as *unexpected and was not accustomed to this* (IL10:1) and it was viewed as a *great shock to see how unprepared the organisation was* (IL11:32).

Chapter 3 presented an overview of the character and history of the Academy. The idea of activists storming into buildings *making demands and being threatening, goes against the very structured nature and very traditional character of the organisation* (IE2:25) and demanded change quickly in an environment not *known to change in this way* (IE2:24).

As much as the content on insourcing was tabled at the end of 2015 and demanded on other campuses, it was not *anticipated at the Academy and people were caught by surprise* (IE2:13). When the mobilisation came in 2016 and security guards left their posts and left the campus vulnerable to attack, the organisation *had no plan* (IL11:2).

Decisiveness was key

Management at the Academy was under pressure to resolve the conflict and bring back calm and order. As mentioned earlier, the timing was crucial as it was only days before new students were arriving for registration and management wanted the situation resolved before then. As articulated in the section on indirect power, this *was not an easy decision and managers weighed up the various positions and potential consequences either way* (IE2:39) but at the end it was *a fast decision* (IL5:34). It was driven *by fear and drove them to radical decision making (*IL11:72) and they *believed decisiveness was key (IL3:23)* and this influenced the management of conflict.

This was echoed at the time in an article in the media where a leader from another HE institution noted that "negotiations are as much a reflection of the dynamics of societal or institutional power, and this needs to be understood, managed and even choreographed. This is why the students asked for negotiations only when the option of institutional shutdown had been effectively closed off through the deployment of police and private security and the resumption of the academic program" (Habib, 2016:3).

The perception was that the level of anxiety experienced contributed to the leaders *being anxious to get an agreement signed and get the situation over with and resolved* (IE1:51). Again we note how this went against the organisational character because *normally these things would take time, there would be many meetings and no rush* (IE3:16).

The Academy therefore dealt with the conflict through a common language, being decisive and acting quickly. Another element came to the fore during the data analysis: at times there was collaboration and at other times competition among the various stakeholders, which had a secondary influence on how conflict was managed.

4.3.3.2 Understanding collaborative relations and stakeholders

It was important to understand collaboration between the various stakeholders, how the management team perceived these relationships and how coalitions formed and then crumbled. Furthermore, inefficiency in another sector (for example policing) essentially created the impact for the Academy (violence) or inefficiency by the service companies to manage their people issues created the discontent against management at the academy and therefore demonstrated the organisational field the Academy was operating in.

Writing in the media, Professor Habib (2016) noted that "the students, through their protests and #(hashtag) campaigns during 2015/16, put affordable, quality higher education and the insourcing of vulnerable workers on the national agenda in a way that has not happened before (page 3)." The protesting students collaborated with the contract workers, *adding the issue of insourcing to their list of demands* (U2:6) and this also strengthened their ability to mobilise. Everyone *was acting in a collective manner* (IL5:27). For the Academy, as noted in Chapter 3, there was governance and protocols; this situation was not the norm: *this type of collaboration and mobilisation toward a united cause has never happened here* (IE1:15). Something *very special and unique happened when the students and the outsourced employees started working together* (IE1:14). The #OMF campaign *became part of the #FMF agenda* (C1:20) when the students realised they can *talk on behalf of contractors* (C1:27) and *take on their struggle* (C1:29).

The #campaigns were driven by *different groups of students* (C1:47). While managing the conflict, management was attentive to coalitions and more importantly to *factions appearing in those coalitions* (IL1:12). This attentiveness to coalitions was critical because *it could work, to some extent, to the advantage of the organisation; for example when fractions started emerging, but that only happened later* (IL11:44). A senior manager at the Academy was quoted in the public media (News 24) saying that *this was not a united*

movement, referring to the #OMF campaign (IL6). The SRC was there as the official structure *but the leaders from the political party branches were also pushing their own agendas and this was exacerbated by the fact that leadership issues existed within the SRC structure and that confusion benefit others* (IE3:26). There was an interesting tension among the protesting students as *some members of the Student Representative Council (SRC) aligned very strong and visibly with the student voices while there were others who seemed a bit more stressed about the demands and almost aligned a bit more with management perspective on the issues* (IE1:26). Although at times temporary, these factions would give management an opportunity to respond while the activists were *losing momentum* and subsequently power (IL11:45).

It appeared that the *competition was more between political groupings on campus* (IL10:15). The issue of outsourcing *started dividing the central committee* (S1:32) and in an email, the *Central planning committee distanced themselves from the action* during mobilisation at the beginning of January 2016 when mobilisation took a more intense and violent turn. Competition between the different groups of activists meant that *everyone wanted to claim the victory regarding who achieved success for the contract workers* (IE3:25). Reflecting on what happened at his campus, Professor Habib also commented on this observation, saying that "the movement became more factionalised" (2016:3).

In the section describing the socio political context, I commented on how national political ideologies had a role during this process. Reading in the public domain while collecting and analysing data, I came across an article in which Professor Habib (2016) said that "one striking feature of the 2015 student protests is that they were organised beyond party and ideological divides". This quote made me pause and reflect on the ideas relating to collaboration and factions observed. As noted in Chapter 3, there was a unity in the country across all lines when the students took to the Union Buildings to protest

against student fees. However, in later writings Professor Habib also acknowledged the divide that emerged later as the protestors returned to their various campuses. “Yet this united student movement fractured soon after President Jacob Zuma announced the zero percent fee increase for 2016” (Habib, 2016). This was also noted at the Academy. *The protesting students were agreeing on some things and disagreeing on others* (IL7:48).

Sector level collaboration was also evident through the formation of a *higher education commission on insourcing* (IL1:19) but, as noted earlier, the pressure for management to make the decision on insourcing was raised by another HE institution *taking the decision and that is where the conflict and pressure was exacerbated (*IL6:5). However, a level of *competitiveness within the sector* was also noted; the perception was that *the only group that was not acting as a collective was the leadership from HE* (IL5:28).

Therefore, although there was collaboration in the HE sector, the competitiveness among institutions also became apparent.

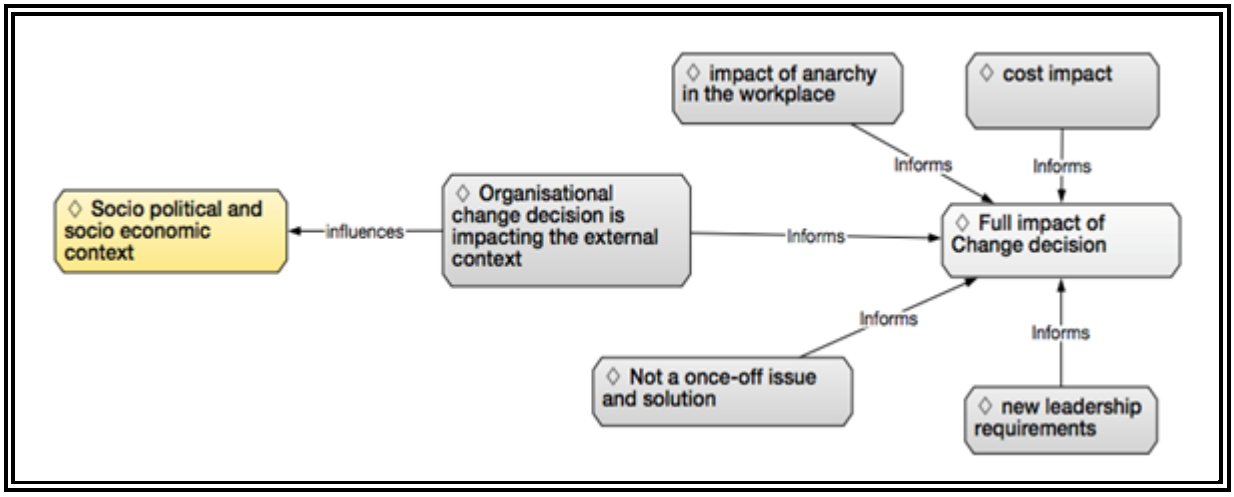
The value chain across sectors was found to impact the situation as well. Management found it necessary to contract protection services companies because the local police service was experienced as inefficient. The level of violence experienced and the need to protect students, staff and property now meant that HE institutions were *doing a job that was beyond the mandate of the organisation* (IL11:43). There was therefore something about partnerships in the value chain that needed to be considered in this code group.

In conclusion, collaboration between various activists, including the students and contract workers, enabled mobilisation. By the start of 2016 #OMF appeared on the radar and with it an escalation of violence in the campaign. Being attentive to the coalitions and factions enabled the management team to deal with the conflicting situation. The political ideologies played out at a micro level in the case and subsequently led to conflict between the students, which reduced the strength of the initial coalition.

At sector level, coalition was not experienced as enabling but may actually have created more pressure on the organisation to change. Lastly, the value chain came under the spotlight. When one industry partner (police services in this case) did not deliver services adequately, it placed pressure on the organisation to do things not usually part of their business model, in this case the provision of security services.

4.3.3.3 The full impact of the change- decision to insource

Figure 4.11 : Change impact network



The very obvious changes in the organisation that were reported on in the public domain dealt mostly with changes in organisation structure and the cost impact. It was only during the data collection and analysis phase that these preoccupations expanded to include the much greater impact on the organisation systemically and humanistically. There was a sense among the informants that at the point of taking the decision there was an appreciation of the impact but without a full realisation of what that decision would cost at the end: *those things were not considered* (U1:14). A decision was made and then the organisation *had to figure it out along the way (*IL11:74).

Some of the change impacts were only truly understood post the decision. When planning for implementation began, *dealing with the reality of what the agreement entailed was very stressful* (IE1:8).

During the orientation session I saw how the full impact of the decision was not anticipated. Observing an event when HR employees were handing out employee contracts to insourced security guards as well as when listening to questions during an orientation session, I reflected on the readiness of the Human Resources team for this change, for example in terms of shift systems; different conditions of employment; how performance was managed; they also did not anticipate how signed contracts would be returned (O2).

The perception was that the process had *rocked the being of the organisation and what was needed was for management to step back and re-think how things work* (IL11:69).

On the positive side there was a realisation of the impact of the decision on the *lives of the contract workers* (IE1:41).

Although it was obvious afterwards that *plans and strategies had to be revisited* (IE1:11), the organisation nevertheless remained firm on the vision noted in an earlier finding. However, the insourcing costs implied *spending money on auxiliary services, which should have been utilised to advance the academic mandate* (IL5:14). Therefore, operational plans and strategies had to be revised.

Impact on costs and organisation structures

The cost to transition an outsourced service to full time employees was understood at the very early stages of the process but the informants also escalated those costs, adding others that were not part of the initial consideration. It was not just the published *employment costs but it had a major impact on operational costs* (IL5:18) and also *included unaccounted for costs, for example when the regular infrastructure or communication was not sufficient, considering the costs of sending an sms* (IE2:48). Most of these contract workers had not had benefits with their organisation such as those for Uptown Academy staff. The insourcing deal was therefore costly as *harmonisation of*

benefits and the costs associated with that also had to be considered (IL2:18). The servicesincluded spending of money on *auxiliary services, which could have been utilised to advance the academic mandate* (IL5:14). Financial and budget cuts needed to be made *and obviously had a knock on effect on operations and teaching and research* (IL11:68).

The #campaigns and their impact on HE raised *fundamental questions about the fitness for purpose of the governance model* (IL4:38) and the sustainable affordability of the way it was being managed.

Impact of anarchy

The diverse nature of stakeholders involved in this process and the speed with which a decision was reached introduced a level of what one informant referred to as *anarchy in the workplace* (IL2:29). External unions trying to gain a foothold in the organisation would try and influence the "voiceless" contractors. This led to *the proliferation of new unions at the expense of the existing unions and those existing unions risked losing membership. That then could create anarchy (rebellion) in the workplace* (IL2:29). External union representatives *came afterwards and told management they now have a number of employees on their membership and therefore they want the organisation to recognise them* (IL7:33). This brought more unwarranted stress into the situation as these unions *were not legally authorised to represent* the employees (C1:33).

During the research process I spent time on the main campus of Uptown Academy. One day there was a staff protest on the west end of the campus close to the building where I was based. There was much noisy action as the protestors sang while protesting. I could sense the tension among staff members down the corridor in the building and also observed the stress the security personnel were experiencing. Later that afternoon I walked to the opposite end of the campus to conduct an interview and noticed how

different the campus felt there. It was as if you were in a different world. There was no stress and most of the personnel I encountered were not even aware of the protest action taking place elsewhere on the campus.

This observation was reinforced during the interviews as some of the informants reflected on how only a small group of people had to deal with the situation. They felt that *there was no camaraderie between all employees and a sense of 'we were all in this together'* (IE2:37). This perception introduced an extension of the theme of anarchy even among the employees of the organisation. There was also the perception that the students placed staff under pressure during mobilisation by protesting and disrupting classes and that this *impacted the relationship between student and teacher negatively* (IL5:67). This impacted the *morale in the organisation* (IE2:58) and called for *transformation, more importantly transformation of the mind and attitudes (*IE3:40).

This theme was echoed in other HE organisational experiences during this time. The idea of anarchy also resonated with Professor Habib (2016) at WITS when he noted that "first, there was a shocking level of casualness about violence among some members of staff. Not only were many silent about the abuse of the rights of other non-protesting students, but some even had the temerity to articulate views that suggested that violence may be a necessary protest strategy in certain institutional contexts" *(*Habib, 2016:3).

Impact on *leadership requirements*

Another organisational impact was that of leadership requirements. While attending an orientation session as an observer, I met leaders who previously had a narrow span of control and mostly focused on *managing service level agreements (SLAs), now having to lead large teams reporting into them, which required a different skill set (*U1:15).

Furthermore, earlier we noted the impact of social media. This was *not necessarily something the leadership at the organisation was always comfortable with but*

management was suddenly very keen to know what was being said on social media and it was not the case before (IE2:9).

The external environment at national level and the *scale of this situation further asked of the HE leadership to become more innovative and re-think the way in which they steer their organisations* (IL9:13). The volatility of the *national and even international socio political context required new skills in negotiation and mediation* (IL11:76).

Impact of the decision back into the external context

Another observation on the impact was that there appeared to be a knock-on effect back into the environment or context. With many of the industries in SA regulating the bargaining process at a national level, the high basic salaries agreed for the newly insourced workers *could create havoc in the next round of bargaining wage and conditions of service* (IL5:52). Security staff *elsewhere could now also demand the same thing* (U1:19). It became a national issue in that *Cosatu as the biggest federation brought the wage up for discussion and this created a stand off between the unions and the private sector with regard to what the national wage will be* (IL6:12).

The impact of the decision to insource contract workers, included

- organisational structure changes
- an understanding that the full impact was initially under estimated
- organisational readiness related to HR systems and processes
- a review of operational and strategic plans
- financial impact on employee costs but extended to other operational costs
- anarchy experienced in the workplace
- new leadership requirements
- potentially a knock-on effect back into the macro context.

Management further believed that Uptown Academy *still had a long way to go* (IL1:88). The process to implement the decision was *long and complicated* (U2:11) and uncertainty continued as *these kinds of eruptions may flare up again in the future* (IL11:49).

This section presented the secondary conditions influencing the context as well as the management of conflict and mapped out an understanding of collaboration and collaborative relations among stakeholders. Finally, it also unpacked the full impact of the change decision.

4.4 THE NOMOLOGICAL NETWORK

Cronbach and Meehl introduced the idea of the nomological network in the field of psychological assessment (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). 'Nomological' is derived from Greek meaning 'lawful' and thus the network in a sense presents a lawful framework that could inform validity. In qualitative research Guba and Lincoln (1982) suggest the term '*transferability*'. This is achieved through the use of multiple sources of evidence, establishing a chain of evidence and having key informants review drafts of the writing during data collection, analysis and composition. The table below summarises the data structure that emerged from the process of initial coding and then creating connections between the parts to prepare for axial coding.

Table 4.1 : Overview of data structure

2nd order Focused Codes	Initial Concepts		Overarching Categories
*A non-official stakeholder could disrupt the process	Types of activism	Activism and intelligence to mobilise	How the macro context created conditions for unplanned change
* Professional activism			
*Strong activism impact	Tactical responsiveness		
*Activists knows where and when to target	Operationalising intelligence		
*Social media fast track activism, even through virtual gangs.	Mechanisms		
*Intelligence not being operationalised	The Eifel tower complex		
*National political ideologies playing a role	Political ideology and perceived government	Historically informed socio-political environment with political ideologies	
*Context during the process	Organisational context		
* Gentle oxen			
*People are influenced by a broader context	Historical context		
*Historical context	Institutionalised practices		
*Economy not inclusive	Perceived capitalist motives	A blended economy shapes practices of outsourcing	
*Social activism in a blended economy under a metaphorical banner	Social and socio economic inequality		
* Socially minded citizen			
*Framing outsourcing	Framing outsourcing in a blended economy		
*The missing middle			
*Being cognisant of what is happening in environment	Org. vision and values	The organisational context	
*Keeping staff and students safe is paramount	Impact of background of informant		
*Informants' background influence approach			
*Assigning a stereotype to the root of the issue	Profile change	Identification	
*Protestors identifying with the voiceless	Political affiliation		
*Balancing nature of power	Manipulative power	Direct power	Episodic and systemic nature of power and demand for change
*Tactics to intimidate management	Power in numbers		
*Tactics to mobilise for action and impact to intimidate	Action within boundaries		
	Intimidation tactics		
	Balancing nature of power		
*Tactics of the voiceless	Mobilisation of ideologies	Indirect power	
*Hidden and public transcript	Present but not engaged		
*Powerless and voiceless contractors	Disenfranchised worker		
*Being attentive to coalitions and factions	Coopetition	Conflict management	Secondary conditions influencing the context and management of conflict
*Collaboration between students and workers			
*Perception that decisiveness fast track conflict resolution			
*The institution was not ready for this scale of conflict	Caught off guard		
*Various levels of conflict experienced		Collaboration	
*Different student groupings in conflict	Claiming the victory		

4.5 CONCLUSION

Open coding represents the first step towards breaking down and conceptualising the data. This chapter presented the raw data interpreted through initial code categories in an attempt to give the reader a deep sense of what was happening in the process and how I started questioning what emerged and establishing some level of relationships between the data groups.

What emerged during this level of data analysis and concluded in the nomological structure were the following themes and categories in the context of organisational change: activism, the framing of organisational practices, institutional logics, power, and the influencing role of social identification. The next chapter presents an overview of the prevailing literature as it relates to these themes and to the initial findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5

THEORETICAL LENS

THIS CHAPTER PRESENTS A HOLISTIC LITERATURE VIEW OF CHANGE THEORY AS IT RELATES TO THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND THE THEMES CONSTRUCTED

CHAPTER 5 : THE THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF UNPLANNED CHANGE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary interest of this study lies in contributing to the field of organisational change. Unplanned change and the unintended consequences of change have been acknowledged in the literature. In an attempt to build on this knowledge, the key focus of this research was to explain the interplay between context and external power dynamics leading to unplanned forced change in an organisation. It is usual for a literature review to precede a description of the research. However, aligned to the Grounded theory method, I only turned to the extant literature after theoretical categories started emerging and before finalising my findings. Chapter 4 concluded with a summary of the concepts and categories emerging from the data. A comprehensive literature review of these concepts follows in this chapter.

Although the unit of analysis of the study was the process leading up to the decision to change, this study explored the interplay at three levels between the organisation and the macro environment it operates in and therefore the theory of institutional logics was reviewed to assist in making sense of this interplay. Thereafter, the key concepts related to activism (social movement theory) and power leads the exploration toward literature on these topics as it relates to organisational change.

Institutional logics theory considers the role of identity within the construction and interpretation of the logics. Framing, which relates to how you think about something and articulate that thinking, as well as identification at a social level, were prominent in the research findings. It was not so much about what the identity was or how it was created, but rather how the discourses of identity were used as a mechanism in the unplanned change phenomena. Since discourses are inherently social, identity at the level of the

social was considered and therefore identity and framing were incorporated into the literature review of institutional logics.

This chapter therefore aims to provide an anchor to the reader to demonstrate how the contributing grounded theory refines, extends, challenges and supersedes extant concepts (Charmaz, 2006), as it will be discussed in Chapter 6. Chapter 6 will present the findings of this study while Chapter 7 will present the contribution.

5.2 CHANGE THEORY AS IT RELATES TO UNPLANNED CHANGE

The original curiosity for this project arose from concern about how to deal with and facilitate an instance of unplanned change especially when it is forced upon an organisation from an external macro context in a dramatic and powerful manner. The literature overview therefore starts with what is known about unplanned change theory and its ability to answer this question.

5.2.1 The organisational change landscape

Change is omnipotent and omnipresent irrespective of the nature of the organisation (du Gay & Vikkelsø, 2012; Whelan-Berry & Somerville, 2010). It is viewed as a necessary condition for the survival of all organisations (Klarner & Raisch, 2012). In the words of Robert Chia, "the essence of life is its continuously changing character" (Chia, 2014, p. 253).

The original interpretation of the Lewinian three-stage model of change was useful in many respects, but criticised for obscuring the uncertainty of emerging organisational phenomena (Lord, Dinh, Hoffman, & Burke, 2015; MacKay Bradley & Chia, 2013), not dealing with the tempo of change (Weick & Quinn, 1999) and not keeping up with paradigms of organisation (Van Tonder, 2004). The increasing turbulence, volatility, complexity and uncertainty of the environment demanded improved readiness and responses (Higgs & Rowland, 2005).

Developments in the field gave rise to newer approaches to organisational change and these took into account complexity theory (Styrhe, 2002), which emphasised the process of change, included ideas on improvisation (Purser, 2005) and continuous change (Olikowski, 1996; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997) and gave rise to multi-disciplinary theories and models on organisational change (Caldwell, 2005), paying attention to the non-linearity of the process (Shaw, 2002). Complexity theory has advanced the understanding of how change happens through the positioning of non-linear dynamics (Brown, 2012). Complexity conveys rich, dynamic, evolving interactions of interactions (Cilliers, 2007) that may generate emergence in a system (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009; Snowden & Boone, 2007). The complexity theory perspective also addresses the misconception that the original change theory of Lewin is phased and incompatible with complexity. Burnes (2004) analysed Lewin's (1947, 1951) assumptions and philosophy of change along four elements that comprised planned change, namely, field theory, group dynamics, action research and the 3-Step model. He demonstrated alignment between the four elements and three issues important to complexity theory, namely, (i) democracy and power equalisation; (ii) a third kind of change between incremental and radical change (one that is continuous and caters for self-organisation) and (iii) order generating rules. Burnes (2004) demonstrated that Lewin's approach to change had more common ground with complexity theory than was previously understood.

Unfortunately, the shortage of empirical studies threatened to see complexity theory remaining as abstract, with limited empirical backing (du Gay and Vikkelsø, 2012). Furthermore, most of the few empirical studies that have been done still only focused on the unplanned instances of planned change that was in progress. In these cases, the organisation was on a change trajectory when unintended consequences obliged it to improvise. Appeals are still made for greater understanding of the mechanisms and how

they emerge to create change, especially unplanned change (Langley, et al., 2013; Tsoukas & Chia, 2002).

The assumptions about change posited by Lewin remained relevant in the predominant change literature, however, and could be summarised as follows:

- change is linear – movement was from one state to another in a forward direction through time;
- change is progressive – movement was from a lesser to a progressive state;
- change is goal oriented – movement was toward an end-state;
- movement to change requires disequilibrium;
- change requires separateness – movement was planned and managed by people apart from the system (Purser, 2005; Robertson et al., 1993).

In their review of existing change management models, Pryor et al. (2008) concluded that these were still relevant but lacked the ability to deal with the speed of change. Veldsman (in Glensor, 2010) reported on the prevailing change management practices in South African organisations and confirmed the predominance of these linear, planned change approaches. These 'planned' tactics in managing organisational change echoed the predominant western models and frameworks in use and this predisposition toward change 'management' was generally concerned with planning, introduction, facilitation and management of change, typically a diagnostic perspective (Van Tonder, 2004, Viljoen, 2015; Bushe & Marshak, 2015).

Organisational development and change (ODC) can be planned or unplanned although even planned change can have unintended consequences (MacKay Bradley & Chia, 2013). While planned change has been studied, the unplanned nature of change remains underexplored (MacKay Bradley & Chia 2013). Scholars recommend that rather than focusing on perceived outcomes such as the success or failure of change, a richer

understanding of change requires a deeper process-oriented understanding of how and why change emerges (Chia, 2014; Langley et al., 2013, Tsoukas & Chia, 2002). A deeper understanding, however, must also include an understanding that people mediate change outcomes and that change can never be value-free (By, 2010; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010). Furthermore, such understanding should explore the interactions, engagements and influence over time between actors to explore the dynamic nature of change (Uhl-Bien, Marion, &, McKelvey, 2007). The unplanned and contextual nature of change therefore remains to be explored. This case provided the opportunity to develop theory in a different context (a developing country), something calling for immediate action in management research (George, 2015).

5.2.2 Unplanned change and the contextual nature of change

Organisational change management effectiveness is often experienced as low because leaders underestimate the complexity of change, focusing on tools, strategy and structures instead of paying attention to how human beings change by forming identities (Karp & Helgo, 2008). Other sources of change failure have also confirmed that factors such as a reluctance to deal with a fast paced and complex environment, subsequent reactive mindsets and ambiguity and anxiety arise from an inadequate strategic vision from top management (del Val & Fuentes, 2003). In addition, the existing knowledge on organisational development and change (ODC) has been criticised for its limited focus on the dynamics and contextual nature of change (By, 2005; Pettigrew, 1990; Van Tonder, 2004). A macro context not only impacts organisations directly but also influences processes of relating and communicating between people, influencing relationships and power between people (Foucault, 1982; Stacey, 2003).

The source of change studied in this project was predominantly external to the traditional executive structures and lay instead in the socio-political and economic context.

Barnett and Carroll (1995) studied the external factors causing change and concluded that theories are still lacking in explaining how and why some organisations are pushed by impending catastrophe. Their work further found that the most vibrant vein of environmental research on organisational change looks at the process of technological change and innovation. None of the literature reviewed dealt with a socio-political context with external power dynamics enforcing change in organisations.

In this study, context refers to the organisational environment that impacted on the phenomenon under review. Johns defined context as those "situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organisational behavior as well as functional relationships between variables" (2006, p.386). In this instance, the situational factors influencing the behavior of the organisation or its management will be located in the industry, sector or the wider economy as well as in other normative and institutional structures and regimes (Rowley, Behrens, & Krackhardt, 2000). Bamberger (2008) emphasised that research spanning multiple levels of organisational context should specify how surrounding phenomena or temporal conditions directly influence lower-level phenomena, condition relations between one or more variables at different levels of analysis, or are influenced by the phenomena nested within them.

Scholars often portray change as a discrete event, but in reality organisations are a cacophony of complementary and competing change attempts decided on strategically (Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill & Lawrence, 2001). The macro context has been acknowledged in the ODC literature as influencing ODC processes (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997; Shaw, 2002; Weick & Quinn, 1999). However, an understanding of how the context influences unplanned change is still limited (By, 2005; Van Tonder, 2004; Viljoen, 2015). Viljoen (2015) highlighted the elements in the external environment (e.g., competition and new technology) that could cause change within organisations and

MacKay Bradley and Chia (2013) acknowledged the unintended consequences of change. Ford and Ford (2008) allude to macro-level complexity but focus only on micro-level events that cascaded into major transformation. Bamford and Forrester (2003) studied planned and emergent change in a production environment and demonstrated how managers reacted to external influencers, driving change initiatives through planned projects. The context was strategically acknowledged and managed but did not directly influence organisational decision-making or processes of change. Shaw (2002) also considered context but her studies were limited to context in relationships of internal actors. Building on the theory of Kurt Lewin, Dunphy and Stace (1993) as well as Nadler and Tushman (1989) all focused on context but limited their theory to what could be described as diagnostic or planned ODC.

The number of variables in the macro context that change at the same time and the magnitude of environmental changes create processes and events that make it difficult to predict the future and continuously create uncertainty in modern organisations (Herold, Fedor, & Caldwell, 2007; MacKay Bradley & Chia, 2013; Plowman et al., 2007). In their review of 10 years of research, Armenakis and Badian (1999) selected 8th studies that were especially notable for representing context in change. These included responses by the organisation reacting to external environmental changes, a meta-analysis of selected internal contextual factors and studies on the application of mathematical techniques for modeling response. In the change literature, the context was strategically acknowledged and managed but did not directly influence organisational decision-making or the process of change. Plowman et al. (2007) studied the emergence and amplification of small change and found that the dynamic interactions of amplifying actions, contextual conditions and small changes led to continuous radical change. To fully appreciate the relationship of context to organisational change, a study must incorporate time, history,

process and action (Pettigrew et.al., 2001). The research from Plowman (2007) only considered the changes within the organisation that ultimately culminated in major transformation.

In summary, change is complex and requires a greater understanding of the nature of how it emerges. To truly understand the core of a phenomenon, we have to place ourselves at the center as it unfolds (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002).

5.3 INSTITUTIONAL LOGICS AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

This study considered various interacting levels (between the Academy, the sector it operates in and the broader South African context) and, following engagement with peers at a European conference, I chose institutional logics as the theoretical lens for understanding what happened. Institutional logics provide a meta theoretical framework and approach for analysing institutions, individuals and organisations in social systems (Thornton, Ocasio, & Lounsbury, 2012) and enabled me to explain how the external and broader institutional environment created the conditions in which unplanned change was forced on Uptown Academy.

5.3.1 Understanding Institutional logics

The organisational field is central to institutional theory. Representing the intermediary level between organisation and society, it influences the processes by which expectations and practices constructed in society, finds meaning and structure within organisations (Greenwood, Suddaby, & Hinings, 2002). DiMaggio and Powell define a field as "sets of organisations that, in the aggregate, constitute an area of institutional life; key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organisations that produce similar services or products" (1983, pp.148-149). Institutional logics suggests that although individual and organisational action is embedded within institutions, institutions are socially constructed and therefore constituted by the actions of individuals and

organisations (Berger & Luckmann, 1967).

Friedland and Alford's (1991) seminal essay, together with empirical work by Haveman and Rao (1997), Thornton and Ocasio (1999) and Scott and Lane (2000), created a new approach to institutional analysis which posits institutional logics as defining the content and meaning of institutions. Friedland and Alford (1991) introduced institutional logics to describe different practices and beliefs of different institutional orders in Western societies (family, religion, market, state bureaucracy and political democracy) and how those orders shape individual behavior, each with a central logic guiding organising principles (Thornton, et al., 2012). Logics represent a set frame of reference enabling sense making by the actor, the vocabulary they use to motivate action, as well as their sense of self and identity. A key feature of this definition is that logics are more than a cognitive frame of reference but rather emphasise action, meaning making and the identity of actors. Actors can draw on different logics for different reasons and at different points in time (Thornton et.al., 2012) and therefore some logics may lurk in the background and not be used at a specific time (Swidler, 1986). Therefore, the active interpretation of logics highlights the production and negotiation of meaning (Zilber, 2013) and demonstrates the significance of social interactions in the enactment and maintenance of logics (Thornton et.al., 2012). Furthermore, logics does not remain static for long and can be combined, configured and manipulated to serve the purpose of the actors (McPherson & Sauder, 2013). The power of logics is found in their generative capability as mechanisms of organisational change (or stability) because of their connection to practices, identities and cultural meanings (Thornton et al., 2012).

Thornton and Ocasio (1999) define institutional logics as socially constructed historical patterns of material practices, assumptions, values, beliefs and rules by which individuals produce and reproduce their material subsistence, organised in time and space, and

provide meaning to their social reality. Institutional logics can shape rational, mindful behavior, and individual and organisational actors have some hand in shaping and changing institutional logics (Thornton, 2004). This was therefore found to be a useful lens in explaining how frame changing or sense making led to a decision to insource at the Academy. By providing a link between institutions and action, the institutional logics approach and theory provides a bridge between the macro, structural perspectives of Meyer and Rowan (1977) and DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) more micro, process approaches. Thornton and Ocasio (2008) mention identity, status and power, categorisation, and attention as possible mechanisms whereby institutional logics affect organisational logics.

5.3.2 Identity within the institutional logics perspective – how logics shape individual and organisational action

A mechanism by which institutional logics exert their effects on individuals and organisations is when they identify with the collective identities of an institutional group, organisation, industry or population (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). A collective identity is the cognitive, normative and emotional connection experienced by members of a social group because of their perceived common status with other members of the social group (Polleta and Jasper, 2001). Collective identities emerge out of social interactions and communication between members of the social group (White, 1992). Individuals are members of multiple social groups with a collective identity, including gender, racial and ethnic groups (Lamont and Molnar, 2002), social movements (Benford and Snow, 2000; Rao, Monin & Durand, 2003), and individual organisations (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991). Collective identities also emerge among populations of organisational forms (Haveman and Rao, 1997). In the research data, the students and contract workers found a collective identity on the basis of the missing middle concept. However it was also illustrated that

political ideology interfered with the collective mobilisation. Therefore identification and collective identities were mechanisms to understand what was happening, but identity at an individual level was not considered. Within institutional logics, identity is a cognitive construct explaining how sense-making informs practices.

Identity is predominantly a cognitive construct, while structure, process and practices are associated with action. Reframing or sense making is the process of unpacking, analysing and redefining the dominant logic of the organisation from a cognitive perspective (Bartunek, 1984; Prahalad, 2004; Spicer & Sewell, 2010). Linking logics to identity and practices leverages the affinity among these constructs; answering questions of who we are and what we do (Thornton et al., 2012). Identity has been posited as a construction and performance that is constituted through discourses and practices and sometimes takes place in a social and interactive process of enacting a shared identity within certain settings (Costas & Karreman, 2015; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Identification is therefore a process and not a thing (Jenkins, 2008). Ashforth and Mael (1989) define social identification as "the perception of oneness with or belongingness to some human aggregate" (p.135) and therefore Identity work always occurs in interaction with the surrounding discourses and practices (Costas & Karreman, 2015). However, knowledge is particularly limited concerning identity-based action in organisational contexts and beyond (Farmer & Van Dyne, 2010). The relationship between the crafting of identities and broader societal discourses and institutional frameworks has been considered (Merilianen, Tienari, Thomas & Davies, 2004) but this study was less concerned with the crafting of identities and more with how they are used.

One of the original strands of identity theory was Tajfel's Social identity theory (SIT), which examines how people understand and position themselves and others in terms of social group categories (Alvesson, Ashcraft, & Thomas, 2008). The other strand that

informed identity theory was Turner's Self categorisation theory (SGT), which explored what led people to view themselves as unique in some circumstances but in other instances to define themselves through group membership (Alvesson et.al., 2008). Categorisation makes a powerful contribution to the everyday reality of groups (Jenkins, 2008).

Another element that takes center stage in identity relates to the types of agents. Some scholars focus on individual subjects (Giddens, 1991; Pratt, Rockmann & Kauffman ,2006), while others, including this study, consider extra-individual forces. These forces may include organisational agents (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; duGay, 1993; Townley, 1993), organisational discourses (Wénglen & Alvesson, 2007) or societal discourses and institutional cultural patterns (Foucault, 1980; Sennet, 1998). Brown and Lewis (2011) posit that people develop as agents of self-reflection but also as part-colonised subjects providing a self-account through vocabularies made available by discourses. This discipline is enforced through normalisation and allows people to accept responsibility for the limitations power may bring and become principles of their own subjectification (Foucault, 1979). In the present case, for example, the service level agreement subjected the contract workers to a position of lesser power and they had to accept their position and what it entailed. It was also Foucault's view that disciplinary technologies (like organisational practices and rules) work hand in hand with technologies of self and therefore processes of self-examination and objectification cause the individual to become tied to intentions and actions they maintain (Brown & Lewis, 2011). These individuals will then act in a manner that conforms to standards or expectations in organisational settings because "power is everywhere, not because it embraces everything but because it comes from everywhere" (Foucault, 1980, p. 93). Agents will therefore divert the disciplinary practices and relations of power in which they are caught, for purposes of their own

(Foucault, 1986). Starkey and McKinlay agree that discipline is the price individuals pay for achieving their desires and needs (1998).

Interactions and discursive practices often shape and influence the attitudes and behavior of actors in and around organisations (Alvesson & Karreman, 2000). A critical turn to how identity was viewed brought attention to issues of power and politics and challenged some of the assumptions embedded in social identity theory. Some of these challenges include the appropriation of the assumption that individuals freely undertake processes of self-categorisation and identification (example Nkomo, 1992; Nkomo & Cox, 1996). In these critical perspectives the emphasis goes to the elites in the organisation and discursive regimes regulating identities resulting in political and material consequences. These perspectives considers how identities are controlled as well as how people consent to and resist such efforts through the application of disciplinary power. A common example of identity control in the workplace is often experienced in the employment relationship (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002).

In organisational change literature, Weick (1995) has linked the concepts of identity and sense making. Sense making can be depicted as a process by which people rationalise their own actions and the actions of others (Lawrence, 2015) and this is intrinsically linked to identity. When faced with uncertainty, it is to their sense of identity that people refer in order to make sense of the situation; at the same time, identities are subject to the outcome of the sense-making process (Lawrence 2015). Sense making as an ongoing process involves social practices and can emerge through conversations, non-verbal behavior and language in face-to-face settings (Heracleous & Barrett, 2001). In these settings people seek to produce, negotiate, and sustain a shared sense of meaning (Gephart, Topal, and Zhang, 2010). Change happens when one way of talking (discourse) replaces another way of talking (Hardy, Lawrence and Grant, 2005; Preget, 2013) and

schemas (shifts in belief) are altered (Nielsen & Abldgaard, 2013). Discourses therefore also relate to power. Jian (2011) referred to little ‘d’ and big ‘D’ discourses where the first alludes to talk in interaction at the micro level while big discourses refers to systems of thought and fields of knowledge (Foucault, 1972).

Current research on how sense making occurs are focused on three sets of interweaving processes: noticing, interpreting and acting (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014). The notion of identity furthermore often surfaces in sense-making research about crises and change (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010). Organisational change often presents an opportunity for individuals to crystallise their identity and their understanding of their reaction to change (Viljoen, 2015).When faced with prospective threats to identity, people require time to make sense of change and they seek out opportunities to engage in dialogue (Lawrence 2015).

To enact transformation, Holman (2013) found that disruption in the current meaning-making processes was required. From a constructionist paradigm, sense-making and meaning-making processes have been studied (Maitlis & Sonenshein 2010) and confirmed that they can be explicit (Cooperider et al., in Viljoen, 2015) or indirect (Owen, 2008). When an individual loses his or her privileged epistemological status, it becomes possible to see the individual as a product of the social techniques of power, a perspective that highlights the importance of both identity and identity-securing strategies in the reproduction of power relations (Knights & Willmott, 1989). In reasonable stability, the narrative of self-identity runs smoothly. However, with ambiguity and change, identity work becomes contingent on life history and the unchallenged position of the hegemonic discourse through which identity is produced (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002). People undergoing change have to overcome emotional hurdles because they seek to discover whether their identities will match the new organisational realities (Karp & Helgo 2008).

Identity is thus viewed as central for issues of stability and change (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Most of the literature on identity and change has however focused on planned change (Sveningsson & Alvesson 2003) or the relationship between identity and image in the change process (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991).

At an institutional level, sense-making studies by Weber and Glynn (2006) identified priming, editing and triggering as three mechanisms that weave institutions into sense making. Intertwining sense making and decision-making has also been studied in multiple contexts and situations such as the Piper Alpha disaster (Brown, 2004), a disastrous heat wave in France (Boudes & Laroche, 2009), and the Columbia space shuttle disaster (Dunbar & Garud, 2009). These studies illustrated that decision making in situated contexts is practical, deliberate and a consequence of a social, reflexive sense-making process.

It is therefore noted that much of the change literature as it aligns to the sense-making frame of Weick tends to focus on identity at the individual level and also on the phenomenon of identity work.

Organisational identity denotes that which is central, distinctive and enduring about an organisation and it articulates who the organisation is and what it represents (Gioia, Price, Hamilton & Thomas, 2010). Organisational identity contains the shared interpretive schemes that members collectively construct to make sense of and provide meaning to their organisational experience (Gioia, Schultz & Corley, 2000). By supporting sense making and interpretation, identity acts as a guide to decision making and issue interpretation (Dutton & Dukeridge, 1991), organisational change (Corley & Gioia, 2004) and stakeholder relations (Brickson, 2005). Identities in organisations and in the context of work are formed through a process of identity construction, an approach to dealing with complex and at times ambiguous experiences of work (Alvesson et.al., 2008). Social

identity, categorisation and collective identities, organisational identity and lastly sense making are all concepts which inform how identity has been positioned within the theoretical frame of institutional logics.

The focus in the study was on the mechanics of how collective identity was used in the process (Ainsworth & Grant, 2012) as opposed to how the identities were formed. Applying the Institutional logics lens, identity was a cognitive construct explaining how sensemaking informs practice and was constituted through discourses both at micro and macro levels. Collectivity and collective identification are vital building blocks in the conceptual frameworks in social psychology (Jenkins, 2008). Such collective identification does not always have to be elected or acknowledged by individuals but can also be constituted in its recognition by observers (Jenkins, 2008).

Identity outcomes are useful and aid in the production of relevant and actionable knowledge (Voronov, Wofram Cox, Letrent-Jones & Weir, 2009).

5.3.3 How Institutional logics are used

One of the most powerful contributions by Thornton and Ocasio (2008) has been to demonstrate the use of institutional logics as both a meta-theory and a method of analysis. I applied the logic as a theoretical lens to analyse the process at multiple levels. Studies have shown that applying the approach can demonstrate how facets of organisational culture can enable but also constrain social action (Thornton & Ocasio, 2008) but in this instance a grounded theory method of analysis was applied and therefore institutional logics as a method of analysis was not applied.

5.3.4 Developing the theory and application to unplanned organisational change

Much of the work on logics in organisational theory has emphasised oppositional or competing logics (e.g., Friedland & Alford, 1991; Lounsbury, 2007; Thornton, 2004; Washington & Ventresca, 2008). However, some studies also considered the dynamic of

logic blending (Glynn & Lounsbury, 2005). Furthermore, logics has also proven useful in understanding change when driven from the bottom up (Mars & Lounsbury, 2009) and activism and resultant change (Lounsbury, Ventresca & Hirsch, 2003). The study by Lounsbury, Ventresca and Hirsch (2003), however, looked at institutional change and the creation of new industries and not at the level of the dominant organisational logic and organisational practices. Recent studies have also given attention to the locations where logics and subsequent practices can be interpreted (Smets & Jarzabkowski, 2013).

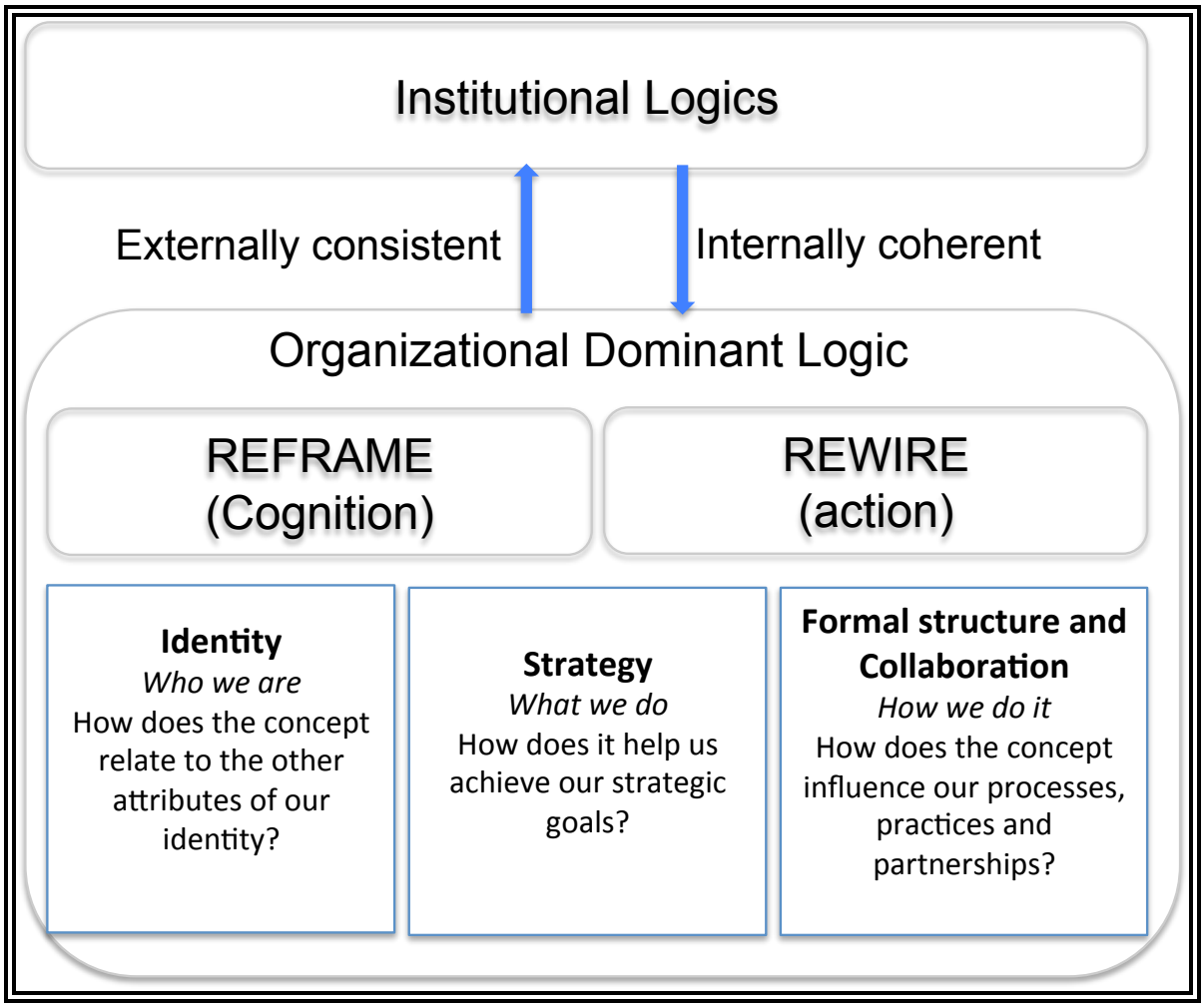
Institutional logics have been established as a useful framework and lens to study organisational and institutional change (Börner & Verstegen, 2013; Lounsbury & Glynn, 2001). Suddaby and Greenwood (2005) explored the role of rhetoric in legitimating profound institutional change focused on organisational forms and also theorising change (Greenwood, Suddaby & Hinings, 2002).

Institutional logics theory enabled me to link the micro and macro organisational environments. It positions identity and identification, and the mechanics and application of identity align to the data constructed in this study and present an opportunity to build on theory.

In summary

The adapted figure below presents a simplified way of explaining how institutional logics theory will be applied to explain the role of this concept in the theoretical framework of unplanned change.

Figure 5.1 : Institutional Logics framework



Adapted from Silvestri and Gulati (2013, p.11)

Institutional logics are socially constructed systems of cultural elements, including values, beliefs and normative explanations, by which organisational actors (including managers, employees, service providers and other stakeholders) make sense of everyday activities and organise them in time and space. These logics vary over time and space and are dependent on the distribution of power.

Institutional logics shape organisational action through collective identities and identification, contests for status and power, classification and categorisation as well as the attention of actors. Thornton and Ocassio (1999) offer five principles that underlie the institutional logics perspectives. These can be summarised as:

- Embedded agency: interests, identity, values and assumptions of individuals and organisations are embedded within prevailing institutional logics;
- Society as an inter-institutional system: individuals are located within a diverse range of high-level institutions;
- The material and cultural foundations of institutions: each of the institutional orders in society has both material and cultural characteristics;
- Institutions at multiple levels: institutional logics may develop at a variety of different levels; this flexibility allows for a wide variety of mechanisms to be emphasised;

Historical contingency: it emphasises the ways in which institutions at every level take shape as a result of historically contingent events and actions. Logics can shift over time.

5.4 POWER DURING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

The second research question aimed to contribute to organisational change literature by explaining how external power dynamics surfaced during the process leading to change. Power has been considered a variable missing from some accounts of emergent change (Grant & Marshak, 2011; Thomas & Hardy, 2011). In traditional planned approaches to change, power shows up clearly but less explicitly in many emergent or unplanned accounts of change (Lawrence, 2015). The emphasis is often on the limitations of disciplinary power and what happens in the shadow system regardless of the intentions of senior leadership (Shaw, 1997; Stacey, 1996). This study makes a contribution to the understanding of the role of power in unplanned change.

5.4.1 Organisational power and change

Change literature to date is predominantly set within internal organisational power dynamics and focuses on micro-relationships within the organisation. Although the father of planned change theory (Kurt Lewin) believed that it was right, proper and possible to intervene in a planned manner to effect social change on behalf of the disadvantaged

(Cooke, 1999). The case study presents insights into direct and indirect forms of power that led to unplanned organisational change.

Power is not considered a *thing* that a person carries around and gives to others or takes away from them (Elias & Scotson, 1994, in Munduate & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, 2003). Human beings are considered inherently interdependent but need is rarely equal and therefore the pattern of power relations is always considered to be skewed, one way or another (Munduate & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, 2003). Power, therefore, could be viewed as patterns of perceived need and expressed in forms of relationships (Munduate & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, 2003). In organisational studies, however, there is often a tendency to fuse or use interchangeably the terms power and politics. For example while Weber (1978) construed power as "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his will despite resistance" (p. 53), further studies then latched onto this definition and defined politics in terms of tactics and strategies being applied to wield or resist power (Pfeffer & Salanick, 1974; Sewell, 1998). Among various stakeholders with different interests the conversation about change included the meaning attached to those issues being negotiated, reinforced and privileged by actors drawing on various power sources (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). Finally, the notion of power may also often be portrayed in negative terms, however power can be a positive force leading to great achievements (Clegg, Courpasson & Phillips, 2006).

At the Academy it was clear that power dynamics were very influential both directly and indirectly in the process leading to change. The role played by power in organisational change as well as the diversity of power sources has become a widely-studied phenomenon in the field of organisational change (Buchanan, Badham & Klein, in Munduate & Bennebroek-Gravenhorst, 2003). Heller (2003) cautions, however, that evidence from empirical research suggested that a clear distinction needed to be made

between participation (taking part in an activity) and power sharing (degree of influence), as well as manifest and latent power dynamics (Bradshaw and Boonstra, 2004).

Social psychologists have used the concepts of social power and influence tactics to understand power within organisational change. Social power reflects the repertoire available to an individual whereas influence tactics refers to the actual usage of certain behaviour in a specific situation (Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, in Munduate et al., 2003). The social power and influence could further lead to individuals yielding to direct or social pressure or being genuinely persuaded. Since power in the context of organisational change theory was positioned within the organisational structure, I therefore broadened the literature review to include power as it is positioned in organisation and management sciences.

5.4.2 A summary of power in organisation and management sciences

In reviewing the concept of power in management and organisation science, Fleming and Spicer (2014) emphasise that what is now required is a robust conceptualisation of how organisational power functions (Fleming & Spicer, 2014). Referencing research from Melucci as well as Crane and Matten, Fleming and Spicer (2014) highlight the question of whether power is mostly enacted through formal or informal social structures and enactments. They further highlighted gaps in the knowledge on how power impacts ambiguity (uncertainty or the ability to control uncertainty) and appealed for research that examines the power of ambiguity in, through, over and against organisations. To clarify the approaches, assumptions and theories regarding how power unfolds, they presented a taxonomy of power through the “four faces of power” (Fleming & Spicer, 2014, p. 240). These ‘faces of power’ – coercion, manipulation, domination and subjectification – can play out in, through, over and against organisations and could be expressed directly (episodic) or indirectly (systemic). The case study focusing on unplanned, ambiguous

change therefore presents a unique opportunity to study power dynamics through the lens of Fleming and Spicer's faces of power and to contribute to theory.

The table below summarises the findings of their research relating to the four faces of power.

Table 5.1 : Explanatory framework on the faces of power

Focus	Faces of power	Description	Theoretical roots	Core mechanisms	Representative studies
Episodic	Coercion	Direct mobilisation of power	Dahl (1957)	Formal position	Weber (1947)
				Personality	House (1968)
				Ability to reduce uncertainty	Crozier (1964)
				Possession of valuable resources	Pfeffer and Salanick (1974)
	Manipulation	Attempts to ensure action and discussion occurs within accepted boundaries	Bachrach and Baratz (1963)	Manipulation of rules	Salznick (1949)
				Shaping anticipated results	Gouldner (1970)
				Network positioning	Burt (1995)
				Mobilization of bias	Alexander (1979)
Systemic	Domination	Attempts to make relations of power appear inevitable and natural	Lukes (1974)	Articulating ideology	Alvesson (1987)
				Manufacturing consent	Burawoy (1979)
				Conformity with institutions	Fligstein (1987)
	Subjectification	Attempts to shape sense of self, experiences and emotions	Foucault (1977)	Disciplinary regimes	Townley (1993)
				Construction of identities	Du Gay (1996)
				Articulation of discourse	Maguire, Lawrence, and Hardy (2004)
				Governmentality	Holmqvist and Maravalias (2011)

Fleming and Spicer (2014, p. 241)

Theories of organisational power as coercion focus on the direct exercise of power by individuals to achieve certain political ends (Fleming & Spicer, 2014). These theories find

root in the work of Dahl (1957) and, simply put, look at what provides individuals with the ability to make another person do something they would not otherwise do (French & Raven,1959; House, 1968). Another direct form of power could be experienced as manipulation and is predominantly concerned with agenda setting (Fleming & Spicer, 2007). Agenda setting could be achieved in various ways including setting or manipulating rules (Salznick, 1949), shaping the anticipated outcomes of behavior (Gouldner, 1970) or using positional power to influence decision making (Burt, 1995).

Organisational theories on power have also viewed power as a process of domination, an idea that builds on Lukes' (2005) radical view of power. In these instances, actors establish influence through the construction of ideological values that become dominant (Lukes, 2005). Power can prevent people from having grievances by shaping their perceptions, cognitions and preferences to such an extent that they accept their role in the existing order of things and cannot imagine an alternative (Lukes, 2005). Ideological norms however do not go unchallenged and studies specifically on social movements dominate this type of power (Schneiberg & Lounsbury, 2008).

The final face of power presents the role of an actor's emotions and their sense of self and identity. According to Foucault (1982), power is achieved through defining the conditions of possibility underlying how we experience ourselves as people and thus producing the type of people we think we naturally are. This *subjectification* face of power needs to be distinguished from the *domination* face of power (Fleming & Spicer, 2014). Ideological domination shapes what is worthy of political effort (Fleming & Spicer 2014) while subjectification goes deeper to the identity of the person (Foucault 1982). To this extent, it looks at how actors in organisational life become 'subjects of power' through a series of 'micro practices' which function at the level of everyday life (Foucault 1977 in Fleming and Spicer, 2014), for example in policies and procedures, Foucault emphasises

the processual nature of these controls creating disciplines that influence identity and compliance. However, this processual nature of control can exist in tension with other intra and extra-organisational claims upon employees', including managers', sense of identity in a way that can open a space for forms of micro-emancipation (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002).

5.4.3 Mechanisms of power – how power functions

Another contention in the literature on power relates to how power functions. Power may be enacted through definable acts; alternatively, power was seen as a property of the systemic environment itself (Fleming & Spicer, 2014). To understand power, therefore, it was not sufficient to examine how it operated through specific definable acts but also as a mechanism of social systems, which was proposed as another focus point for this case study. Fleming and Spicer (2014) also highlighted a contention in the literature pertaining to the mobilisation of power. Examples include agenda setting and the mobilisation of bias or exercising power through the mobilisation of stories and symbolism.

Foucault (1982) considered power as relational. Because of this it is not associated with a particular institution, but rather with practices, techniques, and procedures that are employed at all levels and through many dimensions (Townley, 1993). The exercise of power leads new knowledge to emerge and produces domains of objects and rituals of truth (Foucault 1982). This presents an opportunity for the intersection of power and identity, as the human subject is not 'given' but produced historically, that is, constituted through correlative elements of power and knowledge (Townley 1993).

Lastly, discursive power is a key lever in enabling power. A discourse is defined as a system of texts that brings objects into being (Hardy, et. al 2005); they produce material reality in the practices they evoke, and exist beyond the individual texts that compose them. As a mode of power, discourse is positioned to have constructive properties rather than representative ones (Hardy & Phillips, 1999). It can therefore create discursive or

narrative truth effects that are lived on an everyday subjective basis (Boje, 1995). Core narratives are the storylines people use to explain things and bring coherence to their organisational lives by making sense of facts and events (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). Power relations that appear fixed (Clegg, 1989) are really the result of ongoing discursive struggles whereby meaning is negotiated (Van Dijk, 1997) in ways that create particular objects of knowledge, identities and relationships (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). Indirect types of power specifically, like domination and subjectification, tend to mobilise discursive resources to influence organisational activity (Fleming & Spicer, 2013). The previous section explained the use of collective identities within institutional logics constituted through discourse and practice. By integrating the logics perspective with materials (structures and practices) and discursive elements (Thornton et al., 2015) it would be possible to explain how organisational and institutional actors use material elements with discursive elements to deal with different logics or to enact change. Power therefore functions as a definable act or as a property of the environment. More research is required into the mobilisation of power.

The role of power in unplanned organisational change set in the broader institutional context remains under explored. Applying the lens of Fleming and Spicer (2014) aids in understanding direct and indirect forms of power and how it can explain the phenomenon under review. Mechanisms of power and how it functions are inconclusive, however, providing the need and opportunity to study the intersection of power and identity.

5.5 SOCIAL MOVEMENT THEORY AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

The study found that activism played a role in influencing the process and for this reason research on social movement theory was required. Briscoe and Gupta (2016) define activism as instances in which individuals or groups of individuals who lack full access to institutionalised channels of influence, engage in collective action to remedy a

perceived social problem or to promote or counter changes to the existing social order (King & Soule, 2007). Scholars increasingly use social movement theory as a lens through which to understand the dynamic relationship between organisations and society (Briscoe, Chin, & Hambrick, 2014) and there has been a steady growth in studies integrating organisational theory and social movement studies (Davis, McAdam, Scott & Zald, 2005). The nature of activism in and around organisations has been multi-faceted and multiple lenses have been applied. Some research built on the sociological tradition (Rao, Morrill & Zald, 2000; Van Dyk, Soule & Taylor, 2004) while another perspective included the use of stakeholder theory, expanding the activist as a type of secondary stakeholder for the organisation (Bundy, Shropshire, & Buchholtz, 2013; Rowley & Moldoveanu, 2003).

Social movements research presents the mechanics of activism (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016) but the literature on organisational change has not necessarily applied a social movement lens to understand unplanned change. What was witnessed in this case study was congruent with the literature on social movement studies and broader organisation and management theory, which were therefore applied as lenses to understand how unplanned change was forced onto the Academy.

5.5.1 The insider-outsider framework

The summary of the research as depicted in the insider-outsider framework (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016) presents the different types of activists and their influence on organisational targets, defined in terms of their relationship to the target. To illustrate the core concepts and scope of activism, Briscoe and Gupta (2016) presented the below Table 5.2 summarised from Taylor and Van Dyke (2004) and McAdam and Snow (1997). The scope and definition of activism as posited by Briscoe and Gupta (2016) was selected and found particularly appropriate to this study for the following reasons:

- The activism was directed toward a social issue or goal. Although management in the case study ultimately came to a decision to insource, the data presented in Chapter 4 suggested that mobilisation for change touched on broader socio economic and political issues.
- The definition implies an expansive view of organisational change as an outcome of activism, including intentional and unintentional consequences.

Table 5.2 : Social Activism Concepts and Examples

Concept	Definition	Representative examples
Social activist	Individuals and groups engaging in collective action to remedy perceived social problems. Social activists operate through groups or social movement organizations (SMO) characterised by varying degrees of formal and informal organizations.	Corporate LGBT employee groups; environmental organizations; Anti-Walmart community organizers
Organizational targets	Organizations at which activist pressure is directed.	Corporations; universities; hospitals; churches
Tactics	Collective action routines pursued by social activists for the purpose of gaining concessions, grabbing attention and/or mobilizing participants. Social activists choose tactics from among a wide repertoire of possibilities.	
	Persuasive/ influence tactics – geared toward convincing decision-makers about the merits of activist claims.	Lobbying; victim testimonial; educational seminar; issue selling behaviour; dramaturgical performance
	Disruptive/ protest tactics – focussed on creating material or reputational costs for organizations.	Product boycott; equipment sabotage; blockade; sit-in; protest demonstration.
Concession	Commitment by organizational decision-makers to altering organisational practices in line with activists demands.	Adoption of domestic partner benefits; reducing emission levels; altering product features.
Opportunity structure for activism	Structural or cultural factors that affect the likelihood of activism, in part because of perceptions about the likelihood of activist success.	Corporate opportunity structures include external factors (e.g. industry conditions) and internal factors (e.g. executive values)
Indirect effects	Effects on the decision-making behaviour of entities that were not the original targets of activism. These could be intended (creating a domino effect) and unintended (rise of new market opportunity.	Activist tactics deployed against target universities affecting decisions of peer universities in the same network; efforts of Women's Christian Temperance Movement leading to the rise of the soft-drink producer companies.

Briscoe and Gupta (2016, p. 675-676)

Table 5.3 : Social Activism Concepts and Examples (Continued)

Concept	Definition	Representative examples
Unintended effects	Effects that were not part of activists' goals and objectives. These could occur within the targeted organization (targets engaging in impression management) or elsewhere (e.g. practice adoption by peer organizations.	Activists' boycotts causing companies to engage in impression management; disruptive activist tactics slowing the spread of practice among peer organizations.
Organizational field	A set of organizations who are likely to view each other as 'social peers' and influence each others' decision-making	Fortune 500 companies; Top US research universities.
Third parties	Actors that have a vested stake in the organizational field targeted by the activists- but which are not an integral part of activism or the target.	
	Industry self regulating groups	Fair Labor Association
	Consultants/ professions	Diversity best practices; Society for HR Management
	Regulators/ policy-makers	Federal department of Agriculture
Mobilization	Recruitment of bystanders into participation, or energizing of existing participants, to engage in collective action toward activist goals.	Hospital residents coming together to fight unjust employment practices.
Media amplification	Media coverage of activism, making it visible to more people, and potentially heightening its influence in the organizational field.	Consumer boycotts having greater influence depending on how much media coverage they receive.

Briscoe and Gupta (2016, p. 675-676)

From insider to outsider activist

The spectrum of activists expands from insider to complete outsider to the organisational context on a continuum based on the relationship of the activists with the target organisation (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016). The social position of the activists (Walker, Martin, & McCarthy, 2008) plays a role and can include both primary and secondary stakeholders (Vasi & King, 2012). In their review of the literature on social activism, Briscoe and Gupta (2016) presented the following framework as a summary.

Table 5.4 : Insider – Outsider Framework

Insider Activists	Intermediate Activists	Outsider Activists
Full members of target organisation	Partial or temporary members of organisation	Non members of organisation
Example: Employees	Example: Company shareholders, university students	Example: Social movement organisation (SMO) participants
A. Resource dependence on the target organisation		
High dependence	Varied dependence	Low dependence
Implications		*Implications*
Reduced incentive to voice grievances		Increased incentive to voice opinions
Difficulty recruiting into participation		Easier recruiting into participation
High barrier to deployment of disruptive tactics		Low barrier to deployment of disruptive tactics
B. Knowledge about the target organisation		
High knowledge level	Varied knowledge level	Low knowledge level
Implications		*Implications*
Effective framing of claims and goals toward target, using knowledge of values and culture		More difficulty framing claims and goals toward target
Ability to focus lobbying, using knowledge of informal structure (factions, friendships)		Limited ability to focus lobbying
Insight on how to threaten, using knowledge of critical resources and routines		Lower certainty on how best to threaten

Briscoe and Gupta (2016, p. 678)

Social activism within organisations is a prime example of a "voice" behavior (Hirschman, 1970), as employees seek to instigate social change in their workplace (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016). Other activists appear to fall somewhere between the insider and outsider group. Students have been categorised as intermediary activists as they are deemed to be partial members of an organisation (Rojas, 2012).

Insider to outsider activism has also been characterised based on their knowledge of their targets and the resource dependence they have on the target organisation. As presented in Table 5.3, insiders are characterised by high levels of dependence and knowledge while outsiders are characterised by low levels of both. Students may have knowledge about the values and routines but they lack full knowledge of the informal

structures (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016) and are not privy to internal knowledge of the organisation in all areas (Vasi & King, 2012).

Resource dependency focuses on the relative dependence the activists will have on the target organisation and visa versa (Casciaro & Piskorsi, 2005). Scholars have explained the influencing capacity of activists and found that organisations were more vulnerable to activism when the activist groups possessed more resources, and less vulnerable when the organisation had more resources (Lenox & Eezley, 2009). In this case the activists had less influence over resources but were still in a position to force change over a more powerful organisation. Studies have shown that activists with low resource capacity can still be successful if their activities and cause are covered by print and social media (Earl & Kimport, 2011). Technology overall has been observed to have the effect of lowering the participation threshold (Postmes & Brunsting, 2002), connecting participants across time and space, providing a form of distributed intelligence (Deibert, 2000), serving as a catalyst for online deliberation (Halpern & Gibbs, 2013) or constructing a public sphere (Zheng & Wu, 2005). This means more people can participate even if they are not physically able to be at the site of mobilisation. After the Arab spring, the role of social media in transforming ways of organising collective action has given rise to the concept of connective action (Bennett & Segerberg, 2012) which is based on personalised content and loose connections (Zheng & Yu, 2016). However, understanding the intricacies of applying social media as a tactic still needs exploration (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016). Lewis, Gray and Meierhenrich (2014) showed that even though the “Save Darfur” campaign on Facebook managed to get a significant number of “clicks”, very few of them translated into actual donations for the cause. Thus, the efficacy of ICT (Information, communication and technology) for different types of activism should be subject to empirical examination.

Another characteristic of activism pertains to the knowledge activists have of target organisations. This flows from the application of opportunity structure and political process theory in social movement sociology (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016). Amenta, Carruthers and Zylan (1992) aimed to identify the structural and cultural factors that could contribute to the influence of activists over a target organisation. Social network scholars have shown that actors who more accurately perceive the social networks in an organisation can act more efficiently by lobbying the right people in the right places and thereby improving their odds of successfully influencing the organisation (Kilduff & Tsai, 2003). Studies of insider activism have explored a number of micromobilisation tactics including tailored framing (Benford & Snow, 2000), repurposing organisational routines and processes (Kellogg, 2011), the use of knowledge or decision-makers' personal values and political coalitions (Weber, Rao & Thomas, 2009) and leveraging networks to pursue change (Briscoe & Safford,2008).

Resources also play a role. The lower resource dependence of outsider activists allows greater levels of threat against targets (King, 2008b). This includes employing disruptive tactics (King, 2008a), which have the further advantage of attracting media attention (Schurman, 2004). Lower dependency could also project an image of 'authenticity' for the outsider activist movement (Carroll & Wheaton, 2009). Insider activists generally have a much higher resource dependence on their targets and are often less willing to become oppositional or engage in open protest (Friedman & Craig, 2004).

5.5.2 Unintended and unanticipated effects

In the study it was found that the activists targeted the Academy for a decision to insource previously outsourced workers and this decision eventually had some unexpected consequences for the organisation, as was reported in Chapter 4. Research on the unintended and unanticipated effects of activism have been limited and include

examples of decision-makers safeguarding themselves from costly effects of activism (Baron & Diermeier, 2007) or engaging in corporate social activities unrelated to the activism issue to divert attention (Gupta, 2015). Furthermore, the activism or the outcome of the action may also have direct or indirect effects back into the organisational field (Schneiberg & Lounsbury, 2008) and indirect effects on further mobilisation (Strang & Soule,1998), as we noted with the #Feesmustfall movements expanding to the #Outsourcingmustfall mobilisation. The case study illustrated a unique example of unplanned change. The implications for social movement theory of the context of the institutional field and the influencing role of activism, will be discussed in Chapter 7.

In conclusion, Briscoe and Gupta (2016) highlighted opportunities for research and emphasised the exploration of identification as a new dimension in the insider-outsider framework. They have appealed for more research in emerging market contexts, noting that current literature is sparse on the role of the national and regional institutional context.

5.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter positioned the initial data analysis within current change management literature. Studies have confirmed that organisations are on average not dealing effectively with change. The influence of complexity theory has been useful in shifting what was predominantly a very linear view of change to focusing more on the process of changing. However, instances of unplanned change were still found to be under explored. The contextual nature of change was explored but it was confirmed that how change emerges and specifically unplanned changes, forced change comes about, still need to be explored.

The study explored how various representatives of organisation, industry and society interacted and therefore the focus turned to the meta-theoretical framework of institutional logics. It has been demonstrated that institutional logics was useful in understanding different types of change and also the bottom up processes of change. The role of identity

as a mechanism to exert the effect of institutional logics was explored and positioned against the work in sense making and discourses. This in turn shifted to power; the discursive turn in power as well as direct forms of power. The phenomenon of power and political dynamics in the change literature has been situated predominantly within the organisation structure. The overview included a review on the current literature on power dynamics as summarised by Fleming and Spicer (2014) and was applied as a lens to explore the power dynamics and relations in this case study. Turning to the role of activism, social movement theory was explored and the framework of Briscoe and Gupta (2016) was found useful for summarising the current activism landscape as well as the research opportunities to be explored.

Having reported on the initial data findings and the prevailing literature, the report now turns to the next level of grounded theory analysis: an explanation of the phenomenon. Chapter 6 elevates the categories identified in Chapter 4 toward the development of theoretical concepts and constructs.

CHAPTER 6

FORCED UNPLANNED CHANGE: ACTIVISM INFLUENCING SHIFT IN INSTITUTIONAL LOGIC AND THE INFLUENCE OF IDENTITY AS POWER MECHANISM

CHAPTER 6 : FINDINGS EXPLAINING UNPLANNED FORCED CHANGE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The report thus far has covered the story of change at the Academy in Chapter 3, initial coding to unpack the themes and ideas of what happened in Chapter 4, after which a literature review explored the concepts and what is known in Chapter 5. This chapter will start with a short overview on theoretical coding followed by the selective coding findings of the analysis. In developing and refining the concepts and ideas, I presented two separate papers to engage peers on the theoretical developments. These were presented at the conferences hosted by the British Academy of Management (BAM 2018) and European group of organisational studies (EGOS 2018). The findings present the final level of analysis after which theoretical concepts and constructs will be refined to inform the grounded theory model in Chapter 7.

6.2 THEORETICAL CODING

In the grounded theory (GT) analytical method, theoretical coding is a sophisticated level of coding that follows the codes you have selected during focused coding (Charmaz, 2006). In this chapter, I specify possible relationships between categories to weave the story together, which will feed into the ultimate development of the grounded theory.

As noted in the literature review in Chapter 5, the conceptual points of departure for grounded theory building were

- how the socio-political and socio-economic context led to unplanned change (Research objective 1)
- how power at macro- and micro levels led to unplanned forced change (Research objective 2).

This explanation will lead to a conceptual framework for the development of substantive theory on unplanned change.

The deduction made from axial coding in the previous chapters is that activism and the mobilisation of power created the perfect storm for unplanned change in the organisation. This was explained through a shift in the prevailing organisational logic. This analysis and findings laid the foundation for the next step in grounded theory, selective coding, to which the report will now turn.

In grounded theory development it is useful to distinguish between two broad definitions of theory in social sciences. Positivist definitions treat it as a statement of relationships between abstract concepts that cover a wide range of empirical observations (Charmaz, 2006). It would therefore seek causes, favor deterministic explanations and emphasise generalisability and universality. On the other hand, an interpretive definition of theory views theoretical understanding as abstract and interpretive; the understanding gained from the theory rests on the interpretation by the theorist of the studied phenomenon. This type of theory assumes multiple emergent realities, facts and values as linked, truth as provisional and social life as processual (Charmaz, 2006).

Following the constructivist grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2006) this research therefore placed priority on the phenomena of study, seeing both data and analysis as created from shared experiences and relationships with participants. Typically, the next step in the analytical procedure would entail selective coding and the use of a conditional matrix (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

The following procedure was followed during the selective coding process: (i) using the core categories that emerged during axial coding; (ii) relating them to other data inferred categories; (iii) grouping similar codes with underlying uniformity into new categories; (iv)

refining and defining these new categories comprehensively. This was written and re-written and presented to a broad audience of informants, supervisors and peers in this study. In so doing, I established that activism had an influencing role in shifting the dominant organisational logic and there were patterns of identity enabling power. Together this reframing triggered unplanned change in the organisational practice of outsourcing. The output from the theoretical coding process will be presented through sections 6.3 - 6.5. Throughout the explanation, I will identify emerging theoretical constructs and theoretical concepts emerging from the data and will use a numbering code to achieve this. The new constructs and concepts emerging from this explanation is subsequently summarised in tables 6.4 and 6.5. For ease of reference, the reader can correlate these concepts and constructs against the numbers throughout the explanation.

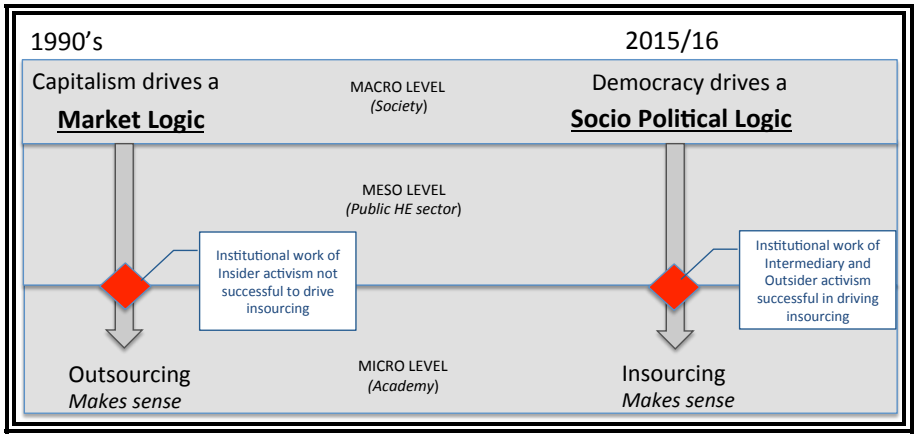
6.3 FRAMING OUTSOURCING

To explain how unplanned change was forced on the Academy, it was important to first understand the organisational context or environment. The key decision was about insourcing. What I found was that two different institutional logics informed the decision to in or outsource at two different time sets over a period of 15-17 years. This context explained how management framed or made sense of the practice of outsourcing and therefore explained their decision to outsource originally and to reverse this in 2016. The emerging theme being reframing as a trigger to unplanned change (1)[13]. Social movement through activism affected the direction or strength of this relationship between framing and deciding whether to in or outsource. This led to the theme of influence of activism in shifting the logic (2).

[13] The number in brackets from this point forward can be referenced in the summary tables (Tables 6.4 and 6.5) which will culminate in the data structure at the end of this chapter. It highlights the development of concepts and constructs.

The purpose of institutional logics is to explain the relationships among three nested levels of analysis. In this case the context was described as the macro socio political and economic environment in South Africa that provided an institutional logic within a blended economy (3), the meso public higher education sector and the micro organisational level of the case, Uptown Academy that set the organisational dominant logic (4). This section presents an explanation for research question one, how the macro context created the conditions for unplanned change in practice at the micro level. It will demonstrate how a particular organisational practice (the decision to in or outsource) was influenced by an overarching institutional logic that informed the university administration model and practice. Although both logics essentially co-existed as overarching frames guiding what was happening in the HE sector as well as at the Academy, the specific practice was influenced by predominantly one or the other at the different time points. At the same time, it will illustrate the institutional work of activism as an explanatory factor about the outcome in practice. This is illustrated in the figure below.

Figure 6.1 : Outsourcing in HE over time and space



The literature chapter (Chapter 5) presented an overview of what is meant by change in context and the need for empirical explanations for unplanned change. It also presented an overview on what is meant by institutional logics as well as what is known about activism. This section will explain what transpired over three phases, explaining the

decision to insource in 2016. The institutional logic (a market logic) informing outsourcing as a practice in the South African context in the late 1990's has shifted over time and the sense making for management at the Academy during the 2016 decision was influenced by activism. Over the years the institutional logic therefore informed decisions to either outsourcing or unplanned insourcing as was experienced in 2016. As one informant noted, *we saw the protests on outsourcing but we did not anticipate it here. It caught us totally off guard* (IE).

6.3.1 Setting the scene

The context setting regarding the practice of outsourcing is a vital frame of reference for the discussion of the findings and therefore it has been positioned in this chapter as opposed to Chapter 3 (the case) or Chapter 5 (literature). The definition of outsourcing is so broad that it includes virtually any good or service that an organisation procures from outside firms (Gilley & Rasheed, 2000). Gilley and Rasheed suggest however that outsourcing is less a purchasing decision than a rejection to internalise an activity that had previously or potentially been within the firm's managerial or financial capabilities.

A feature of the past restructuring of administrative and particularly 'blue collar' functions in HE in South Africa has been the adoption of business discourses and practices and talking about core and non-core business. History illustrates that the 'non-core' lines of work, including support services that are manual and menial, for example catering, cleaning, gardening or security, have undergone large scale restructuring in the South African HE landscape since the early 1990's (Van Der Walt, Bolsmann, Johnson, & Martin, 2002). The restructuring included widespread retrenchments as well as outsourcing of these services to contracted companies. Discussions on the transition from apartheid to democracy in South Africa often point out that this shift has been accompanied by a shift to an increasingly neo-liberal market ideology (van der Walt et. al,

2002).

In 1994 the ANC came into power and through the Reconstruction and Development program (RDP) promised a 'people-driven' and populist discourse of the fulfillment of basic needs and a better life for all based on job creation, infrastructure development, community development and improved service delivery (Orr, 2003). Following criticism (Gelb, 2004; Padayache and Valodia, 2001) and slow progress on the goals, the government unveiled its Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy (GEAR) in June 1996 (Adams, 2006) but again this was criticised, particularly by COSATU (Congress of South African Trade unions). GEAR was designed to increase labour market flexibility, promote fiscal austerity and increase government accountability and efficiency in order to attract local and foreign investment (Cloete and Kulati, 2003). The neo-liberal philosophy underlying this thinking and subsequent policies and practices was that the 'free market' was superior as a force to allocate resources (Hart, 2002). Unfortunately, the failure of GEAR to deal with poverty and equality was evident, as the country's Deputy President pointed out in 2006:

> A third of South African households are still not able to benefit directly from our relative economic success. Moreover, as long as a significant part of the population is excluded from the mainstream economy, our growth potential is considerably constrained.

The implication of ideological policy shifts had a significant impact on labour and the labour structure landscape in South Africa, some of which were anticipated by the then Minister of Finance:

> As South Africa proceeds with trade liberalisation and adapts to international competition, downward pressure will be placed on unskilled wages. If this is not accommodated by the labour market, then unemployment will rise[14].

A key tenant of GEAR was regulated flexibility in the labour market (Hart, 2002) . The economy has seen an increasing trend of informalisation and casualisation of labour to contend with cheaper labour practices internationally.

'Externalising' is another term that can be used for this form of outsourcing of work. It refers specifically to the process through which the employment relationship is devolved to a third party or nominal employer (Von Holdt & Webster, 2005). Promising higher efficiencies and cost reduction to subsequently increase productivity for businesses, outsourcing also has the potential to increase the skill base and expertise of staff in these specialised outsourced services (Bezuidenhout and Fakier, 2006). However, Von Holdt and Webster (2005), as well as Bezuidenhout and Fakier (2006) argue that once work is externalised, the complexity of the employment relationship is transformed into the simplicity of a commercial one and this transition disguises the real relations beneath the externalised relationship. In this sense, externalising leads to what is known as "disguised employment" where there is clearly an employment relationship but it is 'disguised' as a commercial relationship in which the employee receives no social benefits (UNRISD, 2005; Von Holdt &Webster, 2005). The business therefore does not have to directly deal with employee matters and this weakens the role of unions (Johnson, 2001).

One of the costs of the implementation of GEAR strategies such as privatisation, labour flexibility and trade liberalisation on labour and workers more generally, is referred to as the 'crisis in social reproduction' of perceived injustice (Hart, 2002; Webster & Von Hodlt,

[14] *Sunday Times,* 23 June 1996, in Marais (1998, p. 167)

2005; Bezuidenhout & Fakier, 2006). This crisis refers to the unintended impact or consequences to workers, for example reduced wages and limited or no benefits and consequent impacts like social and economic inequality. When combined with the effects of cut backs in state expenditure on social services, the reduced wages and conditions of employment have consequences for the social reproduction of society at large. In South Africa the new and progressive legislation that were designed to increase social justice, promote equality and protect formal sector jobs in South Africa, particularly the Labour Relations Act 1995 and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act 1998, were being undermined by moves towards flexible labour (Hart, 2002; Orr, 2003). This in turn has led to conclusions being drawn implying intensification and entrenchment of apartheid inequalities and cleavages (Bezuidenhout & Fakier, 2006; Hart, 2002; Orr, 2003) and a shift away from the intention of the Constitution.

In the 1990's, a socio-political logic of democracy aimed to produce a shift in the South African landscape towards equality, social transformation and opportunity for all. This coexisted with a capitalistic market logic and through policies like RDP and GEAR government endeavored to attract local and foreign investment. While the socio-political logic saw a shift in the public HE demographic, the market logic and a declining funding model from government informed the Administrative operating model. Management in public higher education applied similar practices to those of the private sector, including the 'externalisation of services' or outsourcing, which coincided with a view of a crisis in social reproduction.

The transition from apartheid to democracy brought with it a neoliberal market ideology and subsequently practices like outsourcing became the order of the day in public HE.

With this description of the South African socio-political and economic context in mind, we

turn attention back to the case study in 2016. The next section will explore how a predominant market logic was shifted through activism toward a socio political logic and led to a decision to change the practice and insource these workers.

6.3.2 Reframing as a trigger to unplanned change

As described above, the institutional logic (market logic) informing the practice of outsourcing was established at a macro socio economic level. This study will demonstrate that there were two different logics informing management decision-making to in-or outsource at two different points in time over a period of 15-17 years. In essence, the prevailing market logic in the 1990's guided management's understanding and decision-making and outsourcing was deemed a viable practice. It will however propose that during the 2016 decision to insource, a socio-political logic shifted management's thinking on the issue. Central to the shift in logics was the role of activism located in societal structures both within and outside the Academy. Social movements have always been a key driver of change, and in this case, activism was evident from the beginning (the #FMF movement gave impetus to #OMF). The Academy's unplanned decision to change was mapped into three phases, phase one and three distinctive in terms of the framing of the practice of outsourcing and its actions, and phase two serving as a transitionary phase for this logic. Table 6.1 presents a synopsis of the phases at the various stages and demonstrates the historical context.

The phases are presented as distinct, but as with process flows, the path of understanding and responding to the issue can be considered as an evolving history of interpretation and action. Each phase is described in terms of three components: key events and actions informing the dominant logic and practice; the influencing role of activism and lastly interpretation by management which led to decisions to insource or outsource, i.e. how the logic informed the practice.

Table 6.1 : How shifting logics determined management's framing of outsourcing over time and space

	Phase 1	*Transition* Phase 2	Phase 3
	1999-2015	**Quarter 4 2015**	**2016**
Dominant Logic	Market logic of Commercialisation (efficiency)	The context starts a shift in the dominant logic	Democratic (politics) logic of Equality
Key events and actions informing the logic and practice	Macro: End of Apartheid but a compromised democracy Meso: 'Market university' normalises outsourcing Micro: Academy transforms but a perceived marginalised student and worker experience persists	Macro: A fight for fairness and equality Meso: #FMF movement- fear and intimidation Micro: United student mobilisation	Macro: Social activism and political posturing in a blended economy Meso: Outsider activists target HE institutions Micro: Divided student movement and '10 days of war'
Influencing mechanism of activism	Insider activism in the form of recognised unions at Academy- focus is on the market logic	Unified student (intermediary activists) movement supported by an outsider social movement shines light on the plight of the 'missing middle'	Intermediary and outsider activists, with mixed intentions from political posturing and a human rights focus; activism focussed on a socio-political logic of equality and fairness
Interpretation for management at Uptown	Management not linking 'contract worker' beyond the SLA and outsourcing prevails		Framing the plight of the contract worker through organisational values shifts dominant logic; insourcing decision taken with unprecedented haste.

Researcher' summary

The next section will describe each of these phases. Phases 1 and 3 will conclude with a summary of the dominant logic during that time.

6.3.3 Phase 1: The 'market university' normalises outsourcing (1999-2015)

Within the context of the HE sector in South Africa, a drive to become more productive coupled with a decline in state funding forced HE institutions to reduce costs and strive for higher levels of efficiencies to attract funding from the private sector (Johnson, 2001). To this end the industry had taken on the practices and principles of the private sector, to

become a ‘market university’, and subsequently outsourcing of non-core functions was the order of the day.

At a societal level the period 1994-1999 saw the end of apartheid and the accompanying changes this brought with it, especially in the HE sector. The new democracy was experienced as a compromised democracy by the protestors of 2015/16, however. The compromise for the activists was especially situated in the socio economic consequences of democratic freedom. The majority of South Africans do not enjoy the economic freedom alluded to during the negotiations for democracy, and there does not seem to be an *understanding of the volatility of the South African socio-political context* (IL). Changes in labour legislation in the 1990’s (the Labour Relations Act, 66 of 1995 and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act) framed and directed labour relations. These new legislative frameworks were aligned to the previously outlined governmental strategies for economic growth and therefore at the time also “had the vestiges of a future flexible labour regime” (Johnson, 2001, p. 3). However, the flexibility of the labour regime created opportunity and wealth in one sphere but also led to job losses and reduced opportunities. Therefore, the uprising by the activists in 2015/16 could be linked to a political context with a long history (11). It was noted, for example, that during the negotiations to end apartheid*, some compromises had to be made by the ANC and it is such compromises that sat at the heart of the up rise* (IL).

Commenting on the macro level rationalisation of outsourcing and flexibility in labour relations which this new legislation introduced, Carnoy (in Johnson, 2001, p. 3) noted that the “workers are no longer only alienated from the means of production and the product of their labour but also from the job itself”. As per Carnoy, different parts of work are broken down, in this case blue-collar services separated from the overall Academy mandate,

accompanied by a loss in the meaning of work. As a result, the worker experienced both a declining minimum wage and benefits and also an environment where they have been disaggregated from traditional work networks. Adler et al. (2000, p. 23) noted about the experience at the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) that “pushing ahead with plans to outsource, may lead to the perpetuation of the Apartheid workplace regime”. This move had an impact on the representational security offered by labour organisations (unions) nationally but also in the sector and at the Academy. Standing (1997) believed that this affected representation security, which was essential. It implied that participants in the labour market had to have a secure capacity to bargain and influence the character of employment, to have a strong enough ‘voice’ to ensure that justice was pursued (Standing, 1997).

At a meso level, the public HE institutions in South Africa were aligned to these shifts. The logic of commercialisation led to non-core services being outsourced. This process included months of engagement (IL) at Uptown and took various forms and approaches across the various public HE institutions. The different approaches applied in the HE sector were important because they spoke to the framing and sense making by management of outsourcing versus the view of the worker or employee unions. A phased approach for example was followed by the then PENTECH (Peninsular Technicon) to gradually reduce labour and shift ways of working in anticipation of pressure from competition. The emphasis on competition demonstrates the market logic informing the practice. For other HE institutions the preferred option was to follow Section 189 (LRA), which prescribed consultation before retrenchment. However, a report from Wits indicated that staff believed this process only mimicked consultation whereas decision making happened unilaterally and the management approach constituted unilateral restructuring (Adler, et al., 2000). Another approach followed by the University of the Western Cape

(UWC) during this time saw leadership at UWC outsourcing the printing function. In this instance, staff opted to take voluntary packages and formed a closed corporation to deliver these services to the institution (Johnson, 2001). This empowerment contributed towards UWC management's belief that outsourcing was positive; while for unions it was negative as they suffered a loss in membership. For NEHAWU, their agreement at UCT was cancelled during this period and they experienced this as a loss in *moral and political high ground* (U). These alternative approaches challenged the unions' strategy by undermining their principled position against outsourcing yet without getting them to acknowledge its potential benefits.

For management at the Academy, this sense of the benefit of outsourcing was persuasive (6). A section 189 process of outsourcing and retrenchment was followed and their belief was that *the procurement process was fair* and they *paid for services at a level that was agreed at the bargaining council level*[15] (IL). The operating model was guided by the mission and mandate, and when deliberations on outsourcing were held it was always agreed that *it was part of the ethos of the Academy that* services not core to the mission of the institution be *left up to service providers to perform* (IL). Furthermore, management believed that when these services were managed internally it *did not work because it was just too much logistics to handle* (IL). This market logic therefore persisted at the micro organisational level but left a contract worker feeling marginalised because the practice of outsourcing was not their preference and they did not have adequate representation in the form of a recognised union at their place of work. These workers were also previously employed by the Academy and therefore *they knew what it felt like to be an employee,*

[15] Trade unions and employers' organisations in South Africa may apply to form bargaining councils. Bargaining councils deal with collective agreements, solve labour disputes, establish various schemes and comment on labour policies and laws.

receive things like benefits, but when outsourcing came to the fore they felt they were thrown out and had to come back as contractors (IE) (7).

This illustrates not only how the logic was established but furthermore how it cascaded down into the practice of outsourcing in an industry. Clearly evident was that management and the unions differed widely and that the apparent success of outsourcing meant the leaders at HE institutions were in control. The defining attributes of the market logic included an emphasis on efficiencies, flexibility in labour relations, alienation from production, a depersonalised contract worker and private sector funding in public HE institutions.

Activism as a mechanism to shift logic for management at Uptown

Activism was prevalent at all three levels in the environment on the matter of outsourcing, but during the first timeframe it operated predominantly through mechanisms of organised labour unions, or insider activists (8).

At a micro organisational level the *outsourcing issue was an old issue* (U); since 1999 the internally recognised employee unions had tabled the issue of outsourcing at the Academy but without success. Uptown Academy had recognised employee unions to represent the substantive interest of their employees. However, the contract workers, being employed through service providers, did not form part of this group of represented employees and were therefore not part of the constituencies of the unions. Nevertheless, over many years the union representatives at the Academy had voiced their objections to the treatment of contract workers but were always unsuccessful in changing the situation (8). In the case, these union representatives were defined as insider activists for two reasons. In the historical context, not all labour unions took on the case for outsourced

workers, but the specific union at the Academy had been embroiled in a labour court case with the Academy about insourcing since 1999 (Johnson, 2001). Secondly, the role and mandate for the union was to represent employees or their constituents at the Academy and for this they were compensated. Taking on the plight of the outsourced workers was not their mandate and they were not rewarded for this.

The story of the outsourced worker in HE in South Africa is carried by the majority of South African blue-collar workers (Johnson, 2001). Contrary to expectations, the democratic capitalist state had been unable to develop and protect its historical social basis, and for some contract workers the situation could be *likened to slavery or their situation during Apartheid* (C). The contract workers felt marginalised and dislodged from traditional organisational networks. Not having a recognised union where they were employed, they *felt they could be done away with at any time and this made them feel vulnerable* (IL). Their desire to be insourced did not revolve around minimum wage alone. As noted earlier, these workers were unhappy about being dislodged from networks and having minimal benefits and limited security in their jobs and this is ultimately what their discontent was about. However, the union representatives at the Academy framed and tabled it as an issue about minimum wage, and they were ultimately unsuccessful in raising full awareness among management at senior levels. The lack of success from the unions led to contract workers *losing confidence in them* (IL) at the Academy. It was consistent that throughout this period, the targeted activism was focused on a market institutional logic of commercialisation and was thus unsuccessful in fully expressing the plight of the workers (6).

Interpretation

At the Academy the framing of the core issue for the contract workers was not done adequately by the insider activists (the union in this case) for senior management to

understand and prioritise the matter. The prioritisation on internal staff matters clouded the existing knowledge and intelligence on the contractor issue at more senior management levels and there was not really an appreciation in earlier years of the *extent of the problem and what it could lead to* (IL). Management to some level had the knowledge of the issue to predict or anticipate a problem but chose to prioritise other issues (9).

None of the HE institutions had a *policy that specifically addressed people issues in procurement* (IL) services or outsourced functions and therefore had no means to raise awareness and deal with them. For managers who decided to outsource services in organisations, including the HE sector and the Academy, the 'contract worker' was always attached to a service level agreement (SLA) and had no identity as a human resource within the organisation. The SLA can be interpreted as a form of controlled governance or compliance (10).

The HE institutions referred to in this case are all public HE institutions with a partial reliance on State funding. The reluctance of management to consider the unions' proposals must be understood against the backdrop of their own financial constraints. While government had promoted insourcing, ensuring *quality jobs and security of tenure (IL)*, their funding of the HE sector had decreased over the preceding years, and this reinforced the persistence of management of HE institutions in their commercial narrative supporting outsourcing.

Summary

Framing is critical for effective sense making (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Not linking the contract worker issue beyond a commercial logic, the insider activists in essence de-personalised the plight of the contract workers, forcing management to see it only as an SLA to be addressed outside the standard people management processes (7).

Furthermore, financial constraints in their own context further exacerbated this narrow framing.

This section covered the development of the overarching logic. The table below summarises the defining attributes of this logic, including elements connected in a coherent pattern organised over time and space (11) and the distribution of power at the time. It furthermore demonstrates a sample of the organisational features informing management sensemaking and the practice of outsourcing.

Table 6.2 : The Institutional logic informing organisation models in public higher education

Period 1: 1999-2015 - Outsourcing prevails

Institutional Logic	Locus and types of control	Defining attributes of the logic	Organisational features of the enacted logic in practice
Market Logic New democratised SA experiences a Democratic logic in terms of demographic transformation but a focussed Market logic in terms of economic growth and development. This market logic dominates the management practice of outsourcing blue collar work in public HE.	Market forces exert control Public HE in SA *are driven to become more productive and this is coupled with a decline in State funding*	Market logic of commercialisation emphasise efficiencies This focus on efficiency creates a *Market university* model where outsourcing is normalised.	Non core functions distinguished The operating model was guided by the mission and mandate; it was agreed that *it was part of the organisation's ethos that services not core to the mission of the institution be left up to the professionals to do.*
		Flexibility in labour relations Changes in labour relations aligned to RDP and GEAR *had the vestiges of a future flexible labour regime.*	Procured services Management believed that procurement was *fair and rational and they paid for services at a level that was agreed at the bargaining council level.*
	Internal activists in the form of labour unions tried to motivate for insourcing but without success and this saw *contract workers losing confidence in them.* For the union representatives, this was also experienced as a *loss in moral and political high ground.*	Alienation from production The total service and product rendered can provide meaning of work but when the production chain is fragmented and elements are outsourced, the worker becomes *alienated from the product of their labour and the job itself.* It furthermore cuts the worker off from *work networks* as he is not officially part of the organisational network where he renders the service and is dislodged from those in his own organisation doing similar work on other work sites.	Service level agreement The contract worker was always depersonalised in the SLA and did not have an identity of 'human' resource within the organisation. None of the public HE institutions had a *policy that specifically addressed people issues in procurement services or outsourced functions.*
		Contract worker depersonalised The worker itself was buried within a service level agreement and the desegregation noted above had an *impact on labour relations and labour organisations.* It influenced *representation security* as it influenced the worker's capacity to bargain and influence the character of employment.	

6.3.4 Phase 2– transition: A society rises up (Quarter 4, 2015)

The previous section described how there was a dual logic (12) prevailing in South Africa and specifically how it influenced the HE sector between 1990 and 2015. In as much as there was a prevailing market logic, a socio political context influenced the democratisation of structures in society for the benefit of all, for example by leading to transformation in the demographics on campus, as was reported in Chapter 3. However, this logic only informed one element of restructuring on campus and included practices like student admissions and recruitment of staff. This democracy and new government also drove capitalism, with its market logic of economic growth and development. Section 6.3.3 demonstrated how this logic, accompanied with reduced state funding for public HE institutions, prompted managers at the Academy to believe that outsourcing was the right thing to do. A market logic thus informed the organisational model at the Academy.

During 2015, however, a shift occurred in the overarching logic influencing the administration in HE. The socio political logic started to influence management sense making with regard to the administration of HE. This section and the next aim to explain how this was achieved. This section is a transition to set up the logic. Section 6.3.5 will then explain how this institutional logic shifted the model to insourcing of services in January 2016, which caught management off guard.

During the student uprising in 2015, the story of inequality, fairness and economic freedom echoed across South Africa and touched on human dignity. As a nation, South Africans came together on the matter of the affordability of HE. This collaborative effort was also *largely driven through social media* (IL). Kyle Findley[16] (M) analysed social

[16] Kyle Findley is a Director of Data Science and a research scientist. During the hashtag movements in HE in 2015, he analysed over 400 000 tweets and published an article unpacking the events of the movement based on twitter data, with a heavy focus on networks.

media throughout the #movements in HE over the 2015/16 period and demonstrated how social media fast tracked the campaigns.

> *The resulting social movement was unprecedented in its scale and earnestness. In addition to taking to the streets, students (and many other South Africans) took to social media to voice their frustration and articulate their demands* (M).

This movement was not limited to the HE sector, however. At times, the tactics and language on social media became abusive and this could almost be likened to virtual gangs (13) The socialist influence across society *demanded quality work for all with security of tenure and an end to labour broker exploitation* (IL). A movement began to shift the narrative of outsourcing as it was linked to discontent against government structures and the perceived compromises during negotiations for democracy (Habib, 2016). This demonstrated how beliefs and values of the socio political logic started influencing practices in organisation administration and management. Rising a metaphorical banner to demand change (14).

As parts of society rose up against inequality, including the political stand-off described in Chapter 3, links between the impact of what was done in Phase 1 and the uprising in Phase 2 became clear. Post democratisation in the nineties, the state was instrumental in the creation of outsourcing, promoting policy leading to flexibility in the labour market. At the same time, however, the State placed pressure on organisations in South Africa for quality jobs and security of tenure, yet in the public HE institutions they did not support the institutions financially to achieve this. HE leadership was given the responsibility to convert contract labour into permanent employees at a policy level, *but the funding did not follow suit* (IL). In order *to comply with legislation around equal work and equal pay* (IL), management therefore interpreted this as applying only to direct contract labour working

for the institution and not to outsourced services. To this extent therefore, with regard to the operating model, the HE industry fell back on the commercial narrative, market logic.

However, when the first HE institution announced its decision to insource in 2015, the Minister of HE and training *publically congratulated the management team of that HE institution* (IL). This created a dichotomy in the existing narrative and framing of outsourcing as it was constructed under prevailing market logic. An announcement like this started linking the practice of outsourcing to beliefs and values of segregation, discrimination and inequality (6).

Activism as a mechanism to shift prevailing market logic

This case demonstrated the unifying effect of "the cause", as it was not just poverty-stricken students who were mobilising. The mobilisation initially had a unified face where students of all sub-groupings, including race and levels of economic privilege, were observed uniting against the exclusivity of HE. They represented intermediary activists within the Academy and were joined and supported by outsider activists in the broader context in society.

The fight for 'fairness' was very visible not only in this case but across the country, where daughters and sons of prominent public figures spoke for the cause, often with the support of their well-known parents, for example the then Public Protector, Thuli Madonsela, who had a reputation for fighting for justice and fairness (15). Her daughter was a student at the Academy and although she was not previously disadvantaged nor part of the missing middle, she was prominent in demonstrating for the cause as part of the intermediary activists. At another prominent HE institution, the son of the Vice Chancellor was outspoken in his support for the cause as an active participant in the #FMF movement. Other examples included the sons of Brian Molefe and Reverend Frank Chikane, both high profile South Africans who could be classified as privileged, being

arrested during the hashtag movements. This demonstrated something about the kinds of people who were identifying with the struggle (Jansen, 2017). These activists were confronted with an environment fraught with inequality, which presented the dominant narrative for post-democratic South Africa (5).

At the Academy, intermediary activism (students, in this case), supported by outsider activists, was successful due to the application of various tactics including intelligence of timing, space and social media (16). The timing was crucial in the life of the Academy. Mobilising during the last quarter (examination time) and the start of a new academic year placed the Academy in a vulnerable position to *want to resolve the matter quickly* (IE). Intelligence on space was also applied as students on campus knew the vulnerabilities of campus locations. During registration period, the activists *occupied and shut down the client Centre* (S1) as this was the heart of activity at the time for the Academy. Furthermore, activists targeted institutions that could potentially afford insourcing, applying the practice from a predominantly market logic perspective. For the previously disadvantaged institutions (PDI), outsourcing services was primarily about affordability, but for institutions like the Academy the concept of the market university drove the decision to outsource. Activists with critical information about the internal workings within an organisation can use this to their advantage. Targeting at the right time when the institution is vulnerable could facilitate a successful mobilisation, as was demonstrated in the case (17).

Another crucial tactic observed in the case was the skillful use of social media. Social media (18) has created a platform to fast track mobilisation, and it incorporated various student structures on campus. Virtually every student and worker irrespective of economics or social standing had a mobile device. This meant that everyone had access to real time communication. During the crises period it was not only the official

management communication that was shared but various stakeholders communicated on the event too. When the students united during the #campaigns, twitter handles were created and maximised. One twitter handle for example could simultaneously incorporate various student structures on campus. The messages through social media also had a reach beyond the campus community and thus enabled external people to support the campaign and mobilise with the students. At the onset of the campaign, social media was therefore a key enabler to mobilisation and ultimately forcing the decision (18).

Interpretation

Leading the new democracy during the 1990's, the ANC prioritised black empowerment, governance and legislation. Black representation in government positions was on the increase but this was not perceived as total economic empowerment and fairness amongst the masses. The *lady sitting on a street corner selling fruit had no power just because she is black and there are now black females in government* (IL). Economic empowerment was limited and fragmented, leading to a marginalised middle class.

The missing middle (19) is an established common-sense classification in South Africa (Fernandes & Sene, 2011) and refers to students who are too poor to afford higher education (HE) but not poor enough to qualify for government or public funding. It was the plight of this 'missing middle' that formed the central focus of the #FMF movement. The outsourced workers in this case presented a similar identity. A contractual agreement between service providers (their employer) and Uptown Academy (the case organisation) left them marginalised; employed and therefore not regarded as poverty stricken, yet paid a wage that made them unable to afford the fees and associated costs of HE for themselves or their children, if they so wish (7). This is an important interpretation to note here as it was this identity that ignited Phase 3. The #FMF movement included not only

poverty stricken students protesting (IL) but a broader portion of society who joined in sympathy with the *perceived social injustice* (U) underlying the campaign.

Summary

The 'missing middle' identity was linked to intermediary and outsider activists and this brought like-minded activists together. The missing middle (students) at the micro level (the Academy) and their campaign for affordable HE for all, had the political ambition to rectify years of exclusion from the privilege of tertiary education. The #FMF movement was successful and created momentum from which the #OMF campaign catapulted. It included a mix of intermediary activists (students) and outsider activists in the form of members of political parties, outsourcing activists (WASP) as well as indirect influence from the student activists at other HE institutions. These intermediary and outsider activists had little to no dependence on the Academy and therefore had an increased incentive to voice grievances. The prominence of some of the parents also lent further credence to the moral cause and they were able to influence and garner support. The knowledge of the vulnerabilities of management on campus and the timing of the mobilisation held by the intermediary activists at the Academy facilitated successful campaigning. The students applied their knowledge of the location and vulnerabilities in terms of security on campus to mobilise a successful campaign. According to the insider-outsider framework, outsiders generally have low levels of knowledge about their target organisation. However, in a matter of national interest where the external and internal context collide, as was the case for outsourcing in the HE sector, the framing of the problem of outsourced workers was better articulated and communicated through external activists, as will be described in the next section in Phase 3. This framing and vocalisation of the matter eventually led to the establishment of a commission on outsourcing through the Department of Higher Education in early 2016.

6.3.5 Phase 3: 'Ten days of war' (2016) – insourcing in keeping with values

The case took an unexpected turn in January 2016 when the student movement took on the plight of contract workers and #OMF came to the fore. The mobilisation from the student campaigns, supported by external activists and political influence, created the momentum and gravitas for the #OMF campaign to be successful at Uptown Academy and various other HE institutions in South Africa (16). Leaders at the HE institutions facing the same challenge during 2015-2016 did not get much sleep over that period. Nerves were on edge, trying to manage safety and assurance to multiple, diverse stakeholders (parents, shareholders, boards, student bodies, etc.). University leadership stood between government, which required accountability, and students, who demanded accessibility, while making moral sense, at a very personal level, of the deep financial exclusion and cultural alienation for students and contractors alike (Jansen, 2017) (20). At Uptown Academy, the decision to insource was taken in exactly nine days from the moment the #OMF mobilisation activated, demonstrating the powerful force of the movement.

The outsourcing narrative shifted very quickly from one of commercialisation to inequality linking the outsourced worker to the 'missing middle' identity. This socio political logic, with its belief in human dignity and fairness, now shifted management sense making to whether outsourcing was *in keeping with the organisational values* (IL). Managers suddenly started referring to a *secure and stable environment as critical toward achieving the vision* (O) of the Academy, and in so doing linked the role of the outsourced service workers to the mission of the Academy. This was an interesting observation for me as I reflected that when I reviewed the strategy and risk register for the organisation, I had not identified this view as being reflected in the strategy. This further demonstrated the intensity and quick shift of the logic and thus the influence of activism as a mechanism to shift this logic (2). The issue extended beyond a payment issue but shed light on the

treatment of these workers. At another HE institution a similar conceptualisation was highlighted and suggestions made that councilors should be willing to sacrifice their financial fiduciary responsibility in favour of their academic and social responsibilities (Habib, 2016), thus demonstrating the shift in logic that is socially constructed at a macro level.

This moment at the onset of Phase 3 therefore presented an interesting shift in the perception of management on the plight of the outsourced worker (6). Management started questioning *whether they were not in touch at all levels* (IL) (21). They re-framed the outsourcing issue, taking organisational values into consideration, which acted as a beacon in terms of action and decision-making. Reflecting on the decision afterwards, an informant working on the periphery and supporting the change facilitation process shared how the decision impacted her at a very deep and emotional level and alluded to how this could also have influenced the management team in their decision-making process: *I felt quite tense about what this insourcing will cost the Academy, but that day when they returned (*referring to the former contractors) *I felt absolute jubilation* (IE). The explanation emphasised the existence of a dual logic and what it took to shift management sense making. Although the values and vision remain consistent the issue was not interpreted in a different way by management until activism shifted. Although the dual logic however existed during all three phases, there always appeared to be a primary logic influencing the organisation dominant logic while the other existing logic (Socio political logic of democracy) lurked in the background and predominantly applied for governance.

Activism as a mechanism to shift market logic towards a socio political logic

The 'fight for fairness' was important, as it was exactly this idea that created the strong link between the internal micro and the external macro levels. While the students as intermediary activists fought for the rights of the outsourced workers at the Academy, there

was a gravitas in the external environment that impacted the mood on campus and required from management the *need for a quick resolution* (IE). Management needed to be aware of what was happening in both the external and internal environment simultaneously. The on-going violence and demonstrations at other institutions made employees at the Academy *anxious and this heightened the urgency for a peaceful resolution* (IE). *The country was "burning"* (IL), so to speak.

The #OMF campaign was about improving the financial position of contract workers but at a deeper level it touched on the vulnerability of all those caught in the 'missing middle' of society. The #OMF campaign enjoyed macro support especially from one particular political party setting itself up as *fighting for the marginalised* (M) as well as from other external activists lobbying for outsourcing to be ended. It was this common, socially constructed identity of being lost, forgotten and unheard that created synergy between the protesting students (intermediary activists) and the plight of the contract workers (7). More often than not, *education was also unaffordable because of these types of employment practices* (U). While these two groups represented a similar social level identity, their mobilisation was different. The students protested directly while the contract workers provided indirect support. Negotiating on employee related matters, the students, as intermediary activists, entered a domain not traditionally theirs. The type of activism was therefore fluid and also included hashtag movements (22). External to the organisation, outsider activists (non-student EFF members and other lobbyist groups like WASP for example) (23) empathised with the cause of the students and contract workers, enabling them in terms of vocabulary (words utilised in employee related negotiations). Students were suddenly throwing words around which they *mostly did not even fully comprehend*. This gave management the impression that *someone else had been feeding them with ideas and vocabulary* (IL).

The outsourced workers could also be described as intermediary activists. Although not actively mobilising, they enabled the disruption indirectly through the evacuation of their posts. Out of fear of losing their jobs, the contract workers were not in a position to mobilise, but they were vulnerable to intimidation (by external activists) and thus stayed away from work. However, by not arriving for work, security staff left the organisation vulnerable to perceived 'attack'. While this form of activism may not have been a deliberate choice, their absence from campus contributed to the disruption and subsequent vulnerability of the Academy.

As noted earlier, the activism was not limited to the students as intermediary activists; outsider activists with varying motives also had an influence. Intelligence on the space (target) and timing was not limited to the students; outsider activists like WASP and the EFF saw the opportunity and vulnerability of the HE sector. They started at HE institutions because *these were soft targets but they eventually moved across industries* (IL). It was at this juncture where the strong influence of the EFF (outsider activist) created a shift in the intermediary (student) activist movement. At the onset of #OMF, the united movement between students on campus that existed during the #FMF movement started crumbling (22). The influence of macro political ideologies on the micro level emerged, causing a split in the student movement along political party lines, primarily ANC and EFF. It was at this point that the mobilisation took a more intense and violent turn. The EFF *were the dominant group leading this* (IL) *and suddenly allot of red shirts*[17] *popped up* (U). A big misconception in the #movements was the presumption that 'students' or intermediary activists represented one mass amorphous group. A part of the challenge in resolving the crises earlier lay in the failure of management to discern the varied political, ideological and strategic orientations within the 'student as activist' group.

[17] Red shirts are the branded clothing of the EFF political party.

The change process originated with a unified movement for #FMF that saw collaboration among the various student groups on campus (including traditional student structures and branches of the ANC and EFF political parties on campus) and the creation of a temporary structure in the form of a central planning committee (CPC). During Phase 2 (#FMF) all the various student representative structures on campuses were represented in the CPC. This represented a smart tactical move among the activists as there was no one single individual to call to account. This *type of collaboration and mobilisation toward a united cause has never happened at the Academy at this scale* (IE) and was one of the key factors that ensured their success in 2015.

A shift in this collaborative approach came about when the #OMF agenda came to the fore. A split came about in the collaborative effort when the *ANC affiliated student bodies were told by government representatives to back off while the EFF branch pushed forward* (C) with the demand to insource (24). This demonstrated the influence of outsiders and political ideologies. While the ANC had socialist roots, the perception among parts of society at large was that the *ANC leadership was amongst the first to build empires in the country* (U). The ANC branch on campus was instructed to 'back off' from the #OMF movement because the intention of the #OMF movement was not aligned to the mandate and ideology of the party (5). Furthermore, it was a deliberate tactic of the EFF to drive their ideology through #OMF and win votes in the upcoming national party elections (23).

The EFF student branch aligned itself with the ideology and aims of their national structure in South Africa. The EFF political party has a radical and populist economic program (Mbete, 2014) and approach, setting itself up as holding the ANC to account on their 1994 promises. Such movements depict themselves as defending the 'pure people' against the 'corrupt elite' and for the EFF these people are the poor, marginalised masses of South Africa (Mbete, 2014). At a national (macro) level the EFF had been fighting

outsourcing overtly since the beginning of 2015 and are considered outsider activists in this case. The success in the student campaign in 2015 therefore presented a unique opportunity to build momentum by aligning the cause to their movement. It furthermore saw the support at a macro level by the EFF national structure to push the power against management at HE, and so, indirectly, against the ANC-led government.

In as much as the political posturing from a national level was observed at the micro level on campus, some political parties made this very blatant and expanded the posturing to full on “war” (25). War-like terminology was often referenced and we saw in the broader socio-political context that even political party leaders talked about a “war council” when they met to strategise around the situation of outsourcing.

The activism was instrumental in the fight toward insourcing but indirectly started shifting the dominant institutional logic concerning the practice of outsourcing away from commercialisation and more toward a socio political logic of democracy. It raised awareness of the plight of the workers that was not only about their financial constraints but also emphasised the position of the worker as forgotten and unheard, lost in an SLA. The explanation expanded on the working of activism and what was also noted when the mobilisation turned violent was the presence of looters (26).

The organisational readiness of the Academy to deal with the crises was notably lacking; they experienced it as unexpected and were shocked to realise just how unprepared they were. This further increased the level of anxiety across all stakeholders; management were anxious to find a resolution to a crisis (17) that created disruption physically but also threatened their subjective sense of self. The senior management structure at the Academy admitted that although there was much pressure through the mobilisation and external influence to force the decision, a consideration was also whether it was in keeping with the values of the Academy (6). The framing of the plight of the

outsourced workers prior to 2015 was situated within the SLA, allowing for the issue to be de-personalised. The 2015/16 uprising highlighted the vulnerability of the contract workers within a social context marred by inequality (12). This shifted the capacity of senior management to reflect on their framing and, in essence, to normalise the issue of contract workers within the SLA. From this point on, the organisational values became a guide and the contract workers were framed as part of the 'missing middle'. When senior management were confronted with the manner in which contract workers were treated and how they were compensated, they believed it was not "morally justified" and this created internal dissonance (Festinger & Carlsmith,1959). The previous confrontation by the unions (internal activists) was not successful because they only positioned the issue in a commercial logic.

Interpretation

The mobilisation that spread across the country and affected the Academy had a major impact on moving the management decision to insource. However, it was not merely pressure but also a shift in the logic informing outsourcing that drove management to this decision (2). Questions management were confronted with during this time included *the costs of the organisation being closed for a day* (IL) due to mobilisation, and the reputational costs of having slogans branding you as *militarised university workspaces* (IL). Although these interpretations still bordered on a market logic, there was also a perception of the value attached to the Academy becoming *places of dignity for students and* workers (IL), and success could be built on that (12). Although these questions appear to emanate from a dominant market logic, the beliefs and values of an inherently socio political logic started to influence management sense making of the practice of insourcing and what it means for the worker. This subsequently led to a shift in the practice of outsourcing to insourcing due to a shift in the dominant logic informing outsourcing.

Generally, it implies that when multiple institutional logics coincide within an organisation dominant logic, they are never equally influential. One would dominate while the second logic lurks in the background and merely influences certain organisational practices for controlled governance or compliance. In these instances, specifically when it pertains to a socio-political logic being the secondary institutional logic, activism would be prominent.

According to the insider-outsider framework, the outsider and intermediary activists would typically have a lower resource dependency than potential internal activists. The outsider activists in this case had no resource dependency on the Academy, and were thus able to voice their grievances with limited consequences. Being external to the governance or management structures of the Academy, both outsider and intermediary activists were able to recruit others into participating and had a lower barrier to the deployment of disruptive tactics, implying limited consequences to them directly bar legal action. As intermediary activists, the students did not have insight and knowledge on the full scope and process of insourcing. The alignment between the students and the workers now created a mobilisation effort through activism that caught the organisation by surprise. The students, as intermediary activists in this regard, came into a *terrain that was not theirs* (IL) to push management on an organisational management decision. This alignment of students with outsourced workers was considered *unique* (IE).

Summary

A combination of intermediary and outsider activism saw a shift in scale and violence on the mobilisation effort that drove management to a decision in an unprecedented '*ten days of war*' (IL). Political ideology (27) came to the fore and saw a shift in the collaborated student movement. Re-framing of the outsourced contractor plight saw organisational values being referenced and influencing management perception of the issue. Another source of pressure on management was negative media (18) reflecting the

hyped up public perception of the prevailing logic about outsourcing. The combination of factors including violent coercion, re-framing of the normalisation of SLA and pressure from outside, caught management at the Academy totally off guard as students moved into a domain taking on employee related issues.

Sections 6.3.4 and 6.3.5 present the development of the overarching logic informing in/ outsourcing and summarise the defining attributes of this logic, including elements connected in a coherent pattern organised over time and space and the distribution of power at the time. The table below summarises the defining attributes of this logic and demonstrates a sample of the organisational features informing management sense making and the practice of in/outsourcing.

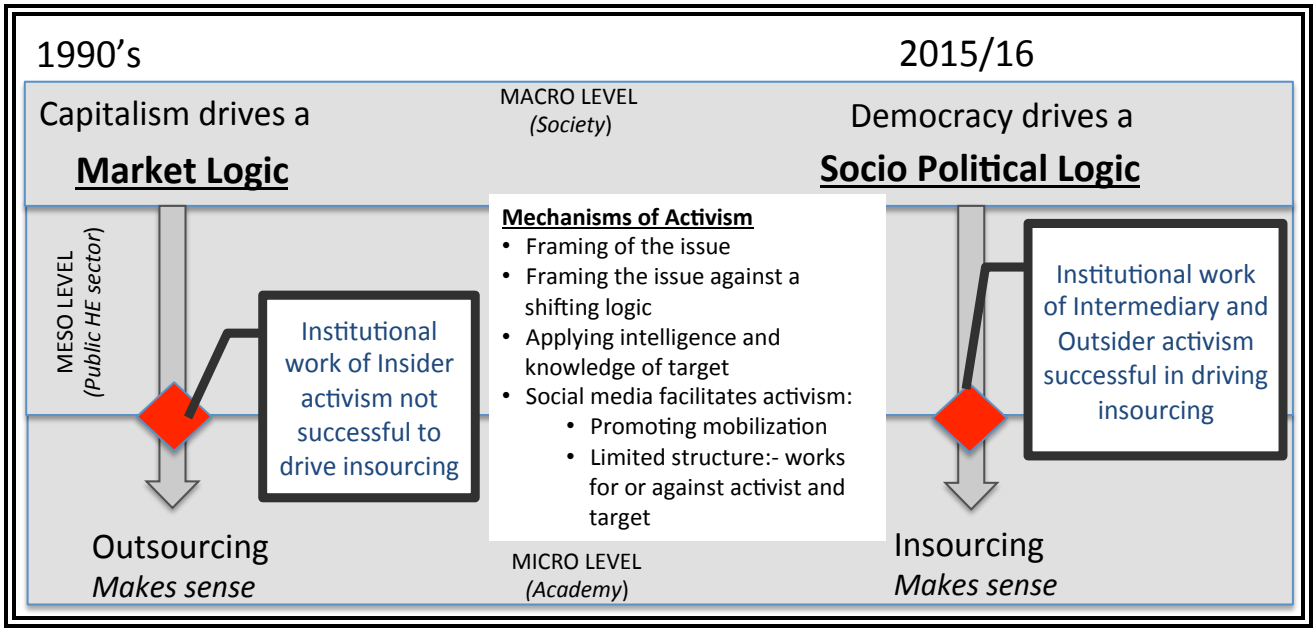
Table 6.3 : The Institutional logic informing organisation models in public higher education

Period 2: January 2016- Decision to insource			
Institutional Logic	Locus and types of control	Defining attributes of the logic	Organisational features of the enacted logic in practice
Socio political logic of fairness Socialist influence across society said *quality work for all was needed, security of tenure and labour broker exploitation needed to stop.*	Social pressure on fairness and equality Intermediary and outsider activists instrumental in shifting the logic and sense making; focus on *the plight of the missing middle.* The momentum from the student campaigns created the *momentum and gravitas for the #OMF success.*	Strive for fairness and economic freedom The logic of fairness influenced the meaning making of practices (like outsourcing) but only in instances where it was perceived as such. For PDI's the decision was always about affordability while the HEI's targeted by activists in 2015/16 opted for outsourcing not only because of financial drivers *but the services deemed not important and core to their mission.* These workers were therefore *lost and forgotten* and this was the dominant framing narrative.	Vulnerability recognised thus making non core become mission critical (eg. A secure and stable environment) The vulnerability in terms of security, which came to the fore very strongly during the student mobilisation, now had management questioning their sense making of core vs. non-core. Senior leaders suddenly started referring to a *secure and stable environment as mission critical to achieving their vision.*
		Human dignity The #OMF campaign was about improving the financial position of workers but essentially it was about the vulnerability of those caught in the missing middle, a *fight for the marginalised.*	
		The missing middle in society The missing middle identity linked the logic to the management practice of outsourcing. The movement not only *included poverty stricken students but a broader portion of society who joined in sympathy with the perceived social injustice underlying the campaign.*	Morally justified decision making The logic, with its belief in the value for human dignity and fairness, now shifted management sense making to whether the practice of outsourcing was *in keeping with our values.*
	The State shift the logic by *publically congratulating the management team of another HE institution* when they announced insourcing.	Protecting the poor from the corrupt elite to redress compromises made at time of negotiating for democracy. The movement to shift the logic on organisational practices (like outsourcing) is largely driven politically with the EFF's radical and populist economic program; setting itself up to hold the ANC to account on their 1994 promise. Defending the *pure people against the corrupt elite.*	
		Cultural and financial alienation University leaders were confronted with the *deep financial exclusion and cultural alienation* for students and contract workers alike and had to make sense of it at a very personal level.	

6.3.6 Discussion

Using institutional logics as a lens, I found that the macro organisational context, which is the institutional field in which the Academy operates, set a logic that influenced management when framing knowledge that guided their decision making. It furthermore demonstrated the role of activism in shifting this logic. This is summarised in the figure below:

Figure 6.2 : Outsourcing in higher education over time and space and the influence of activism



As indicated earlier in the report, institutional logics are socially constructed and historically contingent. The logics that informed the organisational practice of in or outsourcing was described and explained in the sections above and summarised in Tables 6.2 and 6.3. Activism influenced this and the case illustrated how this was successful in Phase 3 but unsuccessful in Phase 1. The success in Phase 3 was driven predominantly through mechanisms like the framing of an issue, the application of knowledge and the role of social media.

Intelligence as a theme is congruent with current literature (Briscoe and Gupta, 2016) in terms of the knowledge and insight of internal and outsider activists about their targets. This was evident in the case study in various areas but specifically in the ability of activists and protestors to intimidate management, as they had access to valuable information to know where and when to target. This insight was critical toward explaining unplanned change. The insider-outsider framework implies that insiders have intelligence while in the case it was established that not framing the intelligence correctly caused the unions (insider activists) to be unsuccessful in their attempt to raise awareness at senior management level of the plight of the contract workers. This lack of understanding internally is what created the shock when #OMF came to the fore in the way it did and ultimately forced unplanned change.

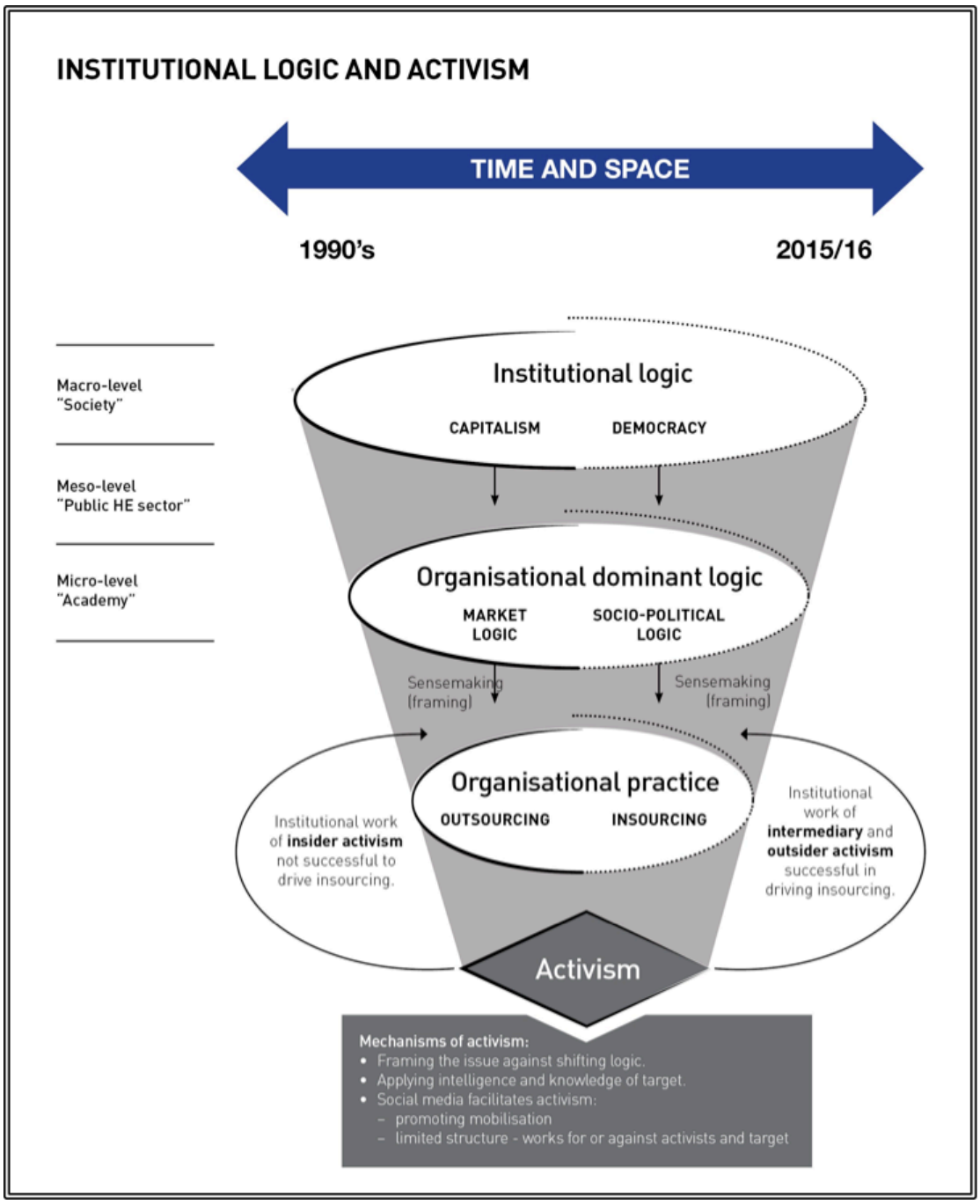
In the study, students were framed as intermediary activists with greater knowledge of organisational values and routines than outsiders (as posited by Briscoe & Gupta, 2016), but they lacked formal insight and influence into management structure and processes relating to organisational management. With the influence and support from external forces (outsider activists), the students were able to influence management decision-making on a topic not usually within their domain. Their success arose both from their knowledge about the organisation and management's failure to act on knowledge they possessed. From this explanation, a number of theoretical concepts and constructs were highlighted which will inform the grounded theory model in Chapter 7. These are summarised in the table below.

Table 6.4 Data structure of emerging themes relating to context and activism

Theoretical concepts emerging from the data	Constructs	Emerging themes
5 -Perceived government inefficiencies -Perceived social injustice	3 Blended economy informs multiple logics	1 Reframing as a trigger to unplanned change
11 Time and context- legacy issues		
27 Social actors takes cues from national political events		
20 Understanding what is happening	6 Sensemaking in decision making	
12 Multiple logics	4 Discourse and action in organisation 4a) Institutionalised practice and tradition	
10 Controlled governance or compliance		
21 The Eifel Tower complex		
8 Types of activism 15 -Socially minded citizen 22 -Hashtag (#) movements 23 -Professional activist 26 -Looters	17 Tactical responsiveness	2 Influence of activism in shifting logic
16 Mechanisms and tactics	18 Unsocial media	
9 Operationalising intelligence		
19 Missing middle		
7 Disenfranchised worker		
24 Co-opetition		

Figure 6.3 below summarises the influencing role of activism toward frame bending.

Figure 6.3: The influencing role of activism toward frame bending



The next section explains the types of power that created the forced nature and gravitas for the decision to be taken with unprecedented haste. Fleming and Spicer (2014) posited that institutional logics appeared to have downplayed the role of power in organisations. This is especially concerning since the founding insights of Friedland and Alford (1991) were that political and power relationships stemmed from class and

corporate domination. What was interesting for me was that power to force the change was not prevalent only in 2016 but had been at work since outsourcing began.

6.4 COLLECTIVE DISCOURSE OF IDENTITY ENACTING POWER

In organisational change literature, power has predominantly been situated within the organisational structure. Applying an identity lens to change has been theorised from a planned change perspective. This section offers an explanation of unplanned change forced on the Academy in a socio political and socio-economic context. It addresses identity at the collective, societal level enacted as a power mechanism forcing unplanned change. I looked at the discourse of identity at a collective level and not at individual or organisational identity. It is about what the discourse does.

Using the lens of Fleming and Spicer (2014), four forms of power were identified in the case study and explained the phenomenon of power forcing unplanned change. These were manipulation, coercion, domination and subjectification. Behind these lay four identities that acted as power mechanisms forcing the change: racial identity which gave raise to a historical meaning of identity, identities of 'the black child' and 'contract worker', also earlier constructed as disenfranchised worker and a subservient identity rendering the workers voiceless. All gave rise to forms of power that explain how unplanned change can be forced upon an organisation from a macro context.

6.5 PATTERNS OF IDENTITY ENABLING POWER

At the Academy, the #OMF campaign had a visible, driven intent but was mostly informal, indicating that in this context power was mostly enacted through informal social structures. This aligns with the findings of Fleming and Spicer regarding the faces of power in that the case identified both the direct exercise of power as well as indirect forms of influence (Fleming & Spicer 2014). The interactions in and around Uptown Academy

provided a useful window into the evolution of unplanned, forced change. The sections below seek to explain how the different types of identities operationalised power, culminating in a forced unplanned change decision.

6.5.1 Direct (episodic) power

The case study showed that power grew as identification increased, leading to a direct mobilisation of power (coercion) and finally to unplanned change.

This explanation is started where it makes most sense, at the end, with the instance of unplanned change. An explanation renders that identity and power demonstrated a variable relationship in that an increase in identification enabled an increase in power, leading to change. This power was explained as a direct mobilisation of power (coercion).

6.5.1.1 Coercion: Historically informed meaning of identity as the basis for mobilising

Racial identity and the mobilisation of historical meanings and realities associated with particular racial groups in South African society was a key identity-related factor behind the change. Historically, people of colour were excluded from meaningful economic activity and thus a legacy of poverty is closely associated with particularly black people in South Africa (29). This meant that many students of colour arrive at Uptown with minimal resources and unable to meet the rising cost of tertiary education or their basic living expenses while studying. It was this dire need that triggered the #FMF campaign across universities in South Africa, in the first place (the economic context), and was picked up by a political party as a driver in their election campaign, putting #FMF on the national agenda. The Academy, traditionally white and Afrikaans, had over the years accepted increasing numbers of students of colour, due to changes in the socio-political context and the racial profile of students on campus had changed considerably (11): *There is a profile change with which we are not keeping up* (IL). The same could not be said for the profile of the academic staff, however, which remained largely white. On the other hand, support

staff; many of whom were also contract or insourced workers, were not white. In many instances people of colour were responsible for menial labour such as cleaning, security and gardening services. As one informant suggested, *they (referring to the students) walk in and out of campus. What do they see, they see black men and women bending down, looking down. Everyone looking up, standing straight are white. The people cleaning, in the garden and security, looks like them. And it resonates with them. The rarest species in fact is the black female professor* (IL).

The students recognised in the contract workers what their parents were experiencing in the market sector (29). *There was certainly some resonance there, some aha moment between the students and the workers. We could dismiss it but I think there is resonance that needs to be explored. Maybe both feel excluded, they are aggrieved, outsiders to the universities* (IL). The socio-economic context was affected by a blended economy. Poverty-stricken students were supported in their marching by the missing middle class (19), for all of whom the protest was experienced as *being in principle about perceived social injustices* (U). The blended economy therefore served as a conditional factor in the macro context (5). This resonance was confirmed by one of the contract workers who suggested that *the students talked on our behalf. This caught us by surprise. I think it came from the fact that the same students are our sisters and brothers, we represent their parents. They are from the suffering and they see us and they know what we earning because their parents are earning next to nothing and this is a struggle. We are helpless and as parents we can't take this struggle and somehow they saw it* (C). Because of the history of apartheid and exclusion from meaningful economic activity, being black meant that in most instances you were poor and struggled to make ends meet. There was identification on the basis of race and the economic deprivation that often went side by side with being black.

As the process unfolded, physical tactics like *mobilising groups of protestors* (IL) as well as violence in the form of attempts and threats to destroy property caused conflict and intimidated management (16). *There were times when management were held at ransom simply because of mobilisation* (E). For example, one of the major movements or tactics was when the students *occupied and shut down the client service centre* (S). This is the heart of organisational administration, and management were forced to close the institution. The violent mobilisation came *quickly and with force* (E). The combined mobilisation of segments of the student population and key contract workers placed huge pressure on management to find a speedy and non-violent resolution to the conflict. The exercise of direct power originated largely through the mobilisation of large numbers of students collaborating with contract workers and the application of tactics designed to intimidate (28). This was aided by the mobilisation of insourced security workers who were employed to guard the campus. When they abandoned their posts, there was 'chaos'.

Yet these two factors cannot fully explain why management responded so quickly, and it is here that I believe that the historical meanings associated with race played a significant role (29). #FMF campaigns had happened before, at what were known as *historically black universities* (IL), and yet this had brought no change in the status quo. One of the participants raised the pertinent question: *If the Uptown group were all white, would our attitude be different*? (IL). *When you have black workers and students rising up, you call the police. When you have white workers and students rising up you call psychologist and other such people to help us understand what is happening here. I see that playing out again and again at universities* (IL). What I am suggesting is that the meaning associated with black students protesting lead to an interpretation of the mobilisation of "danger" and "threat", rather than "need" or "psychological intervention".

This interpretation in conjunction with the other identity-related power mechanisms brought about a change in the possibilities regarding the viability of insourcing.

6.5.1.2 Manipulation: Linking the identity of the contract worker to "the black student"

In mobilising the contract workers, the students behind the movement linked the plight of the contract worker (predominantly black) to that of the "black student" and "black child" who could not afford access to education (30). One of the contract workers explained it as follows:

This thing came about as a result of the high fees that students must pay and most black students cannot afford it. Black kids cannot afford these fees and there have been talks with the current government about this education situation but it seems those who are in government are not willing to do that. Now, the students saw it fit to take things into their own hands... Basically it was about access to education for a black child. That is how it started.

By taking up the cause of contact workers, students were able to place their plight within the domain of education (28) and to associate it with the demand for free access for students from lower income groups (predominantly black). In this way something that belonged more appropriately in the macro context and domain was forced into the organisational domain, the micro space. In addition, the timing was fortuitous as the matter of the contract workers was placed within an academic time frame – at the start of the academic year and in the context of the relative safety that characterises HE in South Africa. This had a manipulative power effect as it ensured action and discussion occurred within the boundaries of the HE setting (30). The timing was perfect as it was the start of a new year and students were returning to campus. Management was forced to cancel orientation day for its first-year students and questions were raised by prospective students' parents about the suitability of the institution as a place of higher learning. There

was the potential threat that parents would move their children elsewhere, with the consequent loss of income. Secondly, the academic environment is usually considered to be a safe space, a perception supported by the significant number of security personnel contracted in. However, the safety of Uptown Academy as an institution of higher learning was brought into question when the tactics of intimidation and violence were bolstered by the inclusion of security personnel in the mobilisation of the contract workforce. These issues posed a threat to the reputation of the institution and management was forced to act quickly, manipulated into compliance with the students' wishes. By linking the contract worker to the needy student identity, students *were able to make the social academic* (IL), and so force change.

6.5.2 Indirect (systemic) power

6.5.2.1 Domination through the identity of 'the contract worker'

The indirect power discussed in this section, did not lead to change, but set up the conditions that created an environment ready for change when direct power was enacted. A dominating form of power attempts to make relations of power appear inevitable and natural, manufactures consent and often brings with it conformity with an institution of some sort (31). A key factor in this type of power for the Academy was the SLA it had in place with service companies (32), which gave rise to an identity of 'a contract worker' (7), and facilitated a normalisation of domination (31). The Academy had in place an SLA with service companies for the provision of blue-collar labour such as gardening and security. Such an agreement can be considered a governance framework, which aims to normalise the power management has over disenfranchised workers. The service companies operated on a commercial model in which they sold what were deemed non-core services to companies who did not want responsibility for managing labour associated with these functions. While the service companies benefited handsomely from the provision of

services, the contract workers themselves were typically paid very little, to the point of exploitation, and this had given rise to calls from various sectors in the socio-political context for an end to labour broking. During the interviews some participants even referred to the practice as a form of *slave trade* (C). The contract workers were based at a client site and arrived daily on campus, forged working relationships with people there and had their hours and work practices regulated by staff from Uptown Academy. Nevertheless, from the perspective of the Academy's management, these people were viewed as contract workers, which gave them an identity distinct from company employees and therefore outside of the responsibility of management (7). The SLA gave rise to and maintained the status quo (31). The formulation of this contract as an "agreement" created the perception of consensus, and while this may ring true for the labour brokers and Academy management, it in no way reflected the sentiments of the contract workers (31).

The process of outsourcing had created the identity of "contract worker" and the form of domination to which they were subjected was perpetuated by the SLA, which left them voiceless and vulnerable (33). The consequence was that contract workers were not perceived as embodied persons or employees by Uptown Academy management but rather as a contractual obligation. The discontent of contract workers had been tabled by in-house unions in the past and there were '*whispers on campus of unhappiness with regard to the situation of the contract workers, but it did not surface at the key decision-making levels* (E). Thus, while management realised there was discontent, under the SLA, contract workers were *not our problem (L)*. This created a context that desperately required change and thus provided perfect conditions for the unplanned and forced change that followed. The voice of discontent simmered in the organisation but was not heard. Like gentle oxen, a culture prevailed where people were afraid to speak up (34).

6.5.2.2 A subservient identity enabled subjectification

Over many years the contract worker had developed and sustained a subservient identity that was constructed around survival and fear. The workers perceived the SLA and their identity as contract worker as *a form of modern slavery, they felt stuck and just had to endure their fate* (C). The workers were also *scared* as they *felt they could be done away with at any given time with very little wrong doing, they were very vulnerable* (IL). As articulated in the dominance face of power, contract workers had to suppress their voice of discontent and apply tactics to survive (35). This form of identity work was done to conform to the subservient identity through the idea of a public transcript, which took the form of an enacted subservient identity. The workers played out this public transcript under the scrutiny of leaders. The workers had to apply *tactics to survive* (C) and suppress their voice of discontent. Scott (1985) proposes that the weak maintain public and hidden transcripts to survive. Those with less power do not have time to develop strategies. They wait for a moment when the dominant party experiences a moment of weakness, and in that moment their tactical responsiveness is what gives them the upper hand (17). *It is in those moments, the little gaps, the lapses of concentration; it is in those spaces that tactics find their voice* (IL). The workers' tactic was to maintain a public transcript of contentment that appeared acquiescent. This subservient identity enabled subjectification through the public transcript (36).

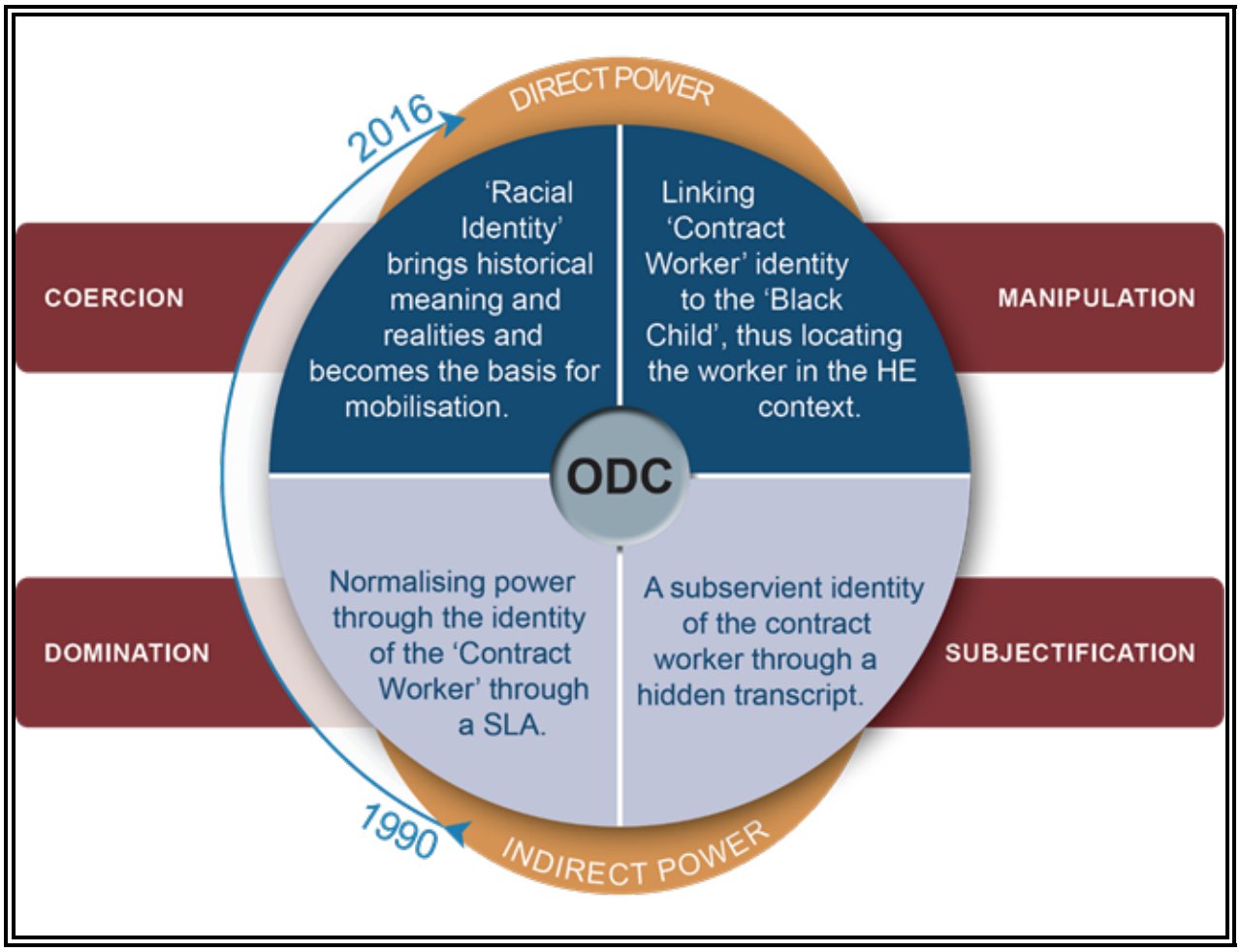
Nevertheless, alongside the public transcript, the contract workers had to maintain a hidden transcript regarding their level of discontent and this was their agency in the face of subjectification. These workers *did not feel they had formal representation or a voice for that matter* (U). Not because it was a new issue *but before, they had to use other tactics to survive* (IL). For the workers who wanted to get ahead, they *had to comply with the situation* (C). The hidden transcript served to discipline the workers and enable them to

formulate patterns of resistance and it essentially became a social product. The workers contended with an unacceptable situation until such time that an opportunity presented itself to raise their voice, allowing the hidden transcript to emerge and thereby forcing unplanned change. The mobilisation triggered a new meaning making for the contract workers and the Foucauldian interpretation of self-disciplining identities existed in tension with other intra and extra organisational claims in a way that opened up forms of micro emancipation. The fight for insourcing was not only about money: it also shed light on *the treatment of these contract workers and it became a kind of a moral or ethical dilemma* (IL).

6.5.3 Discussion

The figure below is graphic depiction of the workings of identity as a power mechanism in unplanned and forced change. Over a period of approximately sixteen years insourced workers had taken on a subservient “contract worker” identity that left them in the awkward position of working within the Academy but outside normal employee parameters (7). This left them disenfranchised and vulnerable, a form of domination normalised by the SLA between their contract employers and the Academy. The “contract worker” identity and the SLA created a safety mechanism, insulating managers from dealing with the human issues at a personal level.

Figure 6.4 : Identity as a power mechanism in unplanned forced change at Uptown Academy



Subjectification and domination, forms of indirect power, served to create the conditions inside the Academy for a micro context that was ripe for change. Although contract workers felt powerless to do anything about it, they knew that change was sorely needed. The subservient identity of the contract worker through a public transcript aligns with the construction of identities (Du Gay 1996) to achieve certain political ends. In this case, however, the subjectification worked in the interest of the organisation. Another important facet of organisations pertains to the way they make certain assumptions legitimate, standard and more prudent (Lawrence & Suddaby 2006) and this was also demonstrated in the case through the normalisation of power by the Academy management through the SLA.

Given the changing student population at Uptown Academy and the increasing number of black students, the contract worker's plight was recognised by students of colour as they identified in these workers their own mothers and fathers as well as their own struggles in a predominantly "white" setting. In their own call for a measure of financial relief through #FMF, these students linked the identity of the contract worker to their own of the disenfranchised black student or child. By so doing they manoeuvered what was largely a socio-political issue into the domain of HE at the start of the academic year in a way that threatened the assumed safety of Uptown Academy as a "normal" HE institution. By locating the plight of the contract worker in the context of HE the students ensured that action and discussion occurred within accepted boundaries. Salznick (1949) demonstrated how issues are prevented from arising through reference to apparently objective and value-free criteria. This study applied a collective, socially constructed identity lens to demonstrate how this was operationalised. The meanings associated with various forms of racial identity in the country contributed to the nature and extent of the response, and forms of direct power, both coercion and manipulation, resulted in the practice of insourcing, something that up to that point had been considered all but impossible.

Coercion is often described as a direct mobilisation of power, usually achieved through a formal position (Weber 1947, in Flemming & Spicer, 2014), personality in organisational politics (House 1968, in Flemming & Spicer, 2014), the ability to reduce uncertainty (Crozier 1964, in Flemming & Spicer, 2014) or the possession of valuable resources (Pfeffer & Salanick 1974). This study found that applying an identity lens contributed to this understanding as it brought historical meaning and in so doing, became the basis for mobilisation. It must be considered though that history can never be definitive or objective: meanings are given to the past by outsiders (Cooke, 1999). Through the

intervention of the students, the workers found their voice and the new reality at Uptown and the entry of a new union allowed these workers to sustain their voice in the organisation.

The emerging theme of this section is proposed as patterns of identity enabling power mechanisms (37). There are four theoretical constructs proposed and the concepts underpinning these constructs are summarized in the table below.

Table 6.5 Data structure of emerging themes relating to patterns of identity enabling power mechanisms

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Theoretical concepts emerging from the data</th><th>Construct</th><th>Emerging theme</th></tr>
<tr><td>32</td><td>Governance framework</td><td rowspan="4">33 Domination through an objectified identity</td><td rowspan="10">37 Patterns of identity enabling power mechanisms</td></tr>
<tr><td>31</td><td>Normalising power</td></tr>
<tr><td>7</td><td>Disenfranchised worker</td></tr>
<tr><td>34</td><td>Gentle oxen</td></tr>
<tr><td>35</td><td>Present but not engaged</td><td>36 Subjectification through construction of alternative identities</td></tr>
<tr><td>19</td><td>Missing middle</td><td rowspan="3">30 Manipulation through 29 a historically informed meaning of identity</td></tr>
<tr><td>13</td><td>Virtual gangs</td></tr>
<tr><td>14</td><td>Methaphorical banner</td></tr>
<tr><td>24</td><td>Co-opetition</td><td rowspan="2">28 Coercian when a voiceless outsider identity is brought into the micro context.</td></tr>
<tr><td>25</td><td>Claiming the victory</td></tr>
</table>

6.6 CONCLUSION

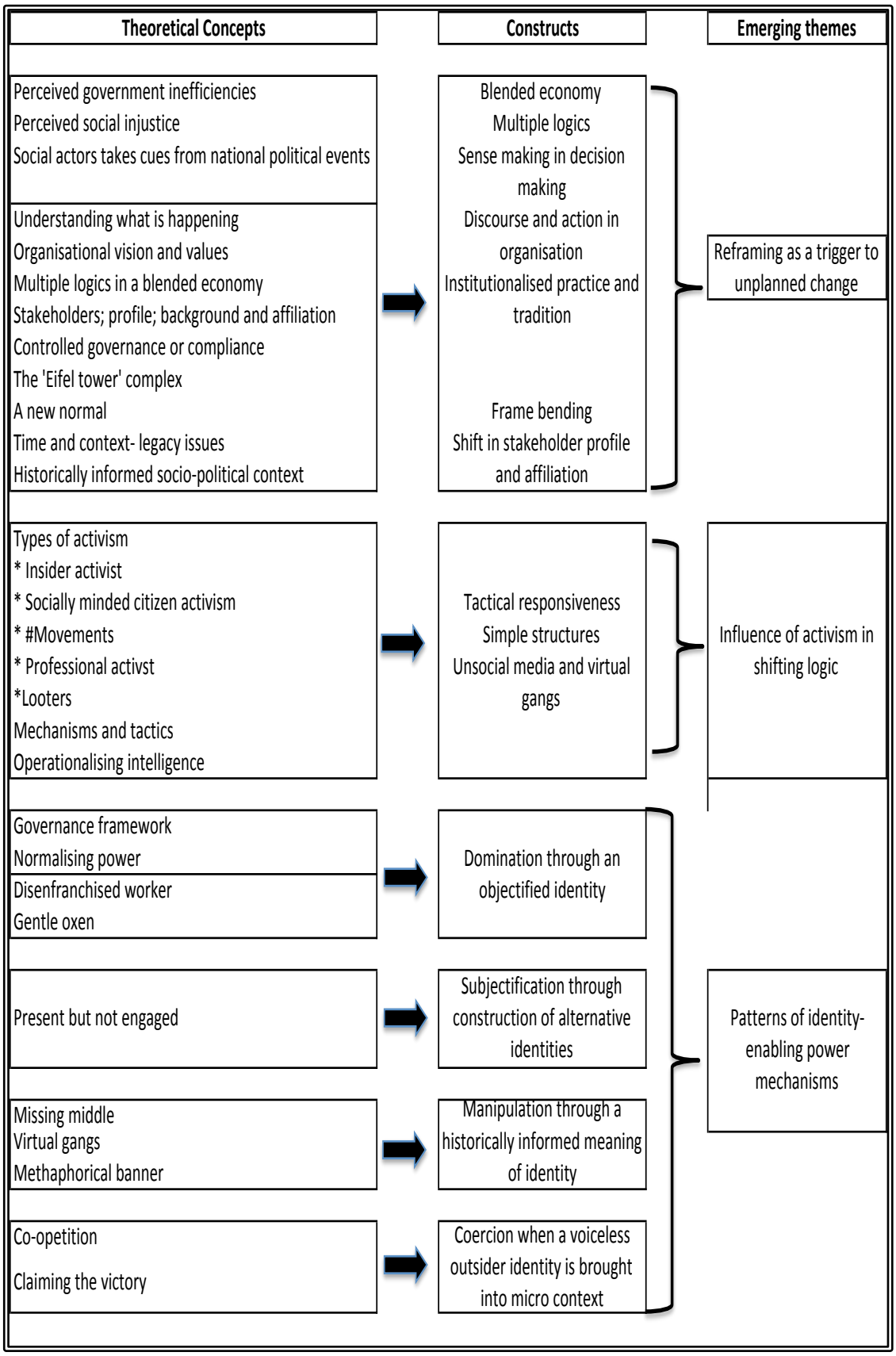
This chapter addressed the research objectives by presenting the findings from the case following theoretical coding. Using the institutional logics of capitalism and democracy, I explained how management made sense of the practice of out/insourcing. It furthermore illustrated the influencing role of activism in shifting the practice of outsourcing by framing it through a specific logic. The initial activism in the 1990's was not successful

as it framed the issue against a market logic. Activism in 2015/16 on the other hand framed the issue through a socio political logic and successfully influenced the management decision to insource. The success of this instance of activism was driven through mechanisms like framing an issue, the application of knowledge and the role of social media.

The data analysis in Chapter 4 also demonstrated the working of power and how it could be direct or indirect. I than constructed an explanation of how power unfolded over the period since outsourcing was introduced at the Academy, by defining patterns of identity enabling power. Indirect power prevailed for years through patterns of domination and subjectification where collective identities of 'contract worker' and a 'subservient identity' were mechanisms used to normalise the power. However, the activism sparked at the onset of #OMF in 2016 triggered direct forms of power of manipulation, where the contract workers' identity was linked to that of the 'black child', thus locating the worker in the HE context. Another form of direct power constructed was coercion when 'racial identity' brought historical meaning and became the basis of mobilisation.

Throughout the explanation, I proposed theoretical concepts and constructs, which will serve as building blocks toward a grounded theory model of unplanned, forced change. This is summarised in the table below followed by Chapter 7, presenting and explicating the GT model.

Table 6.6: Data structure informing the Grounded Theory of forced unplanned change



CHAPTER 7
TOWARD A SUBSTANTIVE THEORY
IDENTITY, ACTIVISM AND POWER MOBILISATION – CREATING THE PERFECT STORM

"I have heard a brother of the story-telling trade at Naples preaching to a pack of good-for-nothing honest, lazy fellows by the sea-shore, work himself up into such a rage and passion with some of the villains whose wicked deeds he was describing and inventing, that the audience could not resist it; and they and the poet together would burst out into a roar of oaths and execrations against the fictitious monster of the tale, so that the hat went round, and the bajocchi tumbled into it, in the midst of a perfect storm of sympathy".

— William Makepeace Thackeray, Vanity Fair

CHAPTER 7: GROUNDED THEORY MODEL OF FORCED UNPLANNED CHANGE

Understanding forced unplanned change emanating from the macro environment

7.1 INTRODUCTION

A theory is a set of interrelated concepts, constructs and definitions that presents a systemic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting them (Kerlinger, 1986:7) because “data without theory says nothing” (Silverman, 2005: 327). Therefore, this section presents the emerging substantive theory explaining forced unplanned change arising from the macro context and external power dynamics. Better stories are not enough to get to good theory: better constructs and concepts are also required. I refined my explanation in Chapter 6 and followed the last steps in the GT selective coding process, grouping similar codes with underlying uniformity into new categories and refining and defining these new categories comprehensively and thereby constructing a substantive model in organisational change theory.

7.2 A STORY OF UNPLANNED FORCED CHANGE

“Burn to be heard”. This chilling statement traversed social media platforms during mobilisation in the HE sector in South Africa, prompting damages exceeding R600m during the 2015/16 uprising. This movement furthermore plunged the impacted organisations into unplanned, forced change. Hard-hitting activist campaigns against big corporations have become part of the business landscape. When the Nike brand became synonymous with slave wages in the 90’s, activism forced Nike to change its ethical game. Wallmart came under fire for buying clothes from unsafe factories in Bangladesh. The H&M story of the little black boy with the monkey T-shirt was an example of identity

mobilisation. Militant activism is often linked to an institutional logic or belief system and more than ever is coercing organisations into unplanned forced change.

The increasing turbulence, volatility, complexity and uncertainty of the business environment create a complexity and pace of change that demands improved readiness and responsiveness (Higgs & Rowland, 2005). Change is viewed as a necessary condition for the survival of organisations (Klarner & Raisch, 2012), but organisations are still caught by surprise in the uncertainty of emergence (Lord, Dinh, Hoffman, & Burke, 2015; MacKay Bradley & Chia, 2013). Appeals are made for a greater understanding of mechanisms and how they emerge to create change, especially unplanned change (Langley, Smallman, Tsoukas, & Van de ven, 2013). Del Val and Fuentes (2003) contend that strategic vision on its own is inadequate unless the organisation's top management are able to deal with a complex fast-paced environment. A failure to do so causes reactive mindsets, ambiguity and anxiety.

This study aims to make a contribution to the phenomenon of forced unplanned change arising from the macro context by describing the role of sense making in framing organisational practices against multiple logics and by explaining the influencing role of activism in shifting the prevailing logic that frames an organisational practice, causing change. Furthermore, it makes a contribution by explaining how identities operating as power mechanisms can lead to forced unplanned change.

7.3 FORCED UNPLANNED CHANGE: PATTERNS OF IDENTITY-ENABLED POWER MECHANISMS AND ACTIVISM TOWARDS FRAME BENDING

A conceptual framework aims to link various concepts and serves as a motivation for the formulation of theory (Charmaz, 2006). The overarching themes and concepts that encapsulate the theoretical constructs for a conceptual model were summarised in

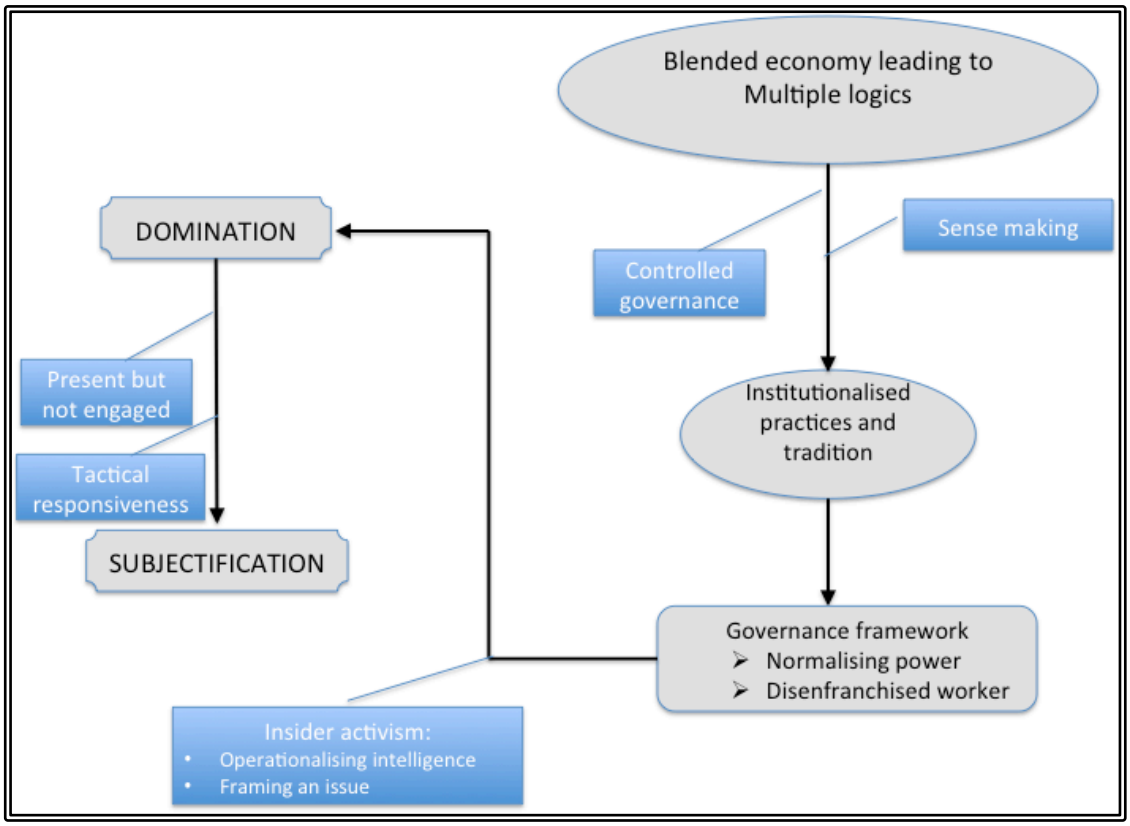
Chapter 6. The following explanation of how unplanned change can be forced onto an organisation reveals the elements that inform the GT model.

7.3.1 Creating the perfect storm

A perfect storm is used figuratively to describe an event in which a rare combination of circumstances drastically aggravates the event. This term is used by analogy to an unusually severe storm that results from a rare combination of meteorological phenomena (Stern, 2008). The GT model explains how a perfect storm develops in organisations in the three phases described below, setting up the conditions for forced unplanned change.

7.3.1.1 Warm air from a low-pressure system coming from one direction: indirect power from insider activists

Figure 7.1 Warm air from a low-pressure system (indirect power) coming from one direction (insider activism through a market logic)



A blended economy set the conditions for multiple institutional logics to inform organisational practices. This macro context, rife with multiple institutional logics created a dynamic in the micro context of organisational life. While the organisational dominant logic

can be influenced by multiple institutional logics, there was a primary dominating logic while other institutional logics had a secondary influence. Typically in a blended economy, characterised by capitalist motives but confronted by social inequality, the market logic tends to have a stronger influence on the overall organisational dominant logic. Secondary institutional logics, for example a socio political logic of democracy, may influence organisational practices merely to comply with controlled governance. In the case this was demonstrated where the socio-political logic of democracy dominated practices like legislated affirmative action in recruitment processes: fairness was emphasised in the form of structured freedom, like legislation. The demands of the socio-political logic caused structural transformation to bring about fairness and equal opportunities. However, organisational response to stimuli is usually mediated by the attention of decision makers and their sense making of information, issues and the context. The existence of a dual logic is not uncommon but it has the potential to create tension in terms of management sense making. Decisions do not always fit perfectly into a neatly packaged logic and conflicting demands between for example social equality and commercial success complicate decision-making.

By virtue of an institutionalised practice (or tradition) and the level of control it can exert over some organisational actors, the resulting domination can lead to some actors feeling disenfranchised. What the GT presents is that these disenfranchised actors will eventually develop a collective identity of being objectified. This happened because domination occurred through the normalisation of power, as explained in Chapter 6. These indirect systemic forms of influence mobilise institutional, ideological and discursive resources to influence organisational activity, normalising the power relations at hand. The GT model posits that when an organisational actor applies an objectified identity, domination occurs through the normalisation of power.

This may occur, firstly, through a governance framework that attempts to normalise power. The influence or strength of the relationship between an organisational practice and an experience of domination in a blended economy lies again in management sense making. Managers do not always pay attention to the hidden power dynamics in the everyday order of things and the dominated organisational actors have nowhere else to go. Domination relies on soft constraint (Clegg, Hardy, Lawrence & Nord, 2006) to shape the logic of the organisation and the action taken by management. However the macro context also plays a role as normative industry practices also create disenfranchisement. The consequence unfortunately created the experience of a disenfranchised worker. These workers found themselves voiceless and dislodged from traditional organisational networks due to the governance framework regulating their work. They learnt to avoid addressing the issues as they feared being labeled as troublemakers and therefore remained invisible, feeling like outsiders and vulnerable. However, disenfranchised workers are never completely invisible. In an organisational culture where all voices are not heard, gentle oxen may lurk. These are stakeholders of the organisation (including employees) who attempt to address the grievances but are ultimately unsuccessful in addressing exploitative organisational practices.

The sense of feeling disenfranchised, resulting from severe power imbalances, created the conditions for the perfect storm at Uptown Academy. However, as in the storm analogy, the first phase sees only a low-pressure system coming from one direction. In the organisation, insider activists, unlike the gentle oxen, attempted to influence the strength of the relationship between the normalisation of power and the experience of domination.

Domination can be experienced at an individual level but when two or more actors share their experience, this discontent could escalate, leading ultimately to the discussion of the issue among the group. If the issue persists a third party, not directly associated with

the individuals but a member of the organisation where the domination is experienced, may take up the issue and start mobilising. While gentle oxen represented lower level management or supervisory staff, this new group usually representing employees through a formal arrangement, with the disenfranchised worker falling outside this agreement. This insider form of activism can therefore be triggered by practices of domination. Insider activist are full members of the target organisation and have access to knowledge about the organisation. However, how this knowledge was applied, played a key role in their successful campaigning.

Intelligence in the GT framework refers to the operationalisation of information. Management and activists may have access to information in different forms or at different levels, but if this information is not converted into knowledge to inform actions, there will be a lack of intelligence. Furthermore, although insider activists potentially have more access to knowledge about the target organisation, how this knowledge is framed is critical for successful activism. Successful insider activism is contingent on correct framing of an issue. Framing an issue through the same institutional logic that informed it, is ineffective. If not identified and addressed in the organisation, domination could have the unintended consequence of creating subjectification. This was linked to the domination in creating the disenfranchisement.

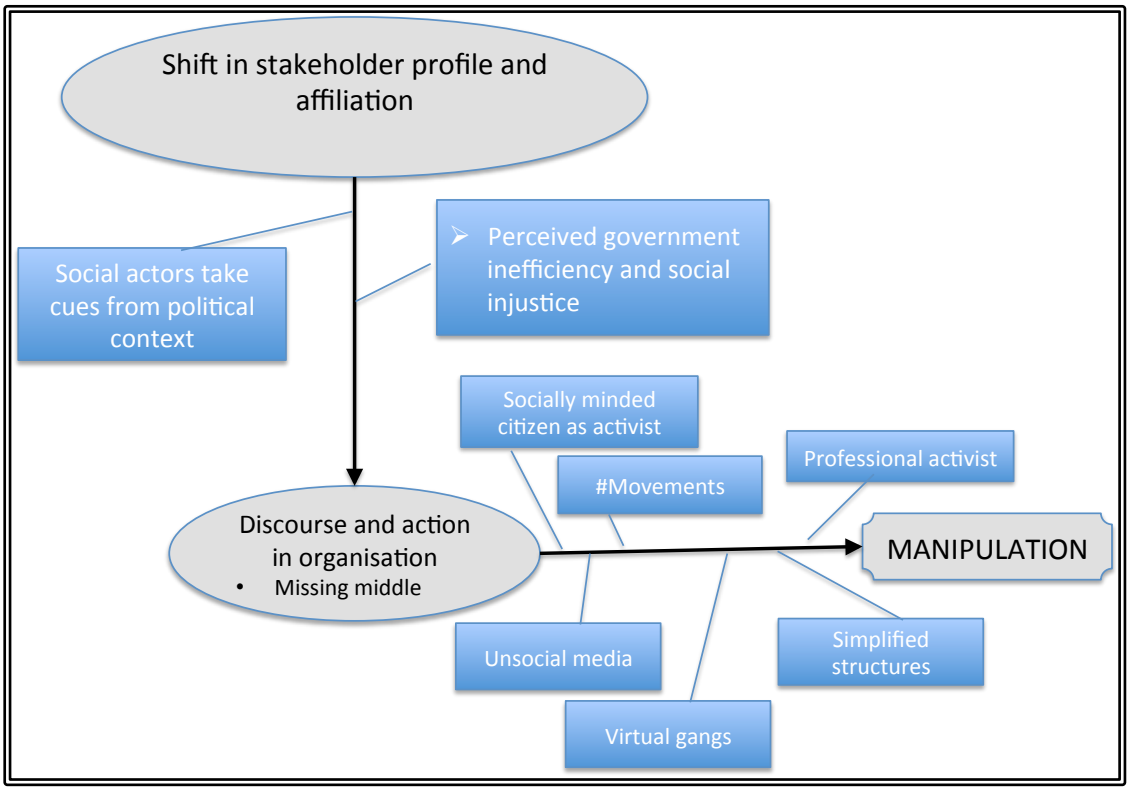
Domination will see management acting through processes and practices to normalise their power, while through subjectification those actors who are perceived to lack power normalise a particular way of being in that social order. The GT model applies this lens and positions subjectification through the construction of alternative identities by those with less obvious power. This shifts the predominant literature from managers, with the lens focusing on organisational practices, to the less powerful and to their actions to survive in these situations. The subjectification is enacted through a public transcript of

contentment. Present but disengaged workers explains the relationship between domination and subjectification. Disenfranchised workers are present and will often show up. However, with regard to the issues where their dissatisfaction lies, they will disengage. Thus, non-action by less powerful actors does not always imply contentment or satisfaction but may merely be a consequence of it not being the right time. In order to survive, these workers learn to work in and with the system, avoiding confrontation or being in the direct line of fire. Disenfranchised workers often feel stuck, reflecting severe power imbalances that often act as a condition for creating the perfect storm. While organisational leaders enact strategies to deal with the achievement of purpose and vision and to manage risks, the so called powerless do not have the luxury of strategy and more often rely on tactics. Disenfranchised workers therefore apply tactical responsiveness. One such response may be to raise the issue, but this may backfire and they are then labeled as troublemakers. Another tactic finds voice through the collective identity created between unlikely partners. During these tactical responses, the voice of discontent may emerge. However, if not successful in changing their lot or even just acknowledging their discontent, the disenfranchised workers will retreat and re-build their strength to fight another day.

These indirect forms of power could potentially be dangerous as they often go undetected and may become normalised in the daily routines. The first phase of the perfect storm is therefore activated. Low-pressure systems in the form of indirect power emerge from one direction through insider activists. However, inadequate framing and sense making fails to address the issue and the pressure system is sustained and could potentially build up towards conditions ripe for forced unplanned change.

7.3.1.2 A flow of cool (more manipulative) and dry air (creating conditions for frame bending) generated by high-pressure (direct power) from another direction (outsider activists)

Figure 7.2 Manipulative direct power creating the conditions for frame bending through outsider activists



The changes in the socio-political macro context created a shift in stakeholder profile and affiliation. The cool, dry air blowing over the organisation brought in a new profile of actors, combined with new affiliations informing discourses and action in the organisation. A new generation had experienced the freedom but started to question the fulfillment of the promise of democracy as established in the 1990's. The freedom of democracy was taken for granted but legacy issues were lurking in the shadows.

Social actors as activists promoting the institutional logic of democracy were conscious of perceived government inefficiencies and the resulting perceived social injustice. These actors within the broader institutional macro context took cues from national political and social events. They were aware of and emphasised the social ills, including injustices from

the past creating a historical context for current issues. These legacy issues include consequences from earlier decision-making taken in the macro institutional context.

The affiliation in a socio-political context centered on a missing middle identity. Disenfranchised workers, who were perceived to be aligned to the missing middle identity, found that their voice of discontent resonated with others who could align to that identity. These groups would include those who either felt a part of the missing middle or other activists who desired to raise their voice on behalf of the disenfranchised worker.

This type of shift in the discourse and action in organisations may lead to a manipulative form of pressure on management, with various types of activists influencing the strength of this relationship. The aim of these activists is to weaken the institutional autonomy of corporations. Due to the interconnectedness of the institutional field and organisations, with multiple actors traversing both levels, a stampede was created in the system. Organisations can become a playground where macro contextual issues are challenged (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991). Management within these organisations is caught in the middle and decisions often rests on social cohesion and political reality. The change in profile, background and affiliation of key stakeholders is therefore a contributing factor, which could make an organisation vulnerable to forced, unplanned change.

Various types of activists influenced the strength of the relationship between the discourse and action and the level of manipulation management experienced. There are various forms of activism, but for a dominant organisational logic to be shifted the GT model posits that outsider activism should be present in collaboration with either insider or at least intermediary activists.[18] This is because the organisational dominant logic links to

[18] Intermediary activists are partial or temporary members of the target organisation while outside activists are non-members of the target organisation.

institutional logics and these exist in the broader organisational field outside the organisation.

Activism includes an understanding of resource dependence and mechanisms. Insider activists usually have a higher resource dependence on the target organisation and subsequently a reduced incentive to voice grievances or to deploy disruptive tactics. For outsider activists who have a lower resource dependence on the target organisation there is an increased incentive to voice opinions and lower barriers to the deployment of disruptive tactics. Furthermore, low dependence on target organisations presents an opportunity for external activists to project an image of authenticity for movement claims (Carroll & Wheaton, 2009). The types of external activists posited in the GT model are socially minded citizens as activists in a blended economy, #movements and professional activists.

In a blended economy, or in any society facing social inequality, the first type of activist to apply pressure and create conditions for frame bending was the socially minded citizen activist, as bystander to socio-economic inequality. Such individuals take on issues to confront inequality and raise consciousness towards igniting social change. In the socially connected digital world, public opinion can have as much weight as physical mobilisation. In a socio-political context especially, key influencers with social capital will back a campaign if it resonates with them, bringing the management of organisations into a position where they have to defend or account for their actions from a moral perspective. For such key influencers to be successful, they need to be experienced as trustworthy and authentic representatives of the issues being fought.

Management can also use this tactic to their advantage if they incorporate key influencers and experienced individuals into their engagement structure when dealing with activists. This tactic may bring a fresh perspective and accommodate various stakeholders

in different ways. Caution is however required because if an individual is brought in by management during the facilitation process, there is a risk that such an individual may be aligned to management and not completely trusted by all parties.

Society as a whole can also contribute to activism by participating in hashtag (#) movements via social media platforms. These movements are fluid and although they have a role to play, require much greater effort to force change in organisations.

Professional activists, such as members of political parties or NGO's will predominantly align themselves with the fight for social justice. This type of activist anticipates and identifies issues in the broader institutional and societal level that are aligned to their mandate. When a smaller or less experienced group of insider or intermediary activists align themselves with professional activists, their capacity for impact in the organisation is greatly expanded. Professional activists are usually effective in applying pressure on organisations, and that could lead to conditions ripe for change.

While outsider activists usually have a lower knowledge level regarding the target organisation, they have a better understanding of the issue and how to frame it, which increases the possibility of management frame bending on an issue. Intermediary activists do not always have the insights to frame an issue appropriately but they do have insight into how to threaten a target organisation, as they understand its vulnerabilities. Partnering with outsider activists, the intermediary activists will be better informed on how to frame an issue adequately. Operationalising intelligence pertains to insights into the target and how to manipulate the situation.

Mechanisms of activism are often characterised by simplified structures whose fluid nature means it is often difficult to "put a face to it". The consequence is that management find themselves in a choreographed dance of negotiations with multiple individuals at different times as no single structure dominates or leads the mobilisation. Due to the variety in

types of activists, Uptown Academy management at times did not fully understand the root of the issue under the banner of what was being raised. Although each activist group had the same goal, the differed in the agenda through which they approached it.

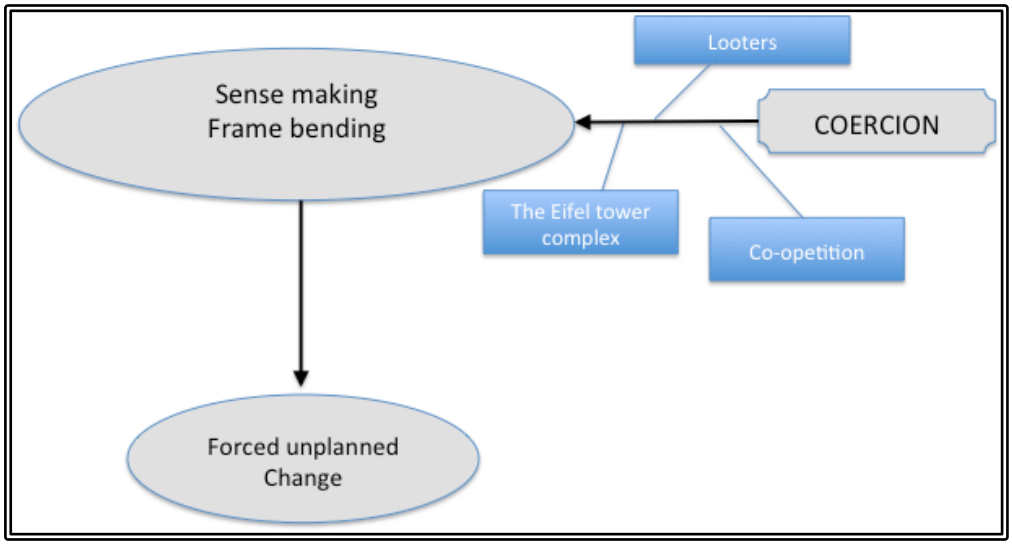
The influence of these types of activism set the conditions for manipulation through a historically informed meaning of identity. The various activists understood the historical contingency of the issue and through a manipulative form of power ensured that action and discussion occurred within accepted boundaries and involved an indirect form of influence. This was done through agenda setting and the manipulation of rules (Bozionelo, 2005; Kanter, 1977) and shaping outcomes of various behaviors inside the organisation (Burt, 1995; Kilduff & Brass, 2010) through intermediary activists.

One key concept expanding on the tactics behind manipulation includes virtual gangs on unsocial media. Social media platforms have become a great source of communication in the 21st century but when applied in an attempt to manipulate, could be considered unsocial media platforms. Virtual gangs hoisted a metaphorical banner saying “sorry for the inconvenience, we are trying to change the world”. Any of the activists highlighted in the GT model can apply the tactic of virtual gangsters. They often enter, not necessarily in the physical realm, a terrain not traditionally theirs, speaking on behalf of some collective identity or group of people. They do not always identify themselves or physically confront their target, nor do they have a mandate from the group they are “representing”. They continue applying pressure on the organisation through manipulation. When there has been even a slight impact, these virtual gangs retreat and there is not always continuity. Therefore, when direct power in the form of manipulation can be triggered through the mobilisation of a historically informed meaning of identity, the conditions for a storm of forced unplanned change is heightened.

In the second phase of building toward the perfect storm, a flow of cool dry air starts to generate pressure and the conditions for frame bending are ripe. This flow is generated by high pressure or direct power from another direction, in this instance outsider activists from both the macro and micro contexts. It demonstrated the legacy issues impacting a shift in stakeholder profile and affiliation. This profile shift informed a new discourse and action that was influenced by perceived government inefficiencies and perceived social injustice. Various types and tactics of external and intermediary activists influence the strength of the relationship between this and the subsequent manipulation of management.

7.3.1.3 Tropical moisture provided by a hurricane creating the perfect storm - tactical responsiveness and mechanisms with a violent turn in activism, creating the perfect storm for frame bending and change

Figure 7.3 Tactical responsiveness and mechanisms of activism leads to a violent turn of coercive power for frame bending and change



This last phase presents the tipping point when activism turns coercive, creating the perfect storm leading to forced unplanned change. The conditions explained thus far contributed towards a revised sense making for management. Various mechanisms contributed toward the frame bending, including an awareness of the Eifel tower complex, co-opetition between activists as well as the introduction of a new type of activist in the form of looters. As the understanding of what was really unfolding evolved within the

management structure, the perfect storm arrived, forcing unplanned change on the organisation.

The tactics of activism applied in Phase 2, took a dramatic turn in Phase 3. The co-opetition between various types of activists influenced the strength of the relationship between management sense making and frame bending. The co-opetition between groups of activists and the existence of looters presented an implicit condoning of violence as a tactic to achieve the goals through coercion.

Looters are criminally minded bystanders who jumped on the bandwagon of organised protest action with the intent to plunder and create havoc. This criminal element creates fear and intimidation because they are not interested in the cause but create chaos to further their own agenda. Coercion is strongly associated with access to resources in the form of manpower to protest (Davis & Thompson, 1994) and direct challenges to the legitimacy of certain organisational practices (Hiatt, Sine & Tolbert, 2009).

The concept of co-opetition was introduced to refer to groups of competitors who collaborate on a matter of mutual interest. This collaboration is limited to a unified goal but each party has its own underlying agenda or reason for that goal. Acting as a collective, such groups can create force in numbers and give activists the edge over the organisation's management. The targeted organisation, being held to ransom because of mobilisation, was caught off guard. The tense situation led to radical decision-making driven by fear and intimidation, hastily pushing negotiations to conclusion. This meant there was insufficient time for management to engage widely on the matter or to understand the full scope and impact of the decision.

As was alluded to by Scott (1985), activists usually do not have grand strategies but instead their success is often attributed to their tactical responsiveness. Management on the other hand has strategies in place but often falls short in agility or tactical

responsiveness. However, the differing agendas of the various parties in co-opetition also included competing claims of victory for being the first and/or most visibly influential in terms of solving the problem. Co-opetition is likely to be short-lived unless it culminates in a more formalised form of agreement between parties.

The co-opetition between various types of activists influenced the strength of the relationship between management sense making and frame bending. Factions in the collaborative effort of various activists against management served to weaken their coercive power.

Mechanisms and tactics of activism during this phase were applied to build momentum through intimidation, mobilisation and disrupting business as usual. Activists will specifically target those spaces where tactics find their voice or expression, such as an unusual angle that would surprise management or an issue that is escalated to a national agenda and the organisation is targeted in new ways. Such tactical responsiveness is also about organising and mobilising, using tactics aimed at disrupting business as usual and in so doing capturing the attention of the world. Tactics can build slowly in the shadow of senior management until the organisation is vulnerable to coercion. Although these tactics were instrumental in forcing unplanned change, one challenge remaining for the activists was that they were not necessarily authorised to continue speaking on behalf of the disenfranchised workers.

Social media platforms can fast track activism due to their speed and reach. The new generation is much more tech savvy and uses social media platforms more easily and regularly than management. Social media platforms can influence communication as well as an understanding of what the discourse in a broader context is about, especially as it relates to the organisation. However, effective framing of a particular cause and the need for change is a critical requirement for the success of a campaign. The manner in which

the campaign is driven and the style of writing can also be effective in creating the dramatic context for impending change.

The simultaneous benefit and downfall of such hash tag movements lies in their limited structure as in a social media campaign there is no defined membership or election to leadership and thus no real accountability. This contributes toward the tactical responsiveness of activism, which makes it difficult for management to get control over the situation. Its strength lies in the ease with which it can mobilise a group but a weakness is that groups with complementary but extremist ideas and tactics can easily hijack it.

Another challenge for social media campaigns lies in the potential 'interpretation' attached to news events shared not only through official media statements but also by the commentators. The majority of the population have access to social media and do not have to comply with journalistic rigor and authenticity before publishing commentary or news. Content can therefore be published without being validated. To drive a successful hashtag campaign, you have to own the conversation. If activists own the conversation during coercion, they can influence a broader discourse against the organisation and in so doing heighten the conditions leading up to the perfect storm.

More often than not, managers at various levels of the organisation do not think actively about how logics inform practices. Organisational practices are usually defined and managed at an operational level while strategic decisions informing such practices are made at more senior management levels. This presents the "Eifel tower" complex where the various spaces in the organisation exist in isolation from each other. Senior leadership becomes so distant from the rest of the organisation that the perception among the rest of the organisation is that they live in an "Eiffel Tower", disconnected from reality on the ground. Senior management may believe there is transparency and vehicles for broad communication but these are ineffective. They are not connected at all levels and

functions and there is a lack of awareness and appreciation of issues, and of the impact they could have because they are connected to a specific logic. There may even be vehicles such as scenario planning models and frameworks, but these are not applied to be proactive, especially in terms of issues going unnoticed. Management started to understand the disconnection between their dominant organisational logic and certain organisational practices. Disenfranchised workers were aggrieved but their voice was silenced over many years. With the activism and subsequent coercion, management experienced the brunt of the storm.

The conditions described here ultimately present the tactical responsiveness of activism and mechanisms leading to frame bending. Sense making does not happen in isolation and is a function of the organisational context and the vision, values, profile and background of all stakeholders and significant affiliations. The vision and values of an organisation contribute to its identity. They guide action and decision making, define the vocabulary used to motivate action and identify appropriate behavior (Thornton, Occasio & Lounsbury, 2012). The conditions leading to a perfect storm succeeded in creating a coercive power forcing management decision-making. However, at that moment of decision-making, management developed a new understanding of the issue experience frame bending, with the associated fear of a loss of identity.

While manipulation refers to a subtle influence and an attempt to shift agendas, coercion is a more direct mobilisation of power within or against an organisation. Manipulation allows for coercion by locating the voiceless outsider identity in the micro context and thereby creating a force to challenge the organisational dominant logic. The voiceless outsider identity is linked to the disenfranchised worker through the normalisation of power. The worker was positioned as the voiceless outsider because all attempts to render their issue worthy of attention at the correct decision-making levels, had

failed. Their plight was therefore viewed as lying outside that which was deemed important in the micro organisational structure and context.

7.3.1.4 A GT model of forced unplanned change

A perfect storm was created over three phases that set the conditions for forced unplanned change. In Phase 1 a blended economy led to multiple logics informing the organisational practices. Primary and secondary logics determined the strength by which these logics influenced various practices while management sense making as well as controlled governance explained the practices. Certain practices led to a governance framework that normalised power and created domination through an objectified identity. The strength of the relationship between the normalisation of power and the mechanisms of domination through an objectified identity was influenced by insider activism. As the domination persisted it led to subjectification where alternative identities were constructed to cope with the domineering power. Present but disengaged workers and their tactical responsiveness explained the relationship between domination and subjectification.

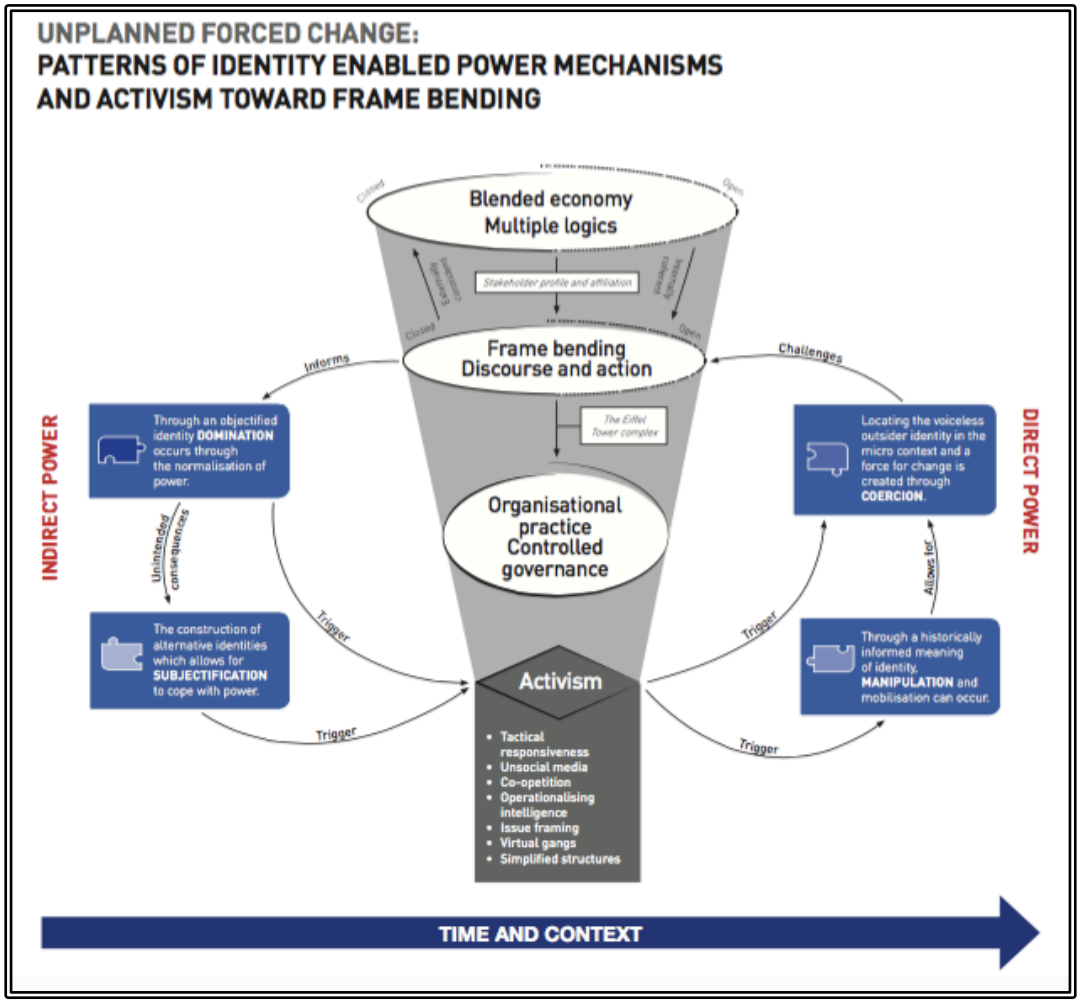
Phase 2 implies that the storm has not been anticipated and continues to brew within the organisation. Shifts in the macro context generated from a historical context brought legacy issues as well as shifts in stakeholder profile and affiliation. The organisation's management and practices were not keeping up with these shifts. These shifts formed the discourse and action in organisations, which was explained through social actors in the form of activists taking cues from the political context, influenced by perceived government inefficiency and social injustice. When these social actors included activists like the socially minded citizen as activist, #Movements and professional activists, tactics were applied to manipulate the situation and management. In this phase, direct pressure was applied against the organisation to influence management frame bending, informing the conditions leading to forced unplanned change.

The final phase, which brought the hurricane, served as the tipping point for management. Management sense making was targeted but activism also took a violent turn with looters entering the space and using coercion to achieve frame bending.

The GT model therefore presents patterns of identity enabling power mechanisms and the influencing role of activism in frame bending to create the conditions leading to forced unplanned change. Power is never absolute and there is always a balancing of power between management, disenfranchised workers and activists. A risk for any party lies in becoming complacent by the entrapment of power.

This section presented an explanation of the GT model including the concepts and constructs that formed the building blocks, as presented in Figure 7.4 below.

Figure 7.4 : GT Model



7.4 IN CLOSING

This chapter presented a grounded theory model by explicating the conceptual logic and direction, engaging leading ideas while acknowledging prior knowledge and explaining the significance of the original concepts. In the next chapter I will discuss the implications and recommendations of the study and reflect on my personal journey.

CHAPTER 8

PRÈSIS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
WHAT IS THE POINT OF KNOWLEDGE

The poem below reflects my journey.

Reflexivity Riddle

I look to the outside with my mind's eye, to see what is true and what is a lie

What I hear and see depends on me. This is my ontology and epistemology.

My first reflection is of what I hear and see. My second is inward to what I think may be.

I bring what I experience into my mind's eye. I turn my eye inward and ask what, who, when, where, why?

My first reflection is of what I hear and see. My second is inward to what I think may be.

I bring what I experience into my mind's eye. I turn my eye inward and ask again what, who when, where, why?

I try to make sense of what I heard and saw, from information inside my mind that I store.

I conceptualise a design to plan more clearly, I use concepts as bricks to build my theory.

Then I turn my mind's eye outward once more, to see what I know and how I could know more

Then inward again, just like before to self-reflect on what I know, heard and saw.

I reflect on my own reflection, down to the core.

Thus I build my theory brick by brick, sometimes slow and sometimes quick

Over and over the spiral I turn, reflecting deeper and deeper as I learn.

Evanthe 2016

(Borrowed from Professor W Schurink, who shared in our class.)

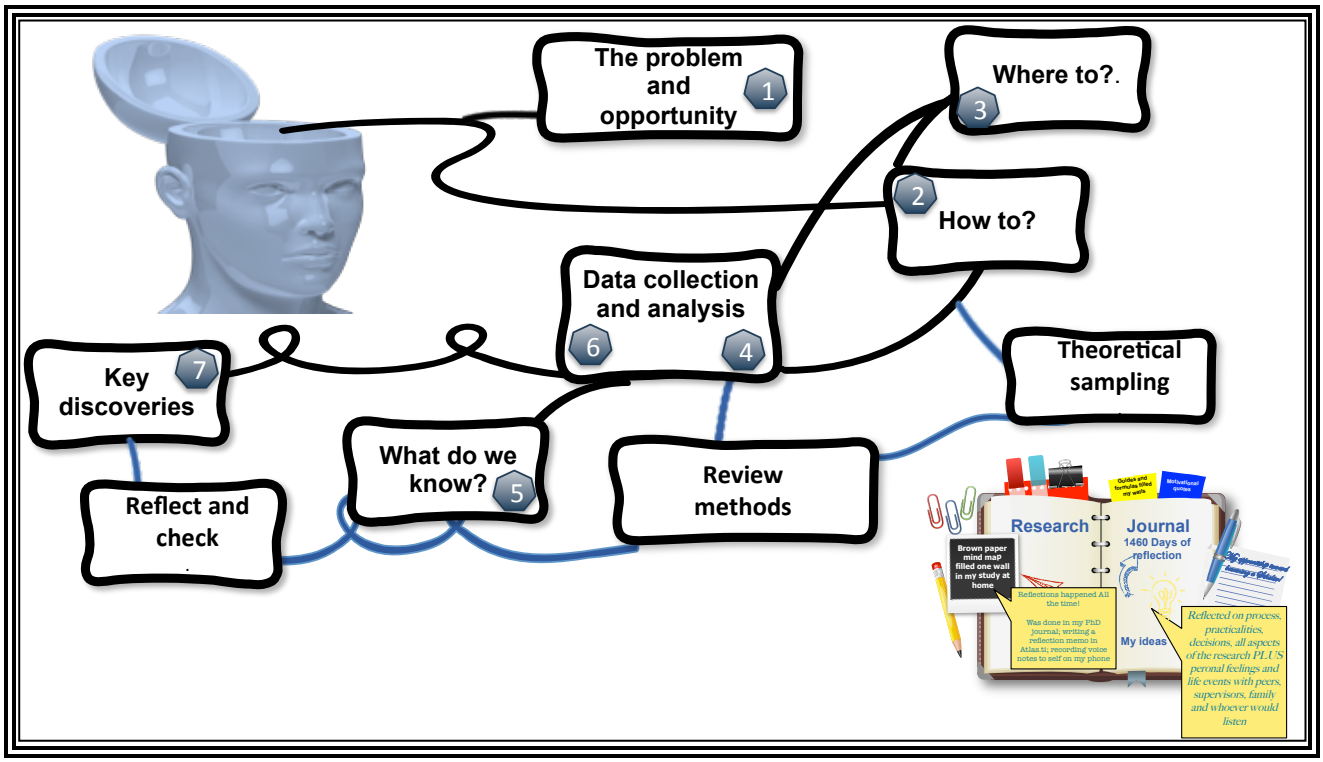
CHAPTER 8 : REFLECTION

In this chapter I provide a synopsis of the study, adds its most significant contributions and their implications, assesses the study, reflects upon my personal journey and outlines areas that deserve further attention.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In the methodology chapter (Chapter 2) I described the process of reflection that is recommended for qualitative research and illustrated in the figure below.

Figure 8.1 : The process of reflection



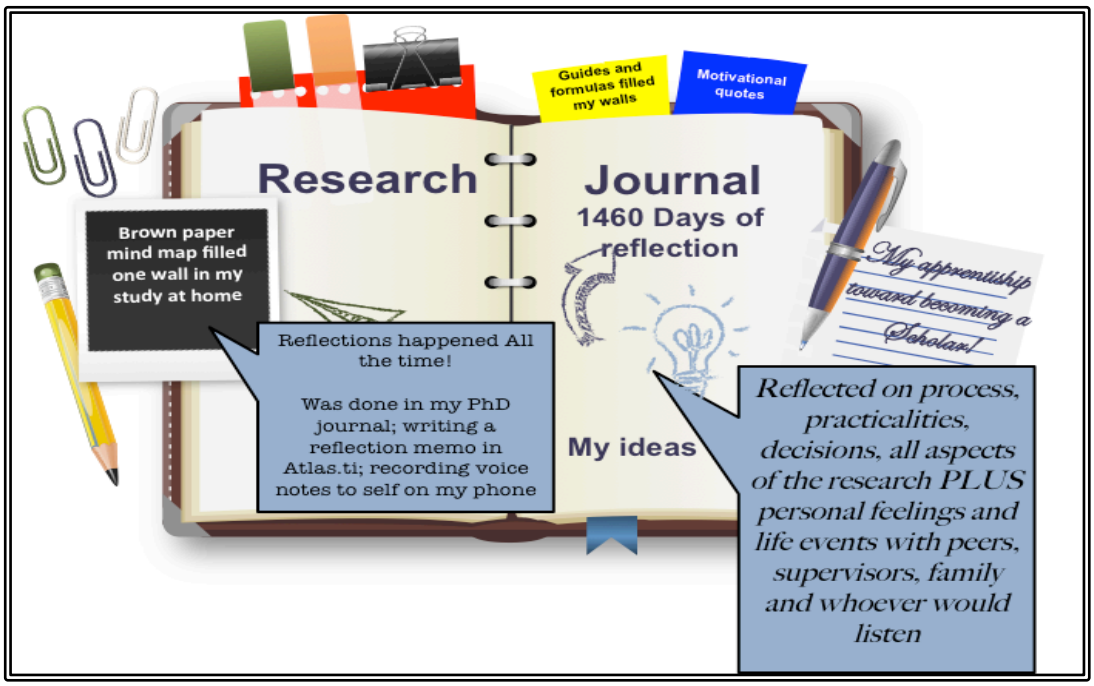
Reflective process followed by the researcher

The process of reflection started at the onset of the PhD journey. Although I defended my proposal only after an 18-month course work program and began the fieldwork in May 2016, my PhD journey started at the beginning of 2015. Working and specialising in the field of organisational change for over 20 years, I nevertheless experienced the problem as a real challenge in my career. Reflection was therefore documented from the

problematisation stage (Chapter 1) and through each of the following chapters. The nature of the methodology implied that there would be a continuous loop and a return to earlier decisions. For example, during the second stage data analysis (presented in Chapter 6) I had to go back and review my methodology (Chapter 2). Similarly, during initial data collection and analysis (Chapter 4), decisions would be taken back to the case (Chapter 3), particularly in regard to theoretical sampling. Key discoveries (Chapter 7) would also be tested with peers and informants and at times required a review on what we knew about the findings (Chapter 5). This ensured that a real theoretical contribution could be confirmed.

Reflection, as summarised in the picture below, was done continuously and included a reflection on the process, on practical considerations, on all other aspects of the research and also on my personal feelings and personal life events with peers, supervisors, informants, family and whoever else would listen. This assisted me and my supervising team to account for and check my personal biases and my interpretation of the data (Schurink, 2003). Reflection was done in pen-and-paper in my research journal, writing reflective memos in Atlas.ti and making voice recordings on my mobile phone. As I mapped together the pieces of the puzzle that made up the final model, the wall in my study was filled with brown paper and post-it notes.

Figure 8.2 : Reflective journal



Reflecting on reflection

8.2 KEY DISCOVERIES

More often than not, management facilitates its own success and sustainability through good organisational theory and organisational management. Sound business strategies are devised by looking both within and outward and applying risk management strategies to anticipate the elements of risk or opportunity. Some of this may lead to innovation or other initiatives as the organisation adapts to changing circumstances. These initiatives usually imply change, whether big transformational events or less significant change impact initiatives. Either way, they would then be planned and managed following theoretically sound models and approaches.

After these planned change initiatives have been implemented, there may be unanticipated developments not part of the intention of the change program. The change literature denotes these as unintended consequences forcing the organisation to improvise, thus leading to unplanned change. Other organisational theories addressing

constructs like organisational culture or agility can be useful in these instances as they guide leaders on how to build an agile organisational culture that is open to change. This study was not about this, but looked instead at improvised or forced decisions of change. When events or practices that appear trivial and insignificant lead to unplanned forced change, their impact on the organisation is usually greater than the likely financial impact. While planned change has been studied, the nature of unplanned change remains underexplored (Langley, Smallman, Tsoukas & Van de Ven, 2013).

Despite more than 23 years' experience in the field of organisational change, I found this phenomenon perplexing. Unplanned forced change originating in the external macro environment and backed mostly by power from outside caught management by surprise. Two key questions I formulated were a) how does the macro socio political and socio economic context create the conditions for unplanned change and b) how does the power dynamic unfold between the internal and external environments? What management theories currently provide does not fully address the less strategic events leading to forced unplanned change. A richer understanding of these types of change requires a deeper process-oriented understanding of how and why change emerges (Chia, 2014; Langley et al*.,* 2013, Tsoukas & Chia, 2002). However, a deeper understanding must also include an understanding that people mediate change outcomes and change can never be value-free (By, 2010; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010). By applying a deep, longitudinal exploration of the events and subsequent interpretations of events, I constructed a theory providing new knowledge in the field. I posit that forced unplanned change can be explained through patterns of identity-enabled power mechanisms and the role of activism in frame bending. While the field of organisational change has been studied and described for more than six decades, the effectiveness of dealing with change in practice leaves much to be desired and there are still unexplained phenomena. I believe that applied theory about change

needs to be re-emphasised in building capacity and that change facilitators must operate at more strategic levels in organisations. The use of a grounded theory approach was useful in explicating the complexity of the change phenomena, implying that practical skills in organisational contexts should be encouraged. I had personally experienced how change impacts were assessed and plans were compiled with a very superficial understanding and appreciation of the issues.

8.2.1 Key discoveries

The theoretical contribution of this study presented in Chapter 7 addressed both of the research questions. The GT model posits that although multiple institutional logics can inform various elements of the organisational dominant logic simultaneously (Glyn & Lounsbury, 2009), the secondary logic will dominate certain practices for controlled governance or compliance.

According to the GT model activism can (i) highlight incongruence in the organisational dominant logic and organisational practices and (ii) influence a shift in the organisational dominant logic applied to subsequent organisational practices. In response to a shift in the institutional logic, managers would therefore reframe the paradigm through attributes that make up the organisational identity. In terms of action, the dominant logic is reflected in the strategy of the organisation, formal structure, administrative tools, decision architecture and resource-allocating practices, i.e. in the interdependent choices that make up the configuration of the organisation (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). Rewiring against a shift in the dominant logic would engage these action-oriented elements.

The GT model further posits that all organisational actors apply direct or indirect forms of power at different times. An organisational dominant logic through organisational practices informs a dominating form of power. When a disenfranchised organisational actor applies an objectified identity, domination occurs through the normalisation of power.

A dominating process of power finds actors establishing influence through the construction of ideological values (Lukes, 2005) and thereby influencing those in less powerful positions to accept their position in the existing order of things. However, in an organisational context, this often goes unnoticed and management does not experience the practices as projecting a domineering form of power. Furthermore, domination can have the unintended consequence of creating subjectification. The construction of alternative identities allows for subjectification to cope with power. Direct power in the form of manipulation can be triggered through the mobilisation of a historically informed meaning of identity. Manipulation allows for coercion by locating the voiceless outsider identity in the micro context, thereby creating a force to challenge the organisation dominant logic. The source of change studied in this research project was predominantly external to the traditional executive structures and lay instead in the socio-political and economic context. Barnett and Carroll (1995) did extensive work on the external factors causing change and concluded that theories are still lacking in explaining how and why some organisations are pushed by impending catastrophe. Applying an identity lens to locate the outsider identity in the micro decision-making frame while parties act coercively, contributes to the new knowledge of coercive forms of power. These findings, as presented in Chapter 7, satisfy the theoretical contribution of the study by answering both research questions.

Through these insights I hope to have contributed to the knowledge base on change management by explaining how a set of circumstances in the macro socio political context forced unplanned change on an organisation. Change is an ever-present reality that affects all organisations. In a macro context where socio political climate and socio-economic conditions create inequality in societies, organisations find themselves vulnerable and susceptible to pressure from society at large. The force to change is never

one sided and can be experienced both directly and indirectly. An emphasis on planned approaches to change has not secured the successful management of change (Glensore, 2010), even less so when management is caught off guard. Consistent with a processual view of reality, organisational life is best characterised by an interactive process of creative evolution (Bergson, 1998); choice, chance and environmental circumstances interact to produce both positive and negative unintended consequences that influence organisational outcomes (MacKay Bradley & Chia 2013). By understanding the dynamic process in which change can occur, this study aims to contribute to the improvement on how organisations deal with change.

The summarised framework of Fleming and Spicer (2014) presents a useful guide for managers to understand how power operates. Combined with the findings in this study, it can locate mechanisms of collective identity in the different forms of power. The organisational change literature on power tends to focus on power localised within the organisation (Munduate et al. 2003) whereas the framework presents an interpretation of force and power relations both inside and outside the organisation. It establishes how forces inside and outside work together to force change, challenging the notion of traditional stakeholders.

The grounded model on unplanned forced change aligns to and extends the social movement framework posited by Briscoe and Gupta (2016) and extends it to include change management literature. In the current world dynamic, where activism is rife and contributes meaningfully to unplanned change in organisations, the change leader and facilitator will benefit from understanding how this mechanism operates.

Lastly, social media is key. Organisations need to learn to work with and through social media platforms, not only to anticipate change but also to manage communication, image and stakeholders proactively. Social network scholars have shown that activists who

perceive the social networks in an organisation more accurately can act more efficiently and improve their odds of successfully influencing the organisation (Kilduff & Tsai, 2003). Activists lacking resources can still be effective, however, as print and social media cover their activities. The hashtag campaigns have the ability to reach a broader audience to influence mobilisation against an organisation. Social media can be used to convey the need for change (Taylor, Rupp & Gamson, 2004) but organisations are becoming more proactive in managing their social media presence and image (Rybalko & Seltzer, 2010). However, as shown in this study effective framing of the particular cause and the need for change is a critical requirement for the success of a campaign.

Scholars increasingly use social movement theory as a lens through which to understand the dynamic relationship between firms and society (Briscoe, Chin, & Hambrick, 2014) and there has been a steady growth in studies integrating organisational theory and social movement studies (Davis, McAdam, Scott & Zald, 2005). Types of activists, mechanisms or tactics applied by activists and how intelligence is operationalised are the building blocks or concepts identified in the GT model. When power is identified, there is always a likelihood that activism could emerge if the power balance is perceived or experienced negatively.

The findings of this study challenge some elements of the framework pertaining to the knowledge and insights from insider activists and they also shed light on the role of unsocial media in activism.

When activism is combined with intelligence, framed effectively and mobilised against a target, change could be forced. The adapted table below summarises the construct of activism in the grounded model of unplanned forced change from a macro context.

Table 8.1: Insider-Outsider framework of activism and intelligence to mobilise

Types	Insider	Intermediary	Outsider
	Full member of target organisation *Eg. Employees*	*Partial or temporary members of target organisation* *Eg. Shareholders; Students*	*Non members of target organisation* *E.g. Social movement organisation participants*
Resource dependence and implications	High dependence * Reduced incentive to voice grievance * Barriers to deploying disruptive tactics	Varied dependence	Low dependence * Increased incentive to voice opinions * Low barriers to deployment of disruptive tactics
Mechanisms	Knowledge about target organisation High knowledge level Operationalised knowledge used intelligently to frame the total issue and goals, using knowledge of business, values and culture. Ability to focus lobbying using knowledge of informal structures Insights on how to threaten using knowledge of critical resources and routines	Varied Insights on how to threaten knowing target vulnerabilities but dependent on insider or outsiders to guide the other elements	Low knowledge level More difficulty framing claims and issues unless the issue extends into external organisational field Limited ability to focus lobbying against target Lower certainty on how best to threaten unless partnered with insiders Proxy targeting often used as a mechanism
	Collective identities and identification contribute to activism and mobilisation		
Social media	Can accelerate mobilisation for all types of activists		

Framework adapted from the Briscoe and Gupta model (2016, p. 678)

Theoretically, the discussion invites change scholars to pay greater attention to the various forms of power that potentially force change on organisations, and the influence of collective identity. The South African story of a challenged macro context rife with socio political and economic inequalities, racial tensions and misunderstood identities is not unique.

For practitioners and business leaders this study sheds light on the less strategic but more insidious conditions that are often missed in the grand scheme of strategy but that can create a force for change that has major implications for the organisation. Careful attention should be paid to diversity, particularly when profiles start changing in the

organisation. Understanding stakeholders and not missing people who could become 'dissolved' into a contractual agreement or governance framework is a key lesson. Stakeholder analysis and management is an activity that should not be limited to communication or human resources functions. Specifically, the level and types of power these actors could potentially hold is critical to the organisational dominant logic. If not anticipated and managed, changes in profile, background and affiliation of key stakeholders could catch management off guard and lead to forced unplanned change. These profile changes often go unnoticed and bring about a new social dynamic that impacts discourse and solutions. It is essential to ensure that dialogue is open and trusting, to have mechanisms that will elevate discerning voices and to appreciate the complexity of a collective identity. Personal leadership is necessary for getting to know and understand the voices of all people doing work for you.

Beyond and complementary to the profile changes, management will benefit from an understanding of various stakeholder groups, their affiliations and how that may contribute to collaboration or co-opetition. When management experiences a collaborative force from different groups of stakeholders, it would be in their interest to understand the level of co-opetition, to identify the various groups and to observe moments of collaboration as well as times when factions appear in the coalition. These factions give management an opportunity to respond as they create a momentary loss in power. At the end of a mobilisation effort or event, various activist groupings retreat to their corners, and more often than not, struggle memory is lost. The implication is that a new mobilisation effort against the same organisation starts from a clean slate.

Management could also benefit from understanding the concept of institutional logics, the alignment between existing logics, and their organisation's dominant logic and how it informs organisational practices. As was demonstrated in the study, multiple logics can

exist but the key is to understand this and to anticipate the conflict this may lead to in order to address it proactively. Cognitively, the dominant logic articulates the organisation's assumptions, paradigms, heuristics and theories about competition, value creation and value capture in its industry (Prahalad and Bettis, 1986). Management therefore makes sense of this external environment and sets the tone through vision, values, structure, practices and culture; in essence the identity of the organisation. Identifying any potential conflict early gives management the upper hand in addressing stakeholders who may feel disenfranchised or dominated through such practices.

Organisational practices are the most basic form of communicating meaning throughout an organisation. How we do things, reveals how the inherent organisational dominant logic is interpreted across the organisation. These practices are enabled through people because systems can only run processes. At times, however, people may experience the meaning of certain practices as discriminating or domineering; for example, existing practices and policies may fail to identify a person within a service level agreement.

Various mechanisms can assist management at all levels to eliminate the Eiffel tower complex, leaving organisations better equipped to understand or observe shifts in prevailing logics and anticipate the impact on organisational practices before change is forced on them. The first mechanism includes the beliefs and values of an institutional logic. During strategic planning and risk management, organisational leaders need to include in their assessments an understanding of the societal and macro level shifts that are happening. Any potential shift should be evaluated against the organisational vision and values and how it informs the business architecture and practices. This will require a transformation of minds and combine common sense with intelligence. Common sense refers to proven formulas and methodologies to assist management in identifying the root of an issue. All human related issues are complex and therefore multifaceted. Various

decision options have different consequences but remaining true to the vision and values of the organisation can present a beacon for decision-making.

Managers often make the mistake of relying on union representatives to be the source of communication with some of their employees. The study demonstrated how the inadequate framing of an issue by the insider activists leads to the issue being downplayed and completely missed at all levels of leadership in the organisation. Apart from ensuring direct, open communication with all stakeholders, managers also need to consider issues raised by unions and to go directly to the source of the issue to understand its roots and thereby frame the issue for themselves.

Subjectification is another soft form of power that management often misses. Through an understanding of how organisational practices enact power in one direction (managers holding the power), management are sensitised about potential discontent and potential future conflict. If management applies processes of dialogue and a culture of trust exists, public and hidden transcripts could surface, allowing those with less power a voice (Scott, 1985). By ensuring that people are not just present at work but that they are fully engaged at all times, managers could proactively identify potential alternative identities that the disenfranchised worker in these practices could enact.

Direct force, as experienced in the example of activism, led to quick decision-making. The speed of decision-making did not allow sufficient time for consultation and joint resolutions due to the violent nature of direct mobilisation. This further meant that management did not fully comprehend the impact of the change decision. Before management experienced the threat they had not realised that indirect forms of power had been lurking all along. The channels to allow the dissenting voice of disenfranchised workers to emerge were either ineffective or non-existing. There may have been traces of information sharing but no real engagement.

Lastly, as explained in the findings in Chapter 7, managers need to pay attention to the role and attributes of social media platforms and ensure they are equipped to face and deal with the new methods and styles of communication.

Unplanned change can have dire consequences if not aligned to the success and sustainability of an organisation. This in turn negatively influences the society in which such organisations operate.

8.3 ASSESSMENT OF THE RESEARCH

The previous section answered the question in terms of the achievement of the objectives of the study. This section will comment on my perception on quality criteria applied during the process.

8.3.1 Assessing the quality

This section outlines my reflection on how the study measured up to standards of qualitative research. As stated in Chapter 2, 'rigor' in qualitative research centers on trustworthiness, which Guba and Lincoln (1982, p. 246) expanded to include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Similarly, Gibbert & Ruigrok (2010) and Yin (2014) outlined criteria for high quality research projects that include trustworthiness, confirmability, credibility and dependability.

Trustworthiness and confirmability

This section highlights some of the ways in which trustworthiness and confirmability can be achieved and reflects on how I set out to achieve them. The first approach to ensure this is through triangulation – providing multiple sources of data. I ensured that a sufficient element of direct quotes from the data substantiated my claims in the analysis presented in chapters 6 and 7. While the interview scripts were the primary data sources, I also included secondary supporting documents like archival documentation from the

organisation and media clippings reporting on the events. Previous research and published material were invaluable, especially in terms of plotting the events over the 17-year timeframe.

Another approach includes informant checking. I had easy access to several of my informants and was therefore able to interact with them and test my evolving ideas in real time. The program manager who served as the initial contact in the organisation was also on hand to comment on any potential inconsistencies or gaps in my interpretations.

Through my research journaling I kept a comprehensive diary of my research process, personal experience, input, insights gained and decisions at every step. Every assertion was backed up by research data, as far as possible using direct quotes from informants or validating information with secondary data. The journal also included extensive field notes. The audit trail was kept updated and is available on request as an addendum to this report. All interview recordings and field note recordings were transcribed and copies of all transcripts are available and have been saved on the Atlas.ti database.

Finally, through prolonged engagement and observations in the field (I was on site for at least five months during data collection and analysis) I was able to immerse myself in the environment, collect and test assumptions in real time and establish a chain of evidence.

Credibility

Essentially, credibility is achieved during data analysis. The case study design and protocol were consistently applied at each iteration of the analysis process. As presented in the reiterative cycle of data analysis in Chapter 2, each interview was followed by a cycle of analysis, writing and testing, and this was repeated 18 times. Following the axial and substantive coding steps to elevate the concepts and theoretical constructs, I looped back into my data set to repeat the cycle and at times to repeat theoretical sampling. For

example, while the practice of outsourcing was positioned through the informants, later, especially viewed through the lens of institutional logics, this practice became critical and I delved back into the field to gain a deeper understanding of it over the 17 years. In addition to the informants, I found a number of literature sources reporting on outsourcing that were useful in understanding the development of the practice, and these were corroborated by informant accounts.

Another method to ensure credibility lies in the case description, and an entire chapter was dedicated to a thick description of the case. Memos and peer debriefing enhanced the credibility of the study and refined the explanations. Initially, peer debriefing was done monthly with the supervising committee but later it was done more frequently with the co-supervisor. Other peers included colleagues, especially PhD colleagues knowledgeable about methodology, and specialists in change theory and broader organisational theory. I also presented two papers at international conferences. The peer debriefing at international conferences was especially helpful in terms of identifying an explanatory framework.

Finally, sound analytical methods complemented by visual mapping and time sequencing were used to arrive at the grounded theory presented in Chapter 7. The case study database is also available to confirm the dependability of the findings. With the rigorous protocol followed and the detailed case study, it would be possible to replicate this study in other settings.

8.4 IMPLICATIONS AND POTENTIAL LIMITATIONS

8.4.1 Implications and recommendations

At some point I considered the background of various informants and how this influenced their response to the change. Very early on a member of the supervising

committee alluded to cognitive dissonance. I explained that I did not explore this because the unit of analysis was at the level of process and the informants' views on the process. I felt that considering any construct at the individual level would go against the methodology and intention of the study. The work done by Jansen (2017), who studied leadership during the #FMF event, suggests that this level of analysis could be explored in follow-up research. However, for the purpose of this study, this level of analysis fell outside the scope of the project.

8.4.2 Limitations and opportunities

The study contains three potential limitations. As they are not in line with the scope and objectives of this research project, they could present opportunities for future exploration.

Firstly, the limitation of the study on a theoretical level was that there could potentially be other theoretical lenses that could be applied to the data. An example alluded to earlier is that the organisational culture was not explored and that stakeholder theory could add additional insights to the explanation. However, the lenses that were applied in the study provided a sufficient anchoring point for the GT explanation that was eventually constructed. Furthermore, the study expanded on current knowledge in social movement literature.

The idea of identity was addressed in the findings, where it was emphasised that the identity lens matched the level of analysis and therefore looked at collective discourse of identity as opposed to individual identity. Identity was covered in institutional logics, which was applied as a theoretical lens: discourses create identities at the collective level, and an institutional logic is in essence a discourse. Given the central role that identities play in institutional logics this is therefore not a limitation but could even be considered a strength of the study.

Finally, it could be argued that a multiple case study design may have provided a more complete and comparable analysis, especially since the event occurred at multiple institutions. Due to the nature of the methodology applied (grounded theory and a case study) as well as the pressure and time frame of a PhD study, a single case was selected and approved by the research board. Nevertheless, data saturation did occur in terms of the themes identified, which contributes to the generalisability of the findings from an analytical perspective (Yin, 2014). The study therefore contributed to the development of a sound GT framework which, in future research, may be tested at the other institutions that experienced a similar force toward unplanned change. The examiner commented on the methodological innovative approach to research design and recommended pubications in this regard.

The aim of theoretical generalization (Yin, 2014) is to generalize to other concrete situations. Through my analysis and carefully attending to coding, I started informing generalizable theoretical statements that transcends specific times and places and contextual analysis of actions and events. Applying the constructivist GT analytical procedure of Charmaz (2006), I moved from empirical observation to the development of concepts, claims were made about the plausibility of the theorized elements and not about the extent of their expression in a population (Yin, 2014). A conceptual category has analytical generalizability when it can plausibly account for a large number and range of empirical observations. I therefore believe that the theory can hold up across a range of emergent organisational change contexts and can be tested in different cases. The conceptual model developed in this study, can be further refined into a framework to be tested in a follow up research project.

An opportunity on a practical level was that the study did not unpack the process by

which the specific management team dealt with the change. This was because this exploratory study set out to study the process by which change can happen as opposed to how change is managed. This distinction is clear in the change literature. However, the GT model and framework provides a useful guide to assist leaders and change practitioners in understanding how unplanned forced change can happen, thus providing a guideline to deal proactively with sources of activism and power. Furthermore, an opportunity exists to build on this study by unpacking the process through which management dealt with the events and in so doing explore new insights in how to facilitate forced, unplanned change.

The events of the hashtag movements during 2015/16 in South Africa were often experienced and expressed as a traumatic and stressful time for most of the informants in this study, most of whom were involved in one way or another in this process. They welcomed being able to participate in this project as it presented them with an opportunity to reflect on what had happened and to reflect on their own emotions. In so doing, some even mentioned that they found the interview session helped them to process their emotions and stress. The process therefore presented an unexpected opportunity for research in the field of organisational change on the level of reflection of those undergoing a process of forced unplanned change.

8.5 PERSONAL REFLECTIONS

The subject of the study and the process of research was an absolute pleasure, and the Ienjoyed the journey. However, applying the grounded theory methodology was experienced as daunting. I reflected often with my co-supervisor, who is an expert in the methodology and who continuously challenged me to account for each step and action in the process. When it came to evolving the concepts, I remarked to my spouse that I felt as if I was learning to drive and specifically learning ‘clutch control’. The steps made sense in

my head but I struggled to master the skill of writing. When the nuanced explanation unfolded and my so-called ‘clutch control’ was mastered, I then found it difficult to get back to a higher level of conceptualising to build the puzzle pieces into a theoretical model. All through this the model emerged and although there were times of immense frustration with self, on the day I presented the model and process to my supervisor and it was given the green light, I was filled with energy and passion for this apprenticeship.

The field of organisational change is often viewed superficially as very pragmatic and approached with specific models and step-by-step guidelines. Having specialised in the field for more than 20 years, I always had an appreciation for the complex nature of the change process. Applying the qualitative case study with grounded theory and narrative analysis in this study has given me a greater appreciation of the process of change and its nuances. As a systems thinker, I furthermore appreciated the application of other complementary theoretical frameworks used to make sense of the findings. I hope that this will be acknowledged in the organisational theory literature and used to build the capacity of practitioners and leaders in the field.

Unlike a quantitative approach where chapters are completed and filed away, the process in this study was fluid. At times frustrated and riddled with anxiety, I loved the creative process and revisiting chapters based on how the story unfolded. At the point where I was investigating identity theory I found the body of literature on identity exciting but confusing. I was also challenged when applying an identity lens while my unit of analysis was at a process level. Later in the analysis process I was introduced to institutional logics and in so doing found a way to situate collective identity within the institutional logics lens and then had to re-visit my literature chapter. It was all very exciting. The nature of the study also allowed my story telling nature to emerge and I

enjoyed being creative in how I produced the report while still complying with scientific rigour.

At lunch with two of my mentors in the field, Professor Jean Bartunek and Professor Robert Chia, I reflected on my experience. Professor Chia's remark that completing the PhD is like an apprenticeship resonated with me. I enjoyed the experience, including the (multiple) moments of anxiety, panic attacks, frustrations with self and writer's/researcher's block. I developed an eternal bond with and love for my supervisors who really were my mentors on this apprenticeship. It is almost sad to write the concluding remarks but I am well aware that it is merely the start of an exciting new phase of my life journey.

8.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The assumptions and parameters contributing to the field of organisational behavior (including change) are ever changing. As indicated by the research of Weick (1998; 2001), organisations have to continually make sense of cues in the environment, and improvise new ways to apply the lessons they have learnt. He also spoke about events that do not make sense initially: "Part of leading is to accept what has happened so that it is possible to take a small next step in the direction of recovery. And part of acceptance is the realisation that people often go through at least three stages when they deal with the inexplicable: superficial simplicity, confused complexity and profound simplicity." Weick (2001, p. 1).

This study presented an interesting case that could easily have been written off with a simple explanation. The research forms part of an ongoing discourse about a topic that will never go away. Change is a part of life, an everyday ongoing phenomenon, and organisational actors should learn more about how it happens. This research has taken a step toward contributing to this knowledge.

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APPENDIX A: TERMINOLOGY

APPENDIX A1 : LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The following abbreviations are used frequently in the thesis.

Abbreviation	Meaning
ANC	African National Congress (political party)
BAM	British Academy of Management
CBC	Canadian Broadcasting Corporation
CCMA	Commision of Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CHE	Council of Higher Education
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
DA	Democratic Alliance (political party)
EFF	Economic Freedom Fighters (political party)
EFFSC	Economic Freedom Fighters Student Command
EWN	Eyewitness News
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy
GT	Grounded Theory
HE	Higher Education
HOD	Head of Department
IO	Industrial and Organisational
MS	Microfsoft
NCHE	National Commission on Higher Education
NEDLAC	National Economic Development and Labour Council
NSFAS	National Student Financial Aid Scheme
OD	Organisational Development
ODC	Organisational Development and Change
OR	Organisational Representative
PDI	Previously Disadvantaged Institution
RC	Research Committee
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Program
SLA	Service Level Agreement
SMO	Social Movement Organisation participants
SRC	Student Representative Counsel
SYM	Socialist Youth Movement
UCT	University of Cape Town
UP	University of Pretoria
VC	Vice Chancellor
VUCA	Volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity
WASP	Workers and Allied Socialist party (Social activist movement)
WITS	University of Witwatersrand
#FMF	#Fees Must Fall movement
#OMF	#Outsourcing Must Fall movement
#RMF	#Rhodes Must Fall movement

APPENDIX A2 : DEFINITION OF TERMS

Formal definitions and terms used

Term	Definition	Reference
Organisational change	Change is the reweaving of actor's webs of beliefs and habits of action to accommodate new experiences obtained through interactions. In so far as this is an on-going process, which is to the extent actors trying to make sense of and act coherently in the world, change is inherent in human action, and organisations are sites of continuously evolving human action.	Tsoukas and Chia (2002)
Public HE institutions	Public HE institutions in South Africa are academic institutions underwritten to various degrees by government subsidies.	Van Der Walt, L., Bolsmann, C., Johnson, B., & Martin, L. (2002)
Context	In this study, context refers to the organisational environment that impacted on the phenomenon under review. Johns defined context as those "situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organisational behavior as well as functional relationships between variables" (2006, p.386). In this instance, the situational factors influencing the behavior of the organisation or its management will be located in the industry, sector or the wider economy as well as in other normative and institutional structures and regimes (Rowley, Behrens, & Krackhardt, 2000). The contexts that shape those ideas include networks of interaction, complex patterns of conflicting constraints, patterns of tension, interdependent relationships, rules of action, direct and indirect feedback loops, and rapidly changing environmental demands.	Johns (2006) Rowley, Behrens & Krackhardt (2000)
Socio economic context	Socioeconomics refers to the study on how economic activity affects and is shaped by social processes. The socio economic contexts therefore presents the environment that determines how societies and business, progress, stagnates or regress because of their local or regional economy or global economy.	Hellmich (2015)
Socio-political context	Socio-political incorporates both social and political factors.	Used in the thesis
Outsourcing	The process when an organisation gives the responsibility and accountability for business processes to another organisation. The definition of outsourcing is so broad that it includes virtually any good or service that an organisation procures from outside firms. Gilley and Rasheed suggest however that outsourcing is less a purchasing decision than a rejection to internalise an activity that had previously or potentially been within the firm's managerial or financial capabilities.	Gilley & Rasheed (2000)
Insourcing	Reversing the decision to outsource a service.	Used in thesis
Power	Power could be viewed as patterns of perceived need and expressed in forms of relationships. Weber (1978) construed power as "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his will despite resistance" (p. 53). The thesis applied the taxonomy of power as presented by Fleming and Spicer, summarising direct and indirect forms of power namely domination, subjectification, manipulation and coercion.	Munduate & Bennebroek Gravenhorst (2003) Weber (1978)

Planned change	The study of organisational change dates back to the 1940's when Kurt Lewin (1930-1947) first introduced his planned change theory. Anticipated instances of organisational change can be planned and coordinated to facilitate a smooth transition, manage potential resistance and drive the most value realisation.	Used in thesis
Unplanned change	The literature presents that planned change initiatives could have unintended consequences and organisations needing to improvise. In this thesis, unplanned change is used for instances where change is forced onto an organisation.	Purser (2005) Snowden & Boone (2007) Used in thesis
Informants	Participants in the study interviewed by the researcher.	Used in thesis.
Missing middle	The missing middle is an established common-sense classification in South Africa and refers to students who are too poor to afford higher education (HE) but not poor enough to qualify for government or public funding.	Fernandes & Sene (2011)
Activism	Instances of events in which individuals and groups of individuals, lacking access to full influencing channels, engage in collective action to address a perceived social problem or to promote or counter changes to the existing social order.	King & Soule (2007)
Tweet	A short message format utilised on the Twitter social media platform.	Used in thesis
Blended economy	A blended economy is characterised by elements of capitalism but limited by state ownership and regulation. A prominent social activist, David Sebei from the Workers and Allied Socialist Party (WASP), referred to the concept of a blended economy (De Waal, 2014). To him it implied the situation where a country with a predominant capitalist economy still experiencing very high levels of poverty and inequality.	Used in thesis
Contract worker	A labourer working for an organisation providing outsourced services to the Academy.	Used in thesis
Labour union	Formal trade union established to represent their constituents who will usually be employees in a specific labour sector.	Used in thesis.
Collective identity	Discources are inherently social and therefore identity in this instance is at the level of the social. Collective identification does not always have to be elected or acknowledged by individuals but can also be constituted in its recognition by observers (Jenkins, 2008). A collective identity is the cognitive, normative and emotional connection experienced by members of a social group because of their perceived common status with other members of the social group (Polleta and Jasper, 2001). Collective identities emerge out of social interactions and communication between members of the social group (White, 1992). Therefore identification and collective identities were mechanisms to understand what was happening, but identity at an individual level was not considered.	Used in thesis
Mechanisms	The dynamic behaviors that occur within a system such as a complex adaptive system. As defined by Hernes (1998), mechanisms are "a set of interacting parts—an assembly of elements producing an effect not inherent in any of them" (p. 74). They are "not so much about 'nuts and bolts' as about 'cogs and wheels'...— the "wheelwork" or agency by which an effect is produced" (Hernes, 1998, p. 74).	Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey (2007) Hernes (1998)

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B : SEMI STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONAIRE

SEMI STRUCTURED INTERVIEW- DRAFT

Exploring how socio political context and external power dynamics influenced organisational change

Introduction

Researcher to set the context and build rapport. Confirm suitability of timing for interview.

Semi-structured interview

1. Please share with me your experience of and the account of the organisational change process pertaining to the insourcing of Security services

Sub-questions following on and to probe on Q1:

1.1. What were the specific events prompting the change? Timeline?
1.2. Did you notice key decisions/ milestones/ tipping points in the process?
1.3. What information informed the decisions?
1.4. How was information gathered?
1.5. Was there a specific goal/ vision set? Or, was the decision more emergent?
1.6. How was leadership involved? Who else was involved? How and when?
1.7. Was there a specific approach followed to this change process?

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C : CASE STUDY PROTOCOL

APPENDIX C1.1 : ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
Tel: +27 12 420 3395
E-mail: ronel.rensburg@up.ac.za

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

22 July 2016

Strictly confidential

Prof KJ Stanz
Department of Human Resource Management

Dear Professor Stanz

Project:	Toward an understanding of macro political context and power on organisational development and change
Researcher:	NV Winkler-Titus
Student No:	95259334
Supervisor:	Prof KJ Stanz
Co-supervisor:	Dr A Crafford
Department:	Human Resource Management

Thank you for the application you submitted to the Committee for Research Ethics, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences. I have pleasure in informing you that the above study was approved on an *ad hoc* basis on 22 July 2016. The approval is subject to the candidate abiding by the principles and parameters set out in the application and research proposal in the actual execution of the research.

The approval does not imply that the researcher, student or lecturer is relieved of any accountability in terms of the Codes of Research Ethics of the University of Pretoria if action is taken beyond the approved proposal.

The Committee requests that you convey this approval to the researcher.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely

pp PROF RS RENSBURG
CHAIR: COMMITTEE FOR RESEARCH ETHICS

cc: Dr A Crafford
Prof JM Hoobler
Student Administration

Members: Prof RS Rensburg (Chair); Prof R van Eyden (Deputy Chair); Dr WM Badenhorst; Prof DJ Fourie; Prof JF Kirsten; Prof BA Lubbe; Prof MC Matthee; Prof JA Nel; Prof SG Nienaber; Dr K Plant; Dr M Reyers; Prof JJ van Vuuren; Prof M Wiese
Legal adviser: Prof C van Heerden
Secretariat: Mr M Deysel

Fakulteit Ekonomiese en Bestuurswetenskappe
Lefapha la Disaense tša Ekonomi le Taolo

APPENDIX C1.2 : ORGANISATION LETTER OF APPROVAL

Due to the confidentiallity of the identity of the case organisation, this letter has been ommitted in the dissertation. The original approval letter may be sourced from researcher directly.

APPENDIX C1.3 : INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Denkleiers • Leading Minds • Dikgopolo tša Dihlalefi

Department Human Resource Management
Economic and Management Sciences

Informed consent for participation in an academic research study
Dept. of Human Resource Management

Toward an understanding of macro political context and power on organisational development and change

Research conducted by:
Mrs. N. Winkler-Titus (95259334)
Cell: 083 469 2080

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Natasha Winkler-Titus, a Doctoral student from the Department: Human Resource Management at the University of Pretoria.

The purpose of the study is to explore and explain the organisational change process unfolding at the University of Pretoria, with specific focus on the In-sourcing programme. This is a case study of the phenomenon in your organisation and will include interviews with relevant leaders and stakeholders to this process.

Please note the following:

- This part of the study involves an interview. Your name will not appear in any quotes used from the interview and the answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential. Any results will be of such a nature that it will not be possible to identify you in person.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- Questions will be used to guide the interview, and you are urged to answer the questions of the interview as completely and honestly as possible. You may also volunteer additional information as you see applicable. The interview is planned to take approximatelly one-and-a-half hour.
- Any relevant documentation as discussed with you, may be requested to form part of data analysis.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes as well as for lay articles and conference proceedings; however, identities of individuals will be kept confidential. The results of the study will also be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
- Please contact my supervisor, Prof K. Stanz (012 420 3074; karel.stanz@up.ac.za) or co-supervisor, Dr. A. Crafford (anne.crafford@up.ac.za) if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.
- You are comfortable that the interview may be recorded for research purposes.

Respondent's signature

Date 14/07/2016

APPENDIX C2 : INTERVIEW PROTOCOL COMPONENTS

Examples of the protocol elements as discussed in Chapter 2 are included below.

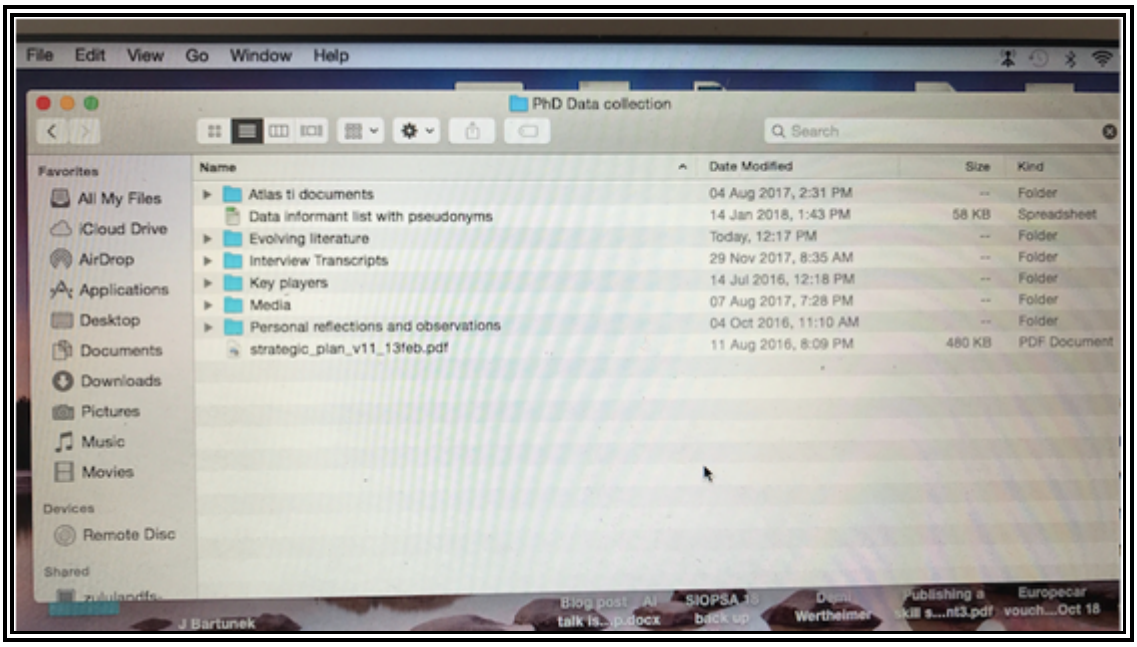
- Agreed list of stakeholder groups
- Examples of email correspondence between organisational representatives and informants
- On line folder structure for the case

After conducting the first meeting with the organisation representative, I summarised the initial process as documented from the informant as well as a proposed list of stakeholders to be included as informants. For confidentiality, the names of the informants are omitted and the stakeholder groups were articulated in Chapter 2.

The organisational representative made all introductions between the informants and the researcher and email introductions led to scheduling of interviews, as demonstrated in the email below.

Due to the confidential nature of the study, the examples of correspondence have been removed from the final copy.

Once the fieldwork commenced, a folder structure was set up on the personal computer of the researcher and also replicated on a cloud / web based folder.



Data collection folder

A hardcopy interview file was also created with all original interview transcripts, correspondence, signed consent letters. Any additional field notes were captured as part of the data capture process in Atlas.ti.

APPENDIX C3 : TEXTUAL DATA PROTOCOL

File management

The interviews were recorded using a Dictaphone, with informant consent. Following the interview, the researcher transcribed the interview using MS Word. After the transcription, the script was reviewed while re-listening to the audio interview checking for accuracy. These first drafts were saved and then the pseudo names applied. A separate list of informant code names were saved. This process also required a third read and review to ensure confidentiality and nothing in the script could link back to an informant. Thereafter, files were saved to a rtf format and loaded onto Atlast.ti for coding. All original document and files are available on request.

Coding steps

After loading a file into Atlast.ti, the same steps were followed for each transcript. These are explained below.

Code line by line.
Code names kept as close as possible to the data.
Added notes/ comments where applicable to record ideas/ thoughts as the coding proceeded. These followed from notes taken during the interviewing process.
Code full transcript from start to finish
Highlight quotes to expand the idea of the codes.
The first 3 transcripts started highlighting themes and therefore memo writing commenced very early on in the process.

While coding tried to keep the codes succinct and short, quotes were included to ensure the richness of the statements did not get lost in the interpretation. Not all codes were used and quotations were trimmed used in the final document, but having the full context aided in the analysis process.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D : AUDIT TRAIL - Code book

ATLAS.ti Report by code groups

Report created by Natasha Winkler on 29 Sep 2018

The full code book is available as a separate appendix and can be requested.