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An Exploration of Resistance to Change in Organisations: Multidimensional, Problematising Research

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An Exploration of Resistance to Change in Organisations:
Multidimensional, Problematizing Research

Beverley Anne Macmillan

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of
Sheffield Hallam University
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

June 2019

Candidate Declaration

I hereby declare that:

1. I have not been enrolled for another award of the University, or other academic or professional organisation, whilst undertaking my research degree.
2. None of the material contained in the thesis has been used in any other submission for an academic award.
3. I am aware of and understand the University's policy on plagiarism and certify that this thesis is my own work. The use of all published or other sources of material consulted have been properly and fully acknowledged.
4. The work undertaken towards the thesis has been conducted in accordance with the SHU Principles of Integrity in Research and the SHU Research Ethics Policy.
5. The word count of the thesis is 85,044.

Signature:

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Abstract

Through this interpretive, social constructionist research I explore the multidimensionality of resistance to planned change within organisations and problematize (Alvesson & Karreman, 2007) the literature by challenging assumptions within it.

The research objectives are to: develop a multidimensional conceptual framework of resistance to change; to introduce the concept of constructive discontent into the conceptual framework, considering both positive and negative aspects of resistance and the lack thereof; to provide a socially constructed interpretation of who resists change, why they resist and how that resistance manifests, and where appropriate to findings, to expose assumptions underlying the literature and offer challenge to these assumptions.

Taking a social constructionist approach and pursuing a qualitative methodology, the research is based on 15 semi-structured interviews with participants from a UK Business School with experience of working in a range of organisations within the private, public and voluntary sectors.

A picture of resistance emerges, rich in its multidimensionality. Eight dimensions of resistance are identified, each of which is multi-faceted: Value; Character; Impact; the Actors; Engagement; Language; Temporal and Spatial. The literature considers the dimensions of resistance in a fragmented manner, identifying few and focusing upon a limited number at any one time. A central contribution of this research is to unite this fractured literature through the creation of a single, multidimensional conceptualisation of the phenomenon.

I make multiple revelatory and incremental contributions to knowledge and practice through building on the existing literature and contributing to neglected areas within the areas of who resists change, how change is resisted, and the language and impact of resistance. I contribute to practice through providing conceptual frameworks and diagrams, or lenses, through which practitioners might view resistance. I turn the traditional conceptualisation of resistance on its head, so that resistance is welcomed and compliance becomes a cause of concern.

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge, and thank, the various members of my supervisory team for the support they have offered at different points in my doctoral studies to enable me to reach this point. I offer special thanks to Professor John Nicholson for his profound insights and whose constant encouragement and support also gave me the confidence to speak at my first academic conference (convened by the Strategic Management Society in Milan in 2017) and to Dr. Katherine Gardiner for her eye for detail, good natured support and positive influence; both of whom have worked at different points as my supervisors and Director of Studies.

I also wish to acknowledge and thank my rapporteurs, the academics who taught me in preparation for this doctoral research and to the academic who blind peer reviewed the conference paper I submitted to the Strategic Management Society, for their constructive feedback, and to the conference delegates for their insightful comments. I am also deeply grateful to my participants without whom I would not have been able to undertake this research.

In addition to this academic support I have received emotional support and encouragement from my family: my husband, Kevin Macmillan, my daughters Bethany and Heather Macmillan and my parents, Maureen and James Stott (whose frequently asked question "How's your doctorate coming along?" ensured I kept on working!) I am also grateful to my brother and sister-in-law, Paul and Katherine Stott, who were willing to discuss their experiences of organisational change with me prior to me going into the field and whose insightful feedback helped me shape an area for exploration, that of management resistance to change. Finally I must also acknowledge my "furry family", our dogs Reuben and Lady (and later Honey too) who lay beside me for hours whilst I worked on this thesis and who were happy for me to stroke them when I needed a break or was struggling with an aspect of this work. They provided great stress relief!

I dedicate my doctorate to my family, human and canine, for their support and for putting up with me throughout the process.

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Chapter One: Introduction

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Within this chapter I introduce myself, the researcher, through a discussion of my personal justification for undertaking this research and my positionality. I explain the purpose of this research and how it evolved, its aims, objectives and the approach and methodology I followed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the contributions to knowledge and practice that I make through this research.

1.1 Personal Justification and Positionality

Reflexive thinking is becoming required practice (Duberley, Johnson & Cassell, 2012) and helps to explain why I wished to undertake this research and the contribution I may make to it.

My experience of change management in the private sector was generally managerialist. In the mid-1990s, colleagues resisting new approaches were rather pejoratively referred to as "the old guard" by my line-manager. Morgan (2001) found the same metaphor being used to describe people resistant to change. Some years later as an established senior manager, a new top manager referred to his "new management team" which caused me to reflect upon how I was probably now perceived as "the old guard" despite still caring deeply about the good of the organisation (as the previous "old guard" no doubt had.)

In studying change at Masters level I became aware of what was proposed as "good practice" when leading change, including rather prescriptive steps such as the CIPD's 7 Cs of change (2012a); Beer, Eisenstat, Russell, and Spector's (1990) "Six Steps to Effective Change and Kotter's 8 step process (1995). I subsequently became aware of a more critical approach (Pieterse, Caniels & Homan, 2012) to change management arguing that such prescriptions are not necessarily appropriate in all situations (Waddell & Sohal, 1998) and that resistance to change can be beneficial to the organisation (Ford, Ford & D'Amelio, 2008; Ford & Ford, 2009; Hughes, 2006; Nevis, 1987). This critical perspective piqued my interest, and after discovering the concept of constructive discontent in Dann's (2008) book on emotional intelligence, I had a hunch that it might link to resistance to change.

Having spoken out against proposed changes that I feared would potentially harm the organisation, I understood that people can resist for good reasons - i.e. with the intention of supporting the organisation. Through reflecting upon my past I am aware that I have been part of management teams who have imposed change and have witnessed occasions where I believe little more than lip-service has been paid to consultation. I have also considered how in the past, a senior manager used to bounce ideas off me to enable him to think them through, I was effectively playing devil's advocate for him. Another director, specifically spoke of putting a draft forward "as an Aunt Sally" for the team "to throw stones at". He was actively seeking criticism of a concept as a means of enhancing it. I also appreciate that I have benefitted from the challenge provided by colleagues which has enabled changes to be well thought through before implementation, and how my early training as an undergraduate historian, taught me to always question "why?" - a form of challenge to deepen understanding.

Thus the literature and personal experience have taught me to question, therefore when considering the conventional paradigm that resistance to change is something to be overcome, I sensed that within both the literature and professional practice those resisting may sometimes be miscast as the villains and I hold a strong sense of injustice about this. My "baggage" or positionality (Thomas, 2013, p. 109) has thus impacted upon the direction of this research. Having this awareness of possible "prejudices" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p.

242) has enabled me to be reflective and to challenge myself when analysing the material I collect, leading me to consciously seek material that does *not* support my prejudices thereby enhancing the quality and rigour of this research.

1.2 Research Purpose and its Evolution

The purpose of my research evolved from focusing upon how resistance to change within organisations might deliver value and link to the concept of constructive discontent (Dann, 2008; Dmytriyev, Freeman & Haskins, 2016; Lowitt, 2013; Suchy, 2004), to exploring its multidimensionality and problematizing (Alvesson & Karreman, 2007) the literature. Such developments are not uncommon when the researcher is open to unexpected themes emerging (Alvesson & Karreman, 2007) and empirical findings can be crucial to determining the research purpose (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013). When analysing the material, a multidimensional, highly nuanced picture of resistance began to emerge and I began to challenge as overly simplistic, the assumption within the literature that resistance is either good or bad for the organisation, something to be celebrated or demonised (Thomas & Hardy, 2011). I became fascinated by the multiplicity of dimensions of resistance to change that were emerging and my research evolved to focus upon them. I capture them in my “Octagon of Resistance” (Figure 1), a conceptual framework which captures in a single image the multidimensionality of resistance and highlights how each dimension is itself multi-faceted.

The Octagon of Resistance

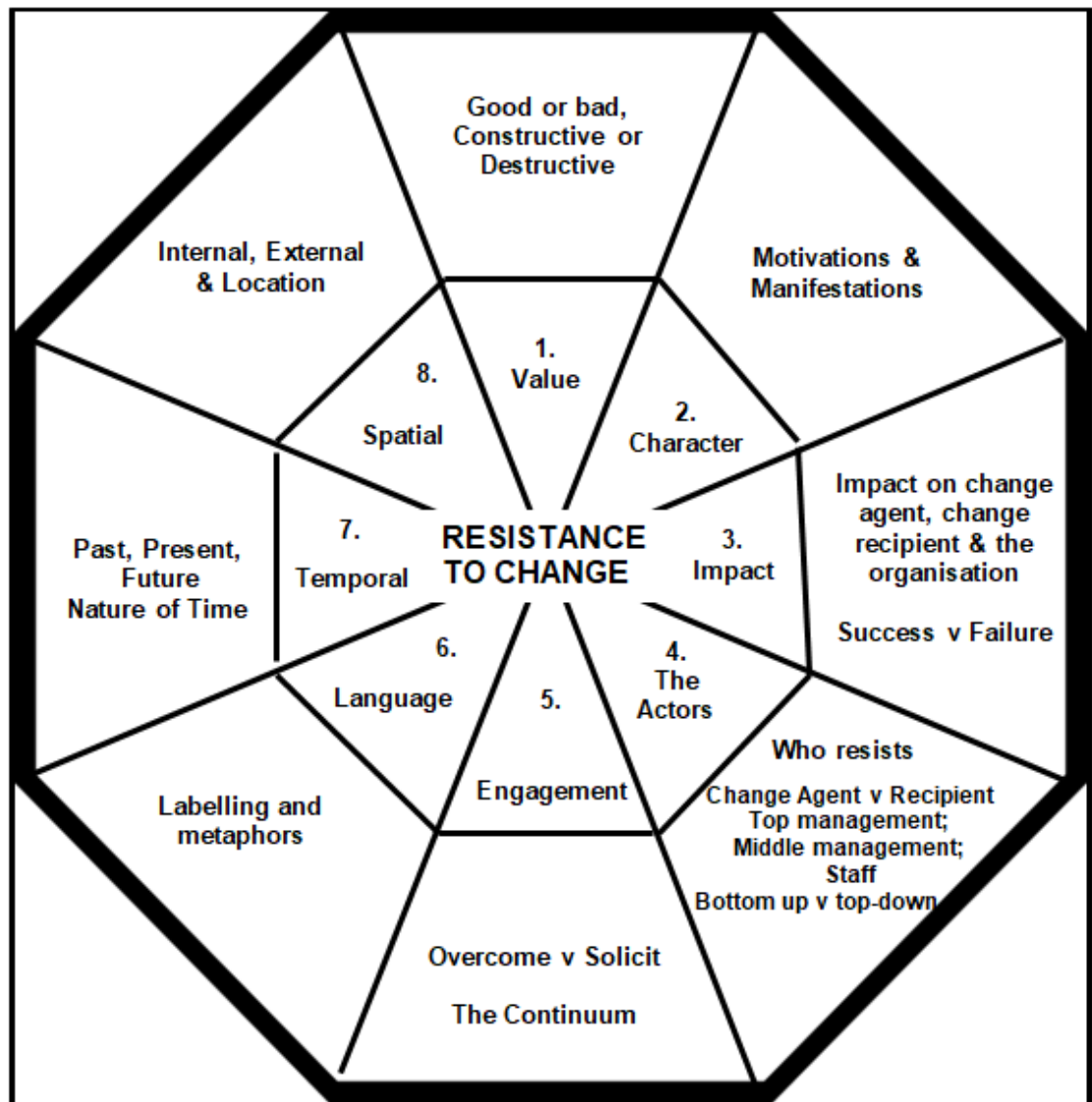


Figure 1

My initial interest in exploring how resistance might link to the concept of constructive discontent now forms part of the "Value" dimension which encapsulates whether resistance is good or bad, constructive or destructive for the organisation. I problematize (Alvesson & Karreman, 2007) the literature, challenging assumptions within it, and therefore my research does not sit within the "conventional literature" (Pieterse, Caniels, & Homan, 2012, p. 800) in which resistance to change is considered negatively. I challenge this conceptualisation, positioning resistance instead as a multidimensional, potentially positive force. I thereby contribute to the literature providing "critical perspectives on change management" (Pieterse, et al., 2012, p. 800).

The purpose of this research is thus *concept development* (Gioia, Corley & Hamilton, 2013) generated through exploring the multidimensionality of resistance to change, and problematizing the literature by challenging assumptions related to planned, top-down change. In developing concepts within this thesis I employ the terms *theoretical framework* and *conceptual framework*. These terms are often used interchangeably but there is a difference (Sitwala, 2014) and so it is important to specify what I mean by them for the purposes of this research. A theoretical framework is one I have constructed based on the literature (Grant & Osanloo, 2014), a conceptual framework has been derived from my qualitative empirical material (Jaboreen, 2009), and where I have also employed material from the literature into my conceptual framework to create an amalgamation of both, the theoretical element is clearly marked as such.

1.3: Research Aims and Objectives

The aim of the research is to present a nuanced and socially constructed interpretation of resistance to change from the perspective of participants who have worked in the private, public or voluntary sectors.

The objectives (O1 etc.) and related questions (Q1 etc.) of this research are:

O1: To develop a multidimensional conceptual framework of resistance to change.

Q1. What dimensions are identified in current research and the literature?

This question is addressed within the Literature Review Chapter. All of the following objectives and questions are addressed within the Findings and Discussion Chapters and the Conclusions and Contributions Chapter.

Q2. What further dimensions can be identified empirically?

O2: To introduce the concept of constructive discontent into the conceptual framework, considering both positive and negative aspects of resistance and the lack thereof.

Q3: What dimensions of constructive discontent can be interpreted in the narratives of the participants?

In order to develop the conceptual framework I seek:

O3: To provide a socially constructed interpretation of who resists change, why they resist and how that resistance manifests.

Q4: Who within the organisational hierarchy resists change?

Q5: What motivations for resistance can be interpreted from the accounts of the participants?

Q6: How does the resistance manifest?

O4: Where appropriate to the findings, to expose and challenge assumptions within the literature.

Q6: What assumptions within the literature are challenged by the findings that emerge my empirical material?

1.4 Research Approach

This research is qualitative, taking an inductive, social constructionist (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Cunliffe, 2008) approach within the interpretivist paradigm. It is interpretivist because I am interpreting how other people make sense of the world to develop theoretical understanding through concept development.

This social constructionist research is based on the premise that social realities are created through conversations between people (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Cunliffe 2008). As knowledge in interpretivist research is situated in the interactions between people, my position as researcher is important as it impacts upon those interpretations and I therefore write in the *first person* to indicate my involvement as the researcher. It is therefore important to be open about my subjectivity or "positionality" (Thomas, 2013). My baggage comes from having significant experience of change both within the private, public and Higher Education sectors, from being involved in both leading changes that met with resistance, from resisting change myself and from an extensive reading of the literature. These experiences impacted upon the direction of my proposed research and the awareness of my "prejudices" (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009, p. 242) led me to challenge myself when analysing the material I collected. I was alert to seeking material that does not support them, to be "fair and balanced" (Thomas, 2013, p. 110).

I followed Thomas' (2006) General Inductive Approach methodology, a data reduction process, with applications of Gioia et al.'s (2013) inductive model as it is designed to bring rigour to qualitative research. Grounded in the data it "captures the informants' experience in theoretical terms" (Gioia et al, 2013, p. 22), making clear the relationships among the concepts that emerge and the

data-to-theory connections "thus allaying the usual concern that qualitative research too often does not show just how data relate to theory" (2013, p. 22). I applied this methodology for its transparency and rigour.

The research method is to employ semi-structured interviews with material collected via a purposive (Thomas, 2013; Salmons, 2016) self-selecting sample. I analysed the material using Thomas' (2013, p. 236) "network analysis" method and by thematic reduction (Thomas, 2006), linking back to the literature (Gioia et al., 2013). I coded and captured the data electronically using Excel. As I wish to understand people's opinions, semi-structured interviews are appropriate, as subsidiary questions may be asked which vary according to the individual (Gioia et al., 2013): "This method of data collection is highly suitable for exploratory and inductive types of study as it matches their purposes well" (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010, p. 126).

All the participants work as academics in a single U.K. university context. This offered ease of access to participants with experience of leading or receiving change in an organisational context within the private, public and third sectors. I therefore drew on a wide range of professional experiences. During the interviews participants recalled their experiences from wherever they chose (excluding experiences at the business school and in the NHS, for reasons specified by the university's ethics committee.) They were recruited via an email sent to academic staff and thereby provided a self-selecting sample. I established the size of my sample inductively by collecting material to the point of "data saturation" (Saunders, 2013, p. 44). This occurred after 15 interviews, slightly more than the twelve interviews advised as sufficient for most research (Guest, Bunce & Johnson, 2006).

I was not prescriptive about the nature of the change interviewees discussed since this research is not focused upon any specific type of change. I am not seeking to measure experiences of comparable *levels* of change (Golembiewski, Billingsley & Yeager, 1976) but to explore and understand participants' subjective experiences of change and resistance to it. Therefore if a change affected the participant to the extent that they recalled and wished to discuss it, then that was

the determining factor regardless of the level or the type of change discussed. In the event, all the participants discussed top-down, planned change.

I focus upon concept development and an important part of Gioia et al.'s (2013) methodology regards linking the concepts that emerge to theory. Concepts precede constructs in the understanding of organisations; they capture the qualities that describe phenomenon of theoretical interest (Gioia et al., 2013). I develop concepts by exploring the participants' experiences of resistance to change, the assumptions within the literature underpinning it, and the multidimensional nature of resistance.

1.5: Multidimensionality and Problematization

Having stated that this is multidimensional, problematizing research, it is important to be clear about what I mean by these terms in the context of this thesis.

When referring to the *multidimensionality* of resistance to change, I am indicating its various components; its aspects, perspectives or elements. When discussing the *dimensions* of resistance, I am considering these various facets. Within the literature Golembiewski et al. (1976) discuss *levels* of change. Levels can be interpreted hierarchically (Rousseau, 1985), suggesting that some hold more importance than others. This research is *not* hierarchical; no one dimension is more important than any other. Instead, the various dimensions are aspects of, and combine to create, the multidimensional phenomenon that is resistance to change (Figure 1).

The literature contains references to the multidimensional nature of resistance (Thomas & Hardy, 2011) however any discussion of dimensions is limited to two or three (Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000; Szabla, 2007) or is only implicit (Smollan, 2014). I explore multiple dimensions of resistance, each of which is itself multidimensional. I describe dimensions with reference to the literature but as the literature is limited and fragmented, I also indicate where the reference to dimensions is only implicit.

Problematizing refers to challenging assumptions or theories within the literature. Rather than problematizing by starting with the literature (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011), I follow the approach specified by Alvesson and Karreman (2007) whereby *the challenge to the assumptions arises from my empirical material*. Figure 2 captures the literature I problematize, the challenge I make to the literature and its nature (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011), meeting Objective 4 and answering Question 7 regarding my findings that challenge assumptions in the literature.

Problematizing: Challenging Assumptions within the Literature



Assumption	Empirical Challenge
<p>1. The early literature conceptualises resistance negatively, as something to be overcome. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: Beckhard & Pritchard 1992; Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Huy and Mintzberg, 2003; Mathews & Linski, 2016; Thomas and Hardy, 2011; Waddell & Sohall, 1998. Challenge: The early literature is more balanced in its conceptualisation of resistance to change than is portrayed in literature reviews, highlighting how management behaviours can cause resistance and arguing that it can have value. Sections: 2.3 - 2.5.</p>	
<p>2. The good v bad, either or, dualism of resistance to change. Nature of Assumption: Field Literature: Ash, 2009; Beckhard & Pritchard, 1992; Binci, Cerruti, & Donnarumma, 2012; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio, 2008; Ford & Ford, 2009; Huy & Mintzberg, 2003; Nevis, 1987; Oreg, 2006; Palmer, 2004;</p>	<p>2. Resistance to change can be both constructive and destructive. Sections: 4.2 - 4.2.6; 4.3 – 4.3.5.</p>

<p>Pieterse et al., 2012; Wachira & Anyieni, 2017. Sections: 2.3 – 2.7.</p>	
<p>3. In top-down change, resistance comes from below. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: Bradutanu, 2015; Joussem and Scholl, 2016; Strebels, 1996; Sections: 2.7 – 2.7.1.2</p>	<p>3. Resistance can come from all levels: lower levels may support a change that middle-management resist. Top management can resist the changes they instigated. Sections: 7 – 7.4</p>
<p>4. Senior Management does not resist change they initiated. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: Bradutanu, (2015). No literature could be found to counter this assumption. Literature suggests senior management rarely resist change: (Diefenbach, 2007) Sections: 2.7.1 - 2.7.1.2</p>	<p>4. Senior Management does resist changes they initiated. Sections: 7.3</p>
<p>5. Motivation of resistance as a dualism; self-interest or altruism. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: Agocs, 1997; Burke, 2011; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Moran and Brightman, 2000; Paton & McCalman, 2008; Piderit, 2000; Smith, 2012; Waddell & Sohal, 1998; Sections: 2.8 – 2.8.2</p>	<p>5. It is not an either or choice; resisters can hold both positions simultaneously. Self-interest may be self-preservation. Sections: 4.3.1; 5 – 5.2.10</p>
<p>6. Those leading change support the change they lead. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: A neglected area of academic literature. (Guidance on websites and blogs associated with professional practice is generally to put aside reservations and lead the change: Baker, 2014; Gupta-Sunderji, 2016; Stark, 2016. Sections: 2.7.1.2</p>	<p>6. Those in middle and senior management positions leading change, do not always believe in the change they are leading. They may be simultaneously a change agent and resistor. Sections: 7.2 – 7.4</p>
<p>7. Sabotage is a negative form of resistance to change, damaging to the organisation. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morgan, 2001; Ford & Ford, 2009; Ford & Ford, 2010; Nevis, 1987 Sections: 2.9</p>	<p>7. Sabotage can be a constructive form of resistance beneficial to the organisation. Sections: 4.3.4 – 4.3.5</p>
<p>8. The Impact of Managing change and the resistance to it upon the change agent is generally negative. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: Carnall, 2007; Ford, Ford & D'Amalio, 2008 Mathews & Linski, 2016. Sections: 2.11.2</p>	<p>8. The impact is more balanced; it may be positive: fun, interesting, enjoyable, an opportunity to shine and enhance skills. Sections: 4.4.2.2; 12.6.1</p>

<p>9. In top-down change, resistance from below or poor change management practices leads to its failure. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: Bradutanu, 2015; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Griffith, 2001; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Thomas et al., 2011. Sections: 2.7-2.7.1.2; 2.12.</p>	<p>9. Whilst resistance from below can be problematic, resistance by the most senior management is more likely to cause the change to fail. Sections: 6.3.3.3; 7.3-7.6; 8.3-8.5; 12.7.1.</p>
<p>10. The labelling of resistance is an act of power directed by those in senior positions at subordinates. Nature of Assumption: In-house Literature: Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Ford et al., 2008; Nevis, 1987. Section: 2.13.3</p>	<p>10. The power to label can also be appropriated by a subordinate to label themselves. Section: 9.2</p>

Figure 2

Through the problematization of this literature I meet Objective 4, answering Question 6.

1.6 Contributions to Knowledge and Professional Practice

Corley and Gioia (2011, p. 12) argue that "scholars are still trying to articulate what makes a theoretical contribution." Therefore to be explicit about the contributions of this research, I underpin the nature of the contributions through reference to the work of Corley and Gioia (2011; Figure 3) and Nicholson et al. (2018; Figure 4).

Corley and Gioia's (2011) Dimensions for Theoretical Contribution

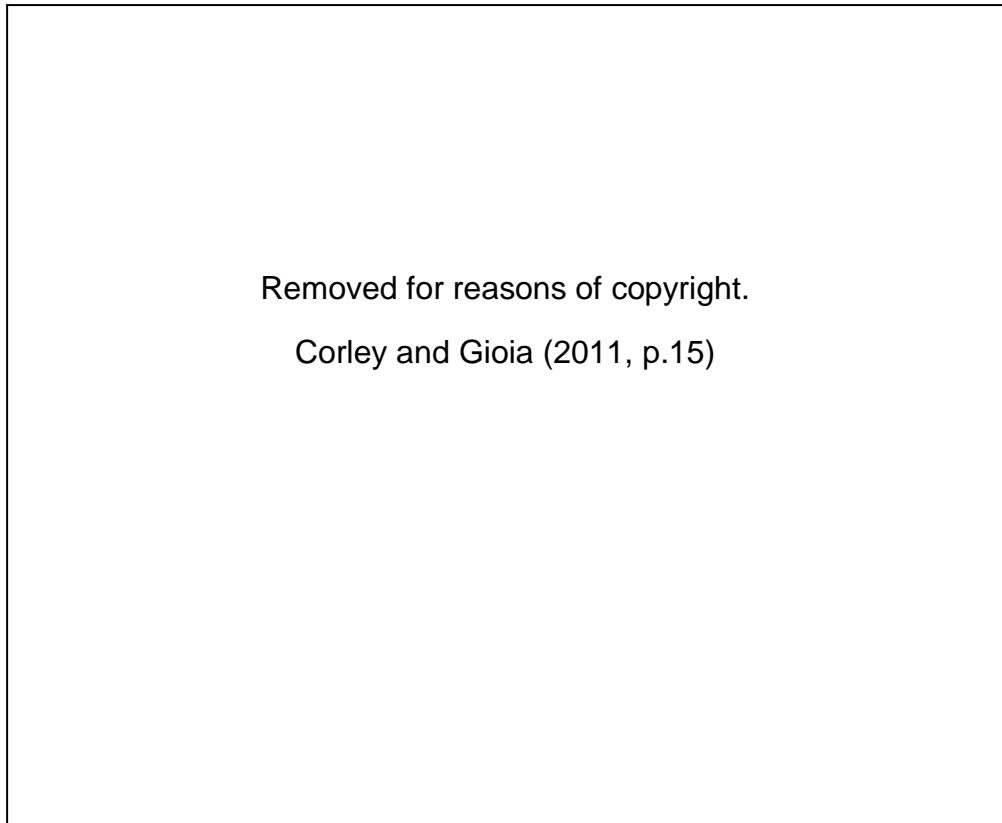


Figure 3:

Within Figure 3 I specify where each of my contributions to knowledge and practice sit according to Corley and Gioia's (2011) dimensions. The number of these contributions relates to those detailed in Figure 5 and are discussed in Chapter Twelve. I also relate each of my contributions to knowledge to Nicholson et al.'s (2018) model (Figure 4) to provide a specific description of their nature.

Nicholson, et al.'s (2018) Final Contribution to Knowledge Conceptual Model

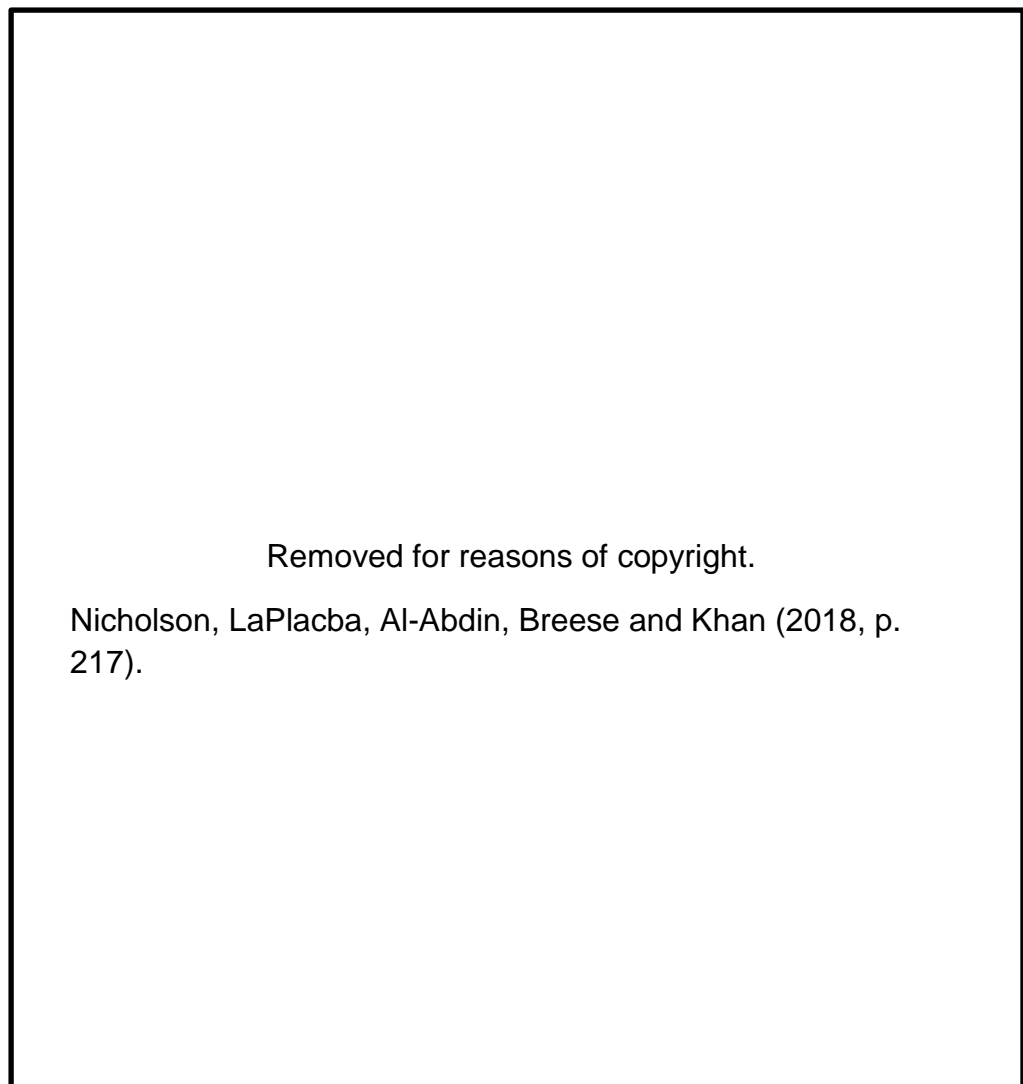


Figure 4:

The literature is fragmented in its consideration of the multidimensional nature of resistance. It includes underlying assumptions which propose that resistance is dichotomized, and is either good or bad for the organisation. The studies that look beyond the simplistic dichotomies to consider resistance as a multidimensional phenomenon (Cutcher, 2009; Huy, 2001; Oreg, 2003; Piderit, 2000; Wolfram Cox, 2001) still focus upon just a limited number of dimensions which, within the context of this research, would equate to just one or two of the dimensions that I interpret as constituting resistance to change. I break away from this fractured understanding, reject over-simplistic dichotomies and problematize the literature to challenge underlying assumptions (Figure 2) thereby meeting of Objective 4. The central contribution of this thesis is to unite

the fragmented understanding of resistance by capturing its complex, multidimensional nature in a single conceptualisation of the phenomenon (Figure 1; Objective 1). I also provide diagrams, or lenses, through which practitioners can view aspects of resistance, thereby supporting them in reframing their understanding of the phenomenon. I thereby make revelatory contributions to knowledge through both problematization (Objective 4) and the employment of multiple lenses (Nicholson et al., 2018; meeting Objective 1) which constitute revelatory, scientifically useful contributions to knowledge (Corley and Gioia, 2011). As practically useful tools for practitioners these visual conceptualisations also make a revelatory, practically useful contribution to practice (Corley and Gioia, 2011).

This research specifically explores how managers found resistance to be useful (Objective 2), an area Waddell and Sohal (1998) suggest would considerably benefit managers. My conceptual and theoretical frameworks (Figures 8 and 17) provide change agents with a perspective of resistance as a beneficial form of constructive discontent (Objective 2), which may change how they manage resistance by avoiding the traditional "classical adversarial approach" (Waddell and Sohal, 1998, p. 546). These contributions fill a gap identified by Waddell and Sohal (1998, p. 546) who note that "resistance management may improve significantly if the adversarial approach is replaced with one that retains the possibility of benefiting through the utilisation of resistance". This research will thus contribute to practice through its implications for change leadership, as those leading change come to view resistance more positively and perhaps actively solicit it (Nevis 1987) rather than seeking to avoid or overcome it (Objective 2).

My research is underpinned by several objectives (section 1.3) and I make multiple incremental and revelatory contributions to knowledge and practice (Corley & Gioia, 2011; Nicholson et al., 2018) related to these objectives. Figure 5 captures all the contributions of this research, identifying which research objective they meet whilst also highlighting the intended audience and specifying the nature of the contribution with reference to the work of Corley & Gioia (2011, Figure 3) and Nicholson et al. (2018, Figure 4). The numbering identifying the contributions within Figure 5 are consistent with those employed in Figure 3.

The Nature of the Contributions Made by this Research to Knowledge and Practice

CONTRIBUTIONS & OBJECTIVES & THE AUDIENCE	Corley & Gioia, (2011)		Nicholson, et al., (2018)	
	INCREMENTAL	REVELATORY	NATURE OF CONTRIBUTION	REVELATORY
1. History of the Literature Objective 4 Audience: Academic	Scientific		Incremental, confusion spotting	
2. The Constructive/ Destructive Conceptual Frameworks Objective 2 Audience: Academic		Utility: revelatory contribution to practice. Fills the gap identified by Waddell & Sohal (2011)		
3. Challenge to the constructive / destructive dualism of resistance. Objective 2 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Problematization
4. Associating resistance with constructive discontent Objective 2 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Using Multiple Lenses
5. Destructive Discontent Objective 2 Audience: Academic	Scientific		Differentiated Context	
6. Destructive Content 7. Destructive Content frameworks 8. Destructive Content and the 'fait accompli' Objective 2 Audience: Academic & Practitioners of Change Management	Scientific Scientific	Utility: revelatory contribution to practice	Incremental Neglect Spotting	Using Multiple Lenses
9. The Neutral Dimensions Objective 2 Audience: Academic	Scientific		Differentiated Context	
10. Interpreting Resistance Objective 1 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Using Multiple Lenses
11. Self-Interest and		Scientific		Problematization

Altruism Dualism Objective 3 Audience: Academic				
12. The Fear and Security Dualism Objective 3 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Using Multiple Lenses
13. Politics and Resistance Objective 3 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Using Multiple Lenses
14. How Change is Led: Imposition Objective 3 Audience: Academic	Scientific		Differentiated Context	
15. How Resistance Manifests Objective3 Audience: Academic	Scientific		Differentiated Context	
16. Sabotage as a Positive Act of Resistance Objectives 3 and 4 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Problematization
17. The Positive Impact Upon Change Agents Objectives 1 and 4 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Problematization
18. The Negative Impact Upon Change agents and Recipients Objective 4 Audience: Academic	Scientific		Differentiated Context	
19. The Multidimensionality of the Impact of Change and Resistance Objective 1 and 4 Audience: Academic & Practionners of Change Management		Scientific Utility: revelatory contribution to practice		Using Multiple Lenses
20. Emotional Labour Objectives 1 and 4 Audience: Academic & Practionners of Change Management	Utility: Scientific & Practical		Differentiated Context	
21. Top Management Resistance to Change		Scientific		Problematization

They Initiated Objective 3 Audience: Academic				
22. Resistance by Change Agents Objective 3 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Problematization
23. Support and Resistance to Change: Forcefield Analysis Conceptual Framework Objective 3 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Problematization
24. The Overcoming Versus Soliciting Resistance Dualism Objective 2 Audience: Practionners of Change Management	Utility: Practical		Incremental Confusion Spotting	
25. Lip-Service: Making A Ghost of Engagement Objective 3 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Using Multiple Lenses
26. EQ and Soliciting Resistance Objective 2 Audience: Academic	Utility: Practical			
27. Launching Change by Firing People Objectives 3 and 4 Audience: Academic	Scientific		Incremental Neglect-Spotting	
28. The Labels Applied to Resistors Objective 3 Audience: Academic & Practionners of Change Management	Utility: Scientific & Practical		Incremental Neglect-Spotting	
29. The Power to Label Resistance and Social Constructionism Objectives 1 and 3 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Using Multiple Lenses
30. Organisational Metaphors Related to Change	Scientific		Differentiated Context	

Objective: 1				
Audience: Academic				
31. Metaphors of Resistance Objectives 1 and 2 Audience: Academic		Scientific		Using Multiple Lenses
32. The Conceptual Framework of the Multidimensionality and Interconnectedness of the Temporal Dimensions Objective 1 Audience: Academic & Practitioners of Change Management		Scientific Utility: revelatory contribution to practice		Using Multiple Lenses
33. The Multidimensionality of the Spatial Dimension: Conceptual Framework Objective 1 Audience: Academic & Practitioners of Change Management	Utility: Practical	Scientific		Using Multiple Lenses

Figure 5

Within Figure 5 I also specifically detail several areas in which I contribute to the literature through “neglect-spotting” (Nicholson et al, 2018, p. 7) by identifying and contributing to areas of literature that are minimally discussed or entirely lacking. Such contributions are made in the areas of: resistance by senior management; resistance by top management to change initiated by themselves; change agents leading change they are not committed to, and sabotage as a positive form of resistance. I also contribute to knowledge through diagrams, associated with the multidimensional conceptual framework, that reveal how lip-service makes a ghost of engagement, and how power is employed in the labelling of resistance. My contributions related to both the temporal and spatial dimensions are revelatory as I unite fragmented literatures to present for the first time in a single conceptualisation how temporal and spatial resistance operates.

Figure 5 thus captures all the contributions of this research, the nature of the contribution, the audience it is intended for and how they meet all the objectives.

1.7: Extant Contributions to Knowledge and Practice

I have already contributed to knowledge and practice through this research. It has contributed to my own professional practice as I now engage positively with resistance and seek out opposing views. It has contributed to knowledge as I have presented my research at the following conferences: Sheffield Business School Organisational Development Conference 2014; Strategic Management Society Special Conference (Madrid, 2017); Sheffield Business School Doctoral Conference 2018 and the Sheffield Hallam University 'Creating Knowledge 2018' Conference. It has contributed to both knowledge and professional practice as I have shared my research with a colleague who has employed it to adapt their teaching of resistance to change, as have I. This therefore contributes to the knowledge of students and potentially to their future practice.

I have also contributed to the practice of the Nemesis project, a Horizon 2020 project involving 12 partners from eight countries which, through just one of the partners, impacts over 40,000 head-teachers across Europe. Written confirmation of the impact of my research is contained in Appendices 1, 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3, which also contain a formal published acknowledgement of the contribution made.

Through this research I thus contribute to academic knowledge which serves an academic audience, and to professional practice supporting practitioners engaged in leading change.

1.8: Introduction Chapter Conclusion

Within this chapter I have outlined the purpose, aims and objectives of this research, explaining my positionality and the methodology I followed. I have outlined the contributions I make to knowledge and explained the potential and existing contributions made to practice. The central contributions to knowledge of this thesis are to unite a fractured literature regarding the multidimensionality of resistance to change into a single conceptualisation (The Octagon of Resistance, Figure 1), which extends beyond the dimensions and sub-dimensions identified in the literature, and to problematize (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2007) the literature by identifying and challenging assumptions within it.

This thesis now progresses through a review of the literature that covers the areas pertinent to this research. An account and justification of the methodology employed is then provided, after which I discuss the findings of the research and how they meet the research objectives, followed by a chapter discussing my conclusions and contributions to knowledge and practice. Within this chapter I will also clarify how I meet the research objectives, the limitations of this research and my recommendations for future research.

In discussing the findings and contributions of this research I focus primarily upon those areas that make revelatory contributions (Corley & Gioia, 2011; Nicholson et al., 2018) or add incrementally to existing studies in a significant manner. I discuss each of the eight dimensions that emerge but do not provide extensive detail of the sub-dimensions where my findings primarily support existing knowledge.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Literature Review
Chapter Three	Methodology
Chapter Four	Findings & Discussion: The Value Dimension
Chapter Five	Findings & Discussion: The Character Dimension
Chapter Six	Findings & Discussion: The Impact Dimension
Chapter Seven	Findings & Discussion: The Actors Dimension
Chapter Eight	Findings & Discussion: The Engagement Dimension
Chapter Nine	Findings & Discussion: The Language Dimension
Chapter Ten	Findings & Discussion: The Temporal Dimension
Chapter Eleven	Findings & Discussion: The Spatial Dimension
Chapter Twelve	Conclusion and Contributions

2.1: Introduction

Within this chapter I review the literature underpinning the areas covered by this research and provide a methodology explaining how I have employed the literature. I explore the history of the change literature; its positivist, managerialist beginnings and the challenges made to this approach and its philosophical underpinning. I then explore the various dimensions and dualities of resistance that emerge in the literature. The first dimension I consider is that conceptualising resistance as a positive or negative phenomenon, as it is this dualism that prompted my research. Having explored the negative conceptualisation of resistance, I progress by reviewing the arguments highlighting the value that resistance delivers to the organisation and the possible link to the "constructive discontent" concept of the emotional intelligence (Abraham, 1999; Dann, 2008) and leadership literatures (Suchy, 2004; Dmytriiev, et al., 2016). This leads to an examination of the dimension of destructive content (Dann, 2008) or organisational silence (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Hughes, 2007) and the problems associated with a lack of resistance. Consideration is then given to the dualism of the change recipient and the change agent, as I explore who resists change, how resistance is labelled as such and the power associated with it. I then examine how resistance manifests and the overcoming versus soliciting resistance (Nevis, 1987) dualism, exploring

the prescriptions for overcoming resistance and the methods of soliciting it. The chapter concludes through a consideration of the metaphors of change and resistance, followed by a discussion of the temporal and spatial dimensions of resistance and how the multidimensionality of resistance is considered within the literature.

Through this literature review I answer Question 1 of Objective 1.

2.2: The Literature Review Methodology

My approach to problematizing the literature is *emergent*. I did *not* enter the field with a list of preconceived assumptions within the literature that I sought to challenge. My research's problematizing nature evolved through the process of data analysis, as material emerged from which I identified and challenged assumptions within the literature. The empirical material therefore came first and the problematization of the literature followed. I therefore follow Alvesson and Kärreman's (2007, p. 1266) approach to problematization whereby empirical material is key to inspiring the problematization of the literature as it "forms a strong impetus to rethink conventional wisdom." Such research fits within that of a paradoxical nature (Poole & Van der Venn, 1989) whereby researchers describe opposing perspectives or what appear to be illogical findings (Lewis, 2000). In Figure 2 I capture the assumptions I identify, the literature containing it and my challenge to it, which concludes the meeting of Objective 4, providing the answer to Question 7.

The literature played an important role in shaping this research as it was through studying change management for my Master's degree that I became aware of the conventional and critical conceptualisations of resistance to change. I later discovered the concept of constructive discontent in Dann's (2008) book "Emotional Intelligence" and subsequently found it also discussed within leadership literature. This rather neglected concept fired my imagination to explore people's experiences of resistance, if they found it to be beneficial or harmful for the organisation, and if it could potentially provide a form of constructive discontent. The literature thus lit the touch-paper firing my research.

The literature has been my constant companion throughout this research. Prior to going into the field I had some understanding of theory having studied change management as part of my Master's degree, and written two literature reviews as part of my doctoral training. Having started my fieldwork I would revert to the literature as themes emerged from participants' stories, and during the period that I was analysing my material and writing up the thesis. Having discovered the concept of constructive discontent in Dann's (2008) book, I have also undertaken ongoing literature searches to review it and subsequently also discovered it as a concept in leadership literature, but find little academic literature about this phenomenon. My research therefore contributes to this body of academic literature. I depict how the bodies of literature meet around the concept of constructive discontent in Figure 6.

The Literature and Constructive Discontent

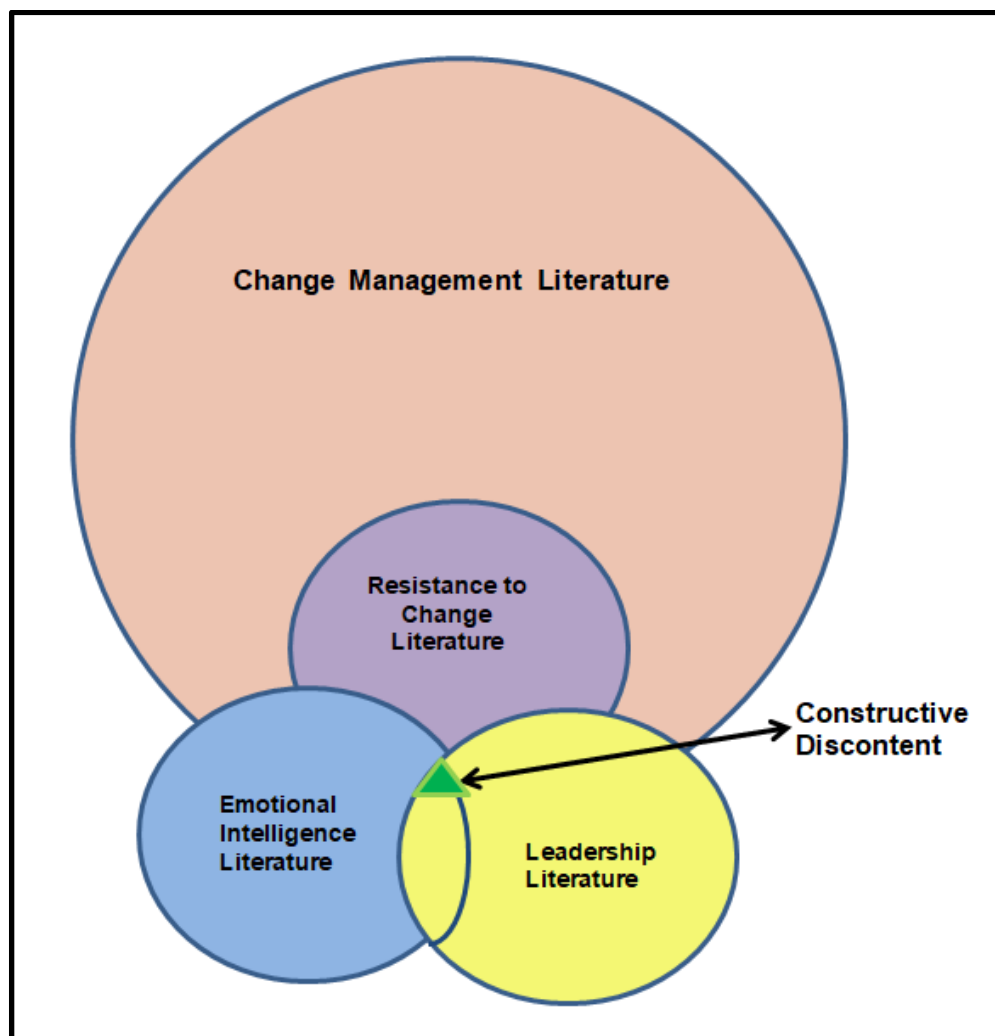


Figure 6

I thus conceptualise constructive discontent as a phenomenon belonging to three different bodies of literature.

Following Gioia et al.'s guidance (2013) I did not preconceive themes that might emerge from the literature and attempt to fit the data to support them. Instead, I permitted the empirical material to speak for itself by identifying the themes that emerged naturally from it and thereafter reviewing the literature about what emerged. The literature has thus been a companion throughout this research.

When reviewing the literature, I have sought to read the *original* material. However, when I have been unable to locate some literature, or it is no longer available (Appendix 2), I employ secondary referencing to indicate the source of the material I read.

2.3 The History of the Change Literature

Definitions and interpretations of the history of resistance to change (Mathews & Linski, 2016; Thomas and Hardy, 2011; Waddell & Sohall, 1998) traditionally conceptualise resistance as a bad thing which must be overcome: "A long established assumption in the literature on organizational change is that resistance constitutes a problem" (Thomas & Hardy, 2011, p. 323). The history of change management research and literature is strongly rooted in managerialism, underpinned by the assumption that there are strong links between cause and effect. Numerous prescriptions regarding how to successfully overcome resistance to change (Blount & Carroll, 2017; Bradutanu, 2015; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Wagner and Hollenbeck, 2015) or how to successfully implement it (CIPD's 7 Cs of Change, 2012a; Beer, Eisenstat & Spector's, 1990 "Six Steps to Effective Change"; Walker & Soule, 2017) therefore emerged.

This approach to research dominated the literature until challenges to its hegemony emerged from about the 1980s (Fisher, 2010; Marsden, 1993; Nodoushani, 2000) when it was contested in terms of its functionalist, positivist research paradigm focusing upon cause and effect (Burnes, 2011; Burrell & Morgan 1979; Hughes, 2010; Morgan & Smircich, 1980; Senior & Swailes, 2010; Strebel, 1997) and in terms of the negative connotations associated with it (Ford,

Ford, & D'Amelio, 2008; Ford & Ford, 2009; Nevis, 1987). Marsden (1993, p. 95) challenges the cause and effect model as "appearance may mislead and causally related things may not be constantly conjoined" and Strebel (1997) is equally condemnatory of functionalist prescriptive recipes which are proffered irrespective of the context, as different situations require different solutions. Carnall (2007) identifies problems with the linear models of change that fail due to the complex nature of reality and the challenge of unintended consequences, whilst Senior and Swailes (2010, p. 51) cite complexity theory to propose that "it is not possible to use theory testing, hypothesis testing research to identify things that lead to success and then generalize from them. Hence, recipes for strategic change are all doomed to illusion and failure." As a significant proportion of change programmes fail (Burnes, 2011; CIPD, 2012a) such recipes for success should be treated with caution, as the one best way approach is a fantasy (Burnes, 2011; Senior & Swailes, 2010). Indeed, Kotter himself later accepts that successfully managing change is more complex than his 8 Step process suggests and critiques his own prescription (Kotter, 2012).

Regarding the resistance to change literature specifically, some of the earliest work was undertaken by Kurt Lewin in the 1930s and 1940s (Burnes, 2015) who introduced the term resistance to change as a systems concept, conceptualising it as a force that affected both managers and their subordinates equally (Dent & Goldberg, 1999). Following Lewin's death in 1947, the focus shifted away from organisational systems to the individual as the source of resistance (Burnes, 2015). As the terminology came to be used without its context, resistance became portrayed as a psychological phenomenon; a managers versus employees issue (Dent & Goldberg, 1999). By 1950 Zander was defining resistance as: "behavior which is intended to protect an individual from the effects of real or imagined change" (cited in Dent and Goldberg, 1999, p. 34). This focus upon the individual perspective of resistance grew throughout the 1950s and 1960s and continued to do so until the 2000's, with a strong view developing that people are inherently programmed to support the status quo and resist change (Burnes, 2015). By 1962 resistance to change had taken on the meaning by which it is generally understood now, as a psychological concept which is located within the individual, and the role of the manager is to overcome it (Dent and Goldberg, 1999). Within this conventional paradigm, resistance to

change is thus conceptualised negatively; change needs to be managed and controlled and this is framed in the interests of management (Pieterse et al., 2012).

An exploration of the early literature, however, suggests that these earliest works were not strongly anti-resistance despite their title and how they are positioned by subsequent literature. The earliest sources employing 'resistance to change' or something similar as an expression (Dent and Goldberg, 1999, p. 34) are:

- *"Overcoming Resistance to Change" by Lester Coch and John R. P. French Jr. (1948)*
- *"Resistance to change - Its Analysis and Prevention" by Alvin F. Zander (1950)*
- *"How to Deal with Resistance to Change" by Paul R. Lawrence (1954)*
- *"Overcoming Resistance to Change" by Mitchell Dreese (1955 speech)*
- *Overcoming Resistance to Change by Oliver D. Flower (1962 film)*

Since 1962, when Dent and Goldberg (1999) finished this list, authors continue to publish and include "overcoming resistance" in the title of their book or article (see Blount & Carroll, 2017; Hon, Bloom & Crant (2011); McCafferty, 2011; Recardo, 1995; Murray, 2007; Palmer, 2004; Sklar, 2018; Tobin, 1999; Umble & Umble, 2014; Warner, 2016). The suggestion that resistance needs to be "overcome" automatically positions it negatively, and the significant number of books and academic articles focused on overcoming resistance lends support to Huczynski and Buchanan's (1991, p. 536-537) argument that: "The problem is usually seen as concerning ways of overcoming resistance to make sure that change is accepted and introduced rapidly and effectively." Waddell and Sohal's (1998, p. 543) review of the resistance to change literature argues that resistance was classically understood to be a root cause of conflict, was "undesirable and detrimental to organisational health" and that in the literature of the 1940s, pluralism and divergent attitudes were considered to undermine organisational effectiveness and performance. There thus developed within the literature a view that the early literature positioned resistance negatively, and that a powerful conventional paradigm emerged whereby: "Change, by definition, is good. Resistance is bad." (Huy & Mintzberg, 2003, p. 79). Resisters are depicted

as the "bad guys" who should be persuaded to "buy into" the proposed change and their resistance overcome (Beckhard & Pritchard, 1992, p. 74).

There is thus a strong body of literature from around 1948 to the present day that, through the title of the work, presents resistance as a negative obstacle to be overcome. That such a number of recent works also present resistance in this manner suggests that the negative conceptualisation of resistance remains alive and was not destroyed by the emergence of the "critical literature" (Pieterse et al., 2012, p. 800) that challenges it. I argue, however, that the earliest literature is not as anti-resistance as depicted. The negative inference of the titles of the work regarding overcoming resistance is not always borne out in their content and therefore does not fit within the negative conventional conceptualisation of resistance.

The early work by Coch and French (1948) grew from the work conducted by Lewin between 1939 and 1947 (Burnes, 2015) and also focused on the organisational context of resistance. Despite the title of their work referring to overcoming resistance to change, they encourage managers to involve staff by promoting participation in change efforts, calling for participative decision-making (Burnes, 2015). Whilst seeking to support managers by reducing resistance, they were thus not taking an overtly managerialist perspective, identifying that resistance can be caused by management behaviour limiting participation. Resistance levels were linked to the experimental treatment (i.e. participation) rather than personality, and they propose avoiding the imposition of change and encourage participation (Burnes, 2015). Indeed both Lewin and Coch and French (1948) view resistance as stemming from the context in which change takes place, with Lewin proposing that whilst resistance might reside within the individual it is more likely to be located elsewhere in the system (Dent & Goldberg, 1999). Bradutanu (2015) also describes resistance at the organizational level, in terms of bureaucracy, culture, group inertia, resources and structure. However, the system's resistance must have been expressed through individuals or groups of people to have a voice.

Lewin's (1947) work proposed that through participation, planned change could be achieved (Hughes, 2016). Coch and French's subsequent work resulted in a

significant body of work on participative decision-making (Piderit, 2000) and the title of their work, "Overcoming Resistance to Change" (1948), is misleading as it does not represent the content of their article: "The word *resistance* appears in the article only at the beginning and once in the conclusion. [...] Coch and French's (1948) research really is about the importance of employee participation" (Dent & Goldberg, 1999, p. 32).

Digging beneath the titles of this early literature reveals that it did not "demonise" (Thomas & Hardy, 2011, p. 232) resistance to the extent it is portrayed. The work of Lewin in the 1930's and 1940s and Coch and French (1948) propose that resistance to change stems from the organisational context not the individual (Burnes, 2015), with Coch and French (1948) urging managers to undertake participative decision making for change. In the 1950s, Zander (1950) encourages managers to focus on the cause of resistance not the symptoms (Dent & Goldberg, 1999) whilst Lawrence (1954) suggests communication issues lie as much with the change agent as the change recipient (Dent and Goldberg, 1999). By 1962, Flower proposes that bosses can trigger resistance by their behaviours and as a result "will lose the good ideas of the employees" (Dent & Goldberg, 1999, p. 36) an argument later strongly expressed by Ford, Ford and D'Amelio (2008) and Ford and Ford (2009b).

The early literature is thus not as anti-resistance as the histories of the literature might have us believe (Waddell and Sohall, 1998; Thomas and Hardy, 2011). Not all the articles that include "overcoming resistance" in their title are actually as opposed to resistance as their title suggests. Despite this, and despite the emergence of the critical literature (Ford, Ford & D'Amelio, 2008; Ford and Ford, 2009b; Nevis, 1987; Pieterse et al., 2012), the conventional view of resistance to change persists. Authors continue to publish from within the traditional, negative paradigm (Ash 2009; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Oreg, 2006; Palmer, 2004). Indeed, Wachira and Anyieni (2017, p. 526) recently describe resistance as a "negative entropy."

However, some of the conventional literature is not as robustly pejorative and is less managerialist than it might first appear. Recardo (1995) writes about overcoming resistance and yet includes poor management as a cause. More

recently, Blount and Carroll (2017) propose that change agents listen to resistance and be prepared to learn from it, using it to inform their ideas and actions and be prepared to change their change if necessary. Ford, Ford and D'Amelio (2008) and Ford and Ford (2009b) make similar recommendations but come from the premise that resistance is a valuable form of feedback. Blount and Carroll (2017) sit within the traditional literature that negatively positions resistance, and the work of Ford, Ford and D'Amelio (2008) and Ford and Ford (2009b) sit within the critical literature that values it. Yet they both offer similar guidance, thereby blurring the differences between them. The distinction is thus defined by *author intent*: one intending to conceptualise resistance negatively as something to be ultimately overcome whilst recognising the benefits it brings, and the other conceptualising it positively because of the value it delivers. Ultimately both ends of the dualism make some similar recommendations.

The history of the resistance to change literature is thus not neatly linear. There was not a negative, traditional conceptualisation of resistance followed by a body of critical literature reconceptualising it as a potentially positive force. The early literature is less managerialist and negative towards resistance as first appearances propose and as the literature reviews of the field suggest. Indeed, this early literature is generally balanced in its consideration of resistance. Meanwhile, the negative conventional literature and the more positive, critical literatures that subsequently emerged have walked beside each other through time rather than one following the other and literature from both paradigms continues to be published today. They may even deliver similar guidance, the primary distinction between them being the intent of the author which determines the paradigm within which they position their work.

2.4: Attitudes to Resistance: The Negative

Regarding Objective 1, Question 1, there are multiple definitions of resistance to change within the literature, but no one agreed definition (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Ford & Ford, 2010; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016). Piderit (2000) highlights three dimensions through which resistance is defined in the literature: cognitively, emotionally and intentionally (behaviourally) and Oreg (2006) proposes similar dimensions. However, behaviour emerges as an important factor in many definitions “We can label as resistance virtually every type of behavior, ranging

from a roll of the eyes to overt sabotage” (Ford & Ford, 2010, p. 24). Definitions highlighting behaviours are not surprising when, as Burnes (2015) argues, the literature is primarily focused upon the individual as a source of resistance.

There is a pervading sense of negativity in the definitions of resistance to change: "resistance is most commonly linked with negative employee attitudes or with counter productive behaviours" (Waddell & Sohal, 1998, p. 543). Bradutanu (2015, p. 10) agrees, finding that "most of the reviewed literature recognizes only the negative approach of resistance to change". In Piderit's (2000) conceptualisation, negative connotations permeate all three dimensions of resistance with the cross-dimensional response of "ambiguity" offering a form of neutrality. Dimitriadis, Blanas, Aspridis and Vetsikas (2016) highlight resistance's multidimensionality but their definition focuses upon its negative outcomes: delaying the change process and generating costs and instabilities and resistance may indeed manifest as a negative force. Indeed, "resistance can be irrational and self-serving" (Ford & Ford, 2009, p. 100); people resist for many reasons (Burke, 2011) which are not always altruistic, a key reason being that they fear losing something of value (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979).

The literature is thus dominated by negative definitions of resistance. This negative conceptualisation of resistance indicates its irrational, self-serving motivations and outcomes damaging to the organisation.

2.5: Attitudes to Resistance: The Positive

The critical literature depicts resistance more positively: "Resistance is energy to be channelled for the benefit of higher objectives" (Ford & Ford, 2010, p. 35). Here resistance is considered a good thing, benefitting the change and the organisation, as it is often based on valid concerns and should be employed by the organization to improve itself and its decisions (Oreg, 2006). Dissent is considered as inherent and important to organisations (Reissner, Pagan & Smith, 2011).

The value of resistance was quickly identified. In the 1960s, the same decade that resistance became considered to reside within the individual (Burnes, 2015), its value was also highlighted as researchers found that it can be of benefit to

managers (Bradutanu, 2015). This critical perspective highlights its value: “recent literature contains much evidence that suggests resistance may indeed be useful and is not to be simply discounted” (Waddell and Sohal, 1998, p. 543). Resistance is thus reconceptualised as a form of valuable feedback preventing the introduction of potentially damaging change (Brooks, 2003; Ford & Ford, 1995; Ford & Ford, 2009; Ford & Ford, 2009b; Ford, Ford & D’Amelio, 2008; Huy & Mintzberg, 2003; Nevis, 1987; Senior & Swailes, 2010; Waddell & Sohal, 1998). Resistance is thereby depicted within the literature as either a negative or positive force, creating a dualism whereby it is either demonised or celebrated (Thomas & Hardy, 2011). This simple dualism of how resistance is presented in the literature as a good or bad force is captured theoretically in Figure 7, below.

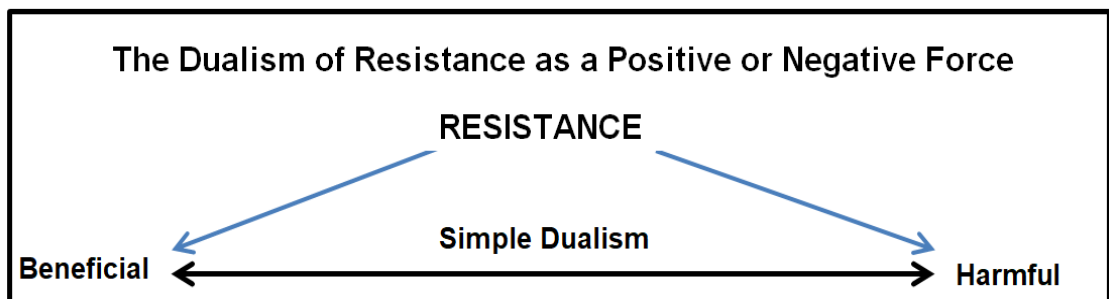


Figure 7

The literature thus provides a simplistic picture of resistance as either good or bad, demonised or celebrated (Thomas & Hardy, 2011).

Having considered the conceptualizations of resistance as positive or negative forces, I progress this chapter through a review of the concept of constructive discontent and an exploration of how resistance may provide a form of it.

2.6: Constructive Discontent

There is limited literature discussing constructive discontent. Within the emotional intelligence literature, Dann (2008, p. 170) describes it as an “emotional intelligence competence”, arguing that: “Strong leadership relies on strong constructive discontent. You must build in mechanisms to listen to opposing views”. This conceptualisation of constructive discontent as a form of beneficial challenge that leaders and organisations require, is similar to that proposed in the leadership literature by Dmytriyev et al. (2016), Lowitt (2013) and Suchy (2004).

Both Dmytriyev et al. (2016) and Suchy (2004) propose that constructive discontent or disagreement, whereby organisations become arenas for debate, can be beneficial to the organisation. The linking of constructive discontent to disagreement is also picked up within the Emotional Intelligence literature by Abraham (1999) and Cooper (1997) who proposes the power of accessing conflicting views. The concept of constructive challenge is also supported by De Cremer, De Schutter, Stouten and Zhang (2016, n.p.): "When employees speak up, companies benefit". Organisations may thus benefit from "courageous followership" whereby "*those in follower roles [...] speak candidly when needed to prevent or correct leadership failures*" (Chaleff, 2015, n.p.).

Within the emotional intelligence and leadership literatures there is thus a conceptualisation that constructive discontent is a form of challenge to leaders that delivers benefit to the organisation. However, Ashby and Pell (2001) associate it with challenging the status quo, whereby organisations continually seek ways to improve and are never totally satisfied. The literatures therefore propose that constructive discontent is beneficial to the organisation, either as a challenge to leaders or to the status quo.

2.6.1 Resistance as a Form of Constructive Discontent

Whilst resistance to change is frequently linked to maintaining the status quo (Bradutanu 2015; Dimitriadis, et al., 2016; Kahneman, Knetsch, & Thaler, 1991), it also provides a challenge to leaders through the discontent expressed towards their proposed changes. Resistance might therefore link to the conceptualisation of constructive discontent as a challenge to leadership. This association occurs when the aim is to benefit the organisation, it manifests as a constructive challenge resulting in a proposed change being well thought through prior to its introduction, thereby leading to a better change (Nevis, 1987; Senior & Swailes, 2010; Waddell and Sohal, 1998). Indeed resisting an ill-informed change may benefit the organisation (Brooks, 2003) as no one person has a monopoly of good ideas. As Chaleff (2015, n.p.) argues "*those with the authority to issue orders or to establish rules are not infallible*", managers may miss a potential problem that those on the frontline can identify (Senior & Swailes, 2010) and thereby avoid costly mistakes (Bradutanu, 2015). Frequently those people that speak out against a change are the ones who genuinely care about getting it right

and, being close to the inner workings of the organisation, can identify the problems in a plan (Ford & Ford, 2009). Resisters, concerned that the organisation might lose something valuable, are "defenders" seeking to protect an organisation's core traditions and values, possibly by identifying the unintended consequences of a potentially damaging change (Nevis, 1987, p. 142). Indeed it is important to *"take a stand and do the right thing when what we are told to do is wrong. If we do this well, even those issuing the wrong orders will benefit from our having made the right choice"* (Chaleff, 2015, n.p.). Such behaviour denotes intelligent disobedience (Chaleff, 2015; Kapur, 2004; McGannon, 2018).

Change is not always the best course to take and so resistance can be beneficial. Resistance may be the factor balancing the external and internal pressures for change with the need for stability, by highlighting elements of the change that are: *"inappropriate, ill-considered or wrong and through seeking to integrate conflicting views, [...] it can become a key source of innovation in the change process"* (Waddell & Sohal, 1998). Indeed, considering change to be inherently good is a fallacy as its value can only be ascertained once it has been implemented (Waddell and Sohal, 1998). Resistance should occur on occasions such as when the existing strategy is good (Huy & Mintzberg, 2003). Change should also be resisted when there is:

Change for change's sake, change for short term commercial advantage or indeed change which may adversely affect the 'common good', should be resisted, not only on moral grounds, but also on the basis that the long term financial consequences are likely to outweigh any short term gain (Paton & McCalman, 2008, p. 54).

Indeed, rational, principled, shared resistance may signal that the proposed change will be harmful to the common good (Paton & McCalman, 2008) and thereby provides "a practical warning signal" (Lawrence, 1954, p. 49). Indeed such resistance may be providing a form of "Intelligent Disobedience", whereby implementing an *"order or rule would probably lead to an undesirable outcome, perhaps even a dangerous one. It would be better to question the order rather than obey it"* (Chaleff, 2015, n.p.). Resistance is thus positively conceptualised within the literature as a valuable form of feedback. Michelman (2007) argues it can provide valuable insights into how a suggested change might be adapted to enhance its chances of success. Such "insights" are the "feedback" referred to by

Ford et al. (2008, p. 369) who argue that change agents can: “use resistance as feedback [...] by listening [...] for cues to adjust the pace, scope, or sequencing of change and/or its implementation.” If feedback is valuable then resistance helps as it keeps the topic alive so that others can contribute to the conversation (Ford et al., 2008, p. 368).

Resistance is a potentially valuable resource and change agents are cautioned against dismissing it (Ford & Ford, 2009; Michelman, 2007) as resistance is identified as delivering multiple benefits: “increasing the likelihood of successful implementation, helping build awareness and momentum for change, and eliminating unnecessary, impractical, or counterproductive elements in the design or conduct of the change process” (Ford et al., 2008 p. 363). Although the intent may be positive, aiming to produce enhanced understanding and more options and solutions (Binci, Cerruti, & Donnarumma, 2012), dealing with resisters may be challenging as resistance is not always constructively expressed and losing the contributions of such "difficult" people is cautioned against (Ford & Ford, 2010, p. 30)

Although resistance may be challenging, it is thus identified as delivering numerous benefits to the organisation. When providing such a positive force, resistance may be manifesting as the form of constructive discontent defined by Dann (2008), Dmytriiev et al. (2016) and Suchy (2004); a constructive challenge to change leaders. Therefore, based on the literature, resistance to change has the potential to deliver constructive discontent.

2.6.2: Destructive Content: The Resistance versus Compliance Dualism

The antithesis of constructive discontent is destructive content, which is conceptualised as a lack of challenge: “The use of the word 'content' here means happy, satisfied, comfortable and at ease. The use of the word 'destructive' is intended to convey how futile it can be for teams not to debate issues thoroughly” (Dann, 2008, p. 170).

“Destructive content” (Dann, 2008, p. 170) does not best serve the organisation and is conceptualised by Dmytriiev et al. (2016, p. 32) as a "climate of silence," whereby little or no disagreement is expressed by employees to management

who therefore lack constructive challenge. Avoiding such destructive content is a challenge for the CEO, as due to their position and power they are often isolated from information that contests their assumptions thereby revealing an emerging threat or opportunity (Gregersen, 2016). Destructive content is thus conceptualised as a lack of challenge that can be damaging to the organisation. Such organisational silence (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Hughes, 2007) is the darker side of compliance rather than the occasions when people are genuinely contented: "organizational silence is a potentially dangerous impediment to organizational change and development" (Morrison & Milliken, 2000, p.707).

A problem associated with lack of challenge is that of *groupthink* "the mode of thinking that persons engage in when concurrence seeking becomes so dominant in a cohesive in-group that it tends to override realistic appraisal of alternative courses of action" (Janis, 1971, p. 84). It leads to the development of group norms that support morale to the detriment of critical thinking; victims will apply direct pressure to any member challenging the group and individuals may even censure their own misgivings (Janis, 1971). This can lead to faulty or dangerous decisions being made (Nebeth, Brown & Rogers, 2001) and diminishes the group's effectiveness, depriving it of "greatly needed counsel" (Walsh, 1981, pp. 12-13); such 'counsel' could be the challenge to leadership provided by "constructive discontent" (Dann, 2008; Dmytriyev et al., 2016; Lowitt, 2013; Suchy, 2004). This conceptualisation of groupthink is most prevalent within the literature. Gunner (2017, n.p.), however, proposes an alternative perspective whereby it is linked to resistance to change to support the needs of the group, associated with a pressure to conform even when the need for change is compellingly argued. In this conceptualisation it is the resistance that is the negative force, rather than the positive challenge.

Janis' (1971) dominant conceptualisation of groupthink is similar to destructive content (Dann, 2008), organisational silence (Hughes, 2007) and the "climate of silence" (Dmytriyev et al., 2016, p. 32). They all refer to a lack of challenge that is problematic for the organisation as it can lead to poor decision-making (Janis, 1971; Walsh, 1989) or contribute to strategic drift (Johnson, Scholes & Whittington, 2010). Resistance can provide beneficial challenge to the organisation by supporting a change being well thought through (Bradutanu,

2015; Ford et al., 2008; Ford & Ford, 2009a; Ford & Ford, 2009b; Nevis, 1987). Indeed resistance can facilitate organizational change: "rather than a hindrance to change, facilitative resistance can play a much more important role in sustaining organizational change than unquestioning acceptance" (Thomas, Sargent & Hardy, 2011, p. 35).

If constructive resistance can facilitate change then compliance or lack of resistance, which superficially might appear to support change, can actually hinder it: "organizational silence is likely to compromise effective organizational change and development [...] by blocking negative feedback and, hence, an organization's ability to detect and correct errors" (Morrison & Milliken, 2000, p. 719). Indeed as Chaleff (2015, n.p.) argues "*Change will be achieved by teaching and rewarding the skills to differentiate between programs or orders that should be embraced and those that should be questioned, examined, and at times resisted.*" The underpinning assumption of the conventional literature, that *lack of resistance is good for change and resistance impedes it, is thereby turned on its head.*

There thus emerges within the literature the dualism of resistance versus compliance. On one side of the dualism, from a managerialist perspective, compliance is sought hence the body of literature advising on how to overcome resistance to change which is positioned as harmful. Alternatively, the dualism is upended as resistance is conceptualised as beneficial to the organisation, with challenge providing the antidote to the problems associated with negative compliance, organisational silence or "destructive content" (Dann, 2008; Ford et al., 2008; Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Thomas et al., 2011).

2.6.3: The Constructive Discontent Summary

Whilst the literature is limited it does discuss elements of constructive discontent and its antithesis, destructive content. Destructive Discontent when associated with resistance is the negative conceptualisation of it as portrayed in the conventional literature. Based on these interpretations I therefore understand Constructive Content to describe a situation whereby people are genuinely happy with a proposed change or situation.

Based on these arguments within the literature, I create a theoretical framework of Constructive Discontent (Figure 8) which captures its various dimensions, detailing its positive and negative elements and describing its motivations, manifestations and outcomes.

Theoretical Framework of Constructive Discontent

	Constructive	Destructive
Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Acceptance, enthusiasm and active support for the change. - Opposing views have been sought and constructive agreement reached (Nevis, 1987). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No need to change. - No challenge offered or sought. - The appearance of acquiescence or support which may be: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Groupthink (Janis 1971) - Premature agreement - the fear of disagreement as destructive leads people to rush too quickly into a superficial and unhelpful agreement (Darwin, 2004) - the 'silent meeting' where everyone appears to be in agreement, while privately they are not (Dann, 2008). - agreement at a rational level, and therefore no objections raised but disagreement at an emotional level (Piderit, 2000)
Discontent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Resistance as a valuable form of feedback (Ford and Ford, 2009). - Resistance as a means of avoiding groupthink (Janis, 1971). - Solicited resistance to ensure a plan is well thought through (Nevis, 1984). - Resistance to prevent harm to the organisation; resistance to an ill-informed change (Brooks, 2003).. - Constructive disagreement leading to beneficial outcomes (Dmytriyev et al., (2016) - Employees speaking out and the organisation benefitting (De Cremer et al., (2016) - Resistance to ensure a change is well thought through (Nevis, 1987; Senior and Swales, 2010; Waddell and Sohal, 1998) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The traditional view of resistance to change as a negative phenomenon to be overcome (Waddell & Sohal, 1998; Thomas & Hardy, 2011) 2. Resistance that is damaging to the organisation. (Wachira & Anyieni, 2017) 3. Resistance motivated by self-interest (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1988) and to support the status quo when change is needed. 4. Sabotage (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morgan, 2001; Ford & Ford, 2009; Ford & Ford, 2010; Nevis, 1987)

With acknowledgements to my supervisor, Darwin, J. for assistance in developing this framework.

Figure 8

This literature review and theoretical framework advances Objective 2.

2.7: The Change Agent and Change Recipient Dualism

There is a lack of consensus regarding the terminology of change agency (Hughes, 2010) and so to clarify, for the purpose of this thesis, the term change agent is employed to include those who initiate change and/or have the responsibility for leading the change.

I explore the dualism of the change agent and the change recipient by reviewing the literature regarding who resists change, why they resist, how resistance manifests and the labelling of resistance. This section concludes with an exploration of the impact resistance has upon those involved.

2.7.1: Who Resists Change?

Although it is argued that change can be resisted by people at all levels of the organisational hierarchy (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; By, Hughes & Ford, 2016), there is an underlying assumption within the literature that it is the change recipient, the more junior members of staff, that resist change (Bradutanu, 2015). By, et al. (2016) identify an assumption that management do not resist change, whilst Strebels (1996, p. 86) argues that top management view change as a chance to strengthen the organisation and advance themselves, but that it is considered a disruptive intrusion by many employees including middle managers. Jousen and Scholl (2016, p. 14) also link resistance to people's position on the organisational hierarchy: "the lower the hierarchy level, the less willingness to change." They found top management more highly committed to change than lower and middle management and explain this as being linked to change generally being initiated "top down" (but within their study had not discovered why those at the lower levels were resisting.) They thus argue that willingness to change decreases the lower the position within the organisational hierarchy. Indeed the prescriptive methods of leading change (Beer et al., 1990; CIPD, 2012a; Kotter, 1995) are based on this premise that the change is led by the top and received by those below, with resistance comes from those recipients. Indeed, change agents are frequently depicted as policing the "organisational terrorists" or deviants that resist it (Hughes, 2010, p. 245).

The role of middle management in the change agent/resistor dualism is not fixed as they could take either position (Giangreco & Peccei 2005; Thomas & Hardy,

2011). Their resistance may not be overt as it generally takes the form of just not being pro-change (Giangreco & Peccei, 2005). Middle management may thus be a change agent or resist change either directly or passively.

Thomas & Hardy (2011) posit that if resistance is core to effective change, then the change agent's role is to harness it. This upturns the traditional assumption that change agents should be overcoming resistance, the "false dichotomy of leaders/managers overcoming the resistance to change of followers" (Hughes, 2016, p. 367). Indeed successful change implementation is not only the change agent's role as "both senior and subordinate actors are implicated" (Thomas, Sargent & Hardy, 2011, p. 3). Terms such as change agent and change recipient should therefore be used with caution as they create a dualism in which change is considered a one-way process which fails to position subordinates as co-constructors of change (Thomas et al., 2011). The neat dualism of change agent and recipient is thus more nuanced than superficially suggested by the change agent/change recipient dichotomy.

2.7.1.1: Resistance by Top Management

The literature lacks any significant discussion of resistance by those in top management positions (Chairmen, CEOs, MD's, Founding Partners). Within this limited literature, a lack of commitment to change by top management emerges as a problem and a source of resistance (Gill, 2003; Krovi, 1993) with Spreitzer and Quinn (1996) briefly highlighting it as a barrier to change. Sirkin et al. (2005, p. 102) also imply senior management resistance to change when proposing that: "If employees don't see that a company's leadership is backing a project, they're unlikely to change." Self-interest appears as a motivation underpinning senior management resistance, with protecting vested interests (Bradutanu, 2015; Carnall, 2007) and the status quo (Dent & Goldberg, 1999) emerging as motivations. The association of resistance with self-interest is well recognised within the literature (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Jousen & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Waddell & Sohal, 1998).

At the other extreme, it is argued that little resistance emanates from senior management. Diefenbach (2007) posits that senior management are rarely associated with resistance, whilst Bradutanu (2015, p. 40) suggests that

"executive managers will never oppose their own ideas". No academic literature discussing the resistance of top management to change they initiated themselves could be found. It is thus a neglected area, exposing *the underlying assumption that it does not occur*.

Bradutanu (2015, p.4) does suggest, however, that executive managers will oppose the ideas of shareholders and subordinates, but that when shareholders propose change "executive managers either obey or they leave the organisation", thereby suggesting little point to their resistance. The removal of top management who resist is actually recommended by Strebel (1997) who suggests starting with them, and giving them the opportunity to accept the change or leave. The literature thus depicts resistance by top management as an unhealthy career choice.

Resistance by senior management is thus briefly mentioned in the literature but lacks detailed discussion and no literature was found regarding top management resisting change they initiated. The literature's primary focus is upon the resistance of lower level change recipients.

2.7.1.2: Resistance by the Change Leader

The academic literature is limited regarding people leading change that they do not believe in. What is available comes through discussion on websites or blogs linked to professional practice.

A brief article by Michael (2013) considers the problem of leading a change that is contrary to a person's values, which they consider might be damaging, and highlights the need to gain senior management support to make it happen. Stark (2016), however, essentially recommends putting concerns aside and just getting on with it as this will enhance one's career prospects, whilst the alternative may lead to being fired. Stark (2016) provides no consideration of the possibility that it might be a bad change and that resistance might be appropriate and beneficial to the organisation, and Gupta-Sunderji (2016) takes a similar stance arguing that one has to rise above one's emotions and lead the change. Baker (2014, n.p.) also concludes that once a change has been decided one just has to get on with it but, unlike Stark (2016) and Gupta-Sunderji (2016), makes allowances for

ethical considerations: "Obviously changes that disrupt a moral compass are a whole other ballgame with much larger implications". The consensus however, albeit with some reservations from Baker (2014), is that if a change is agreed put reservations aside and get on and lead it.

Leading change one does not believe in is thus a neglected area of the *academic* literature with the reviewed arguments located on blogs or websites associated with professional practice.

2.8: Why People Resist Change

Within the literature there are various explanations of why people resist change. Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993, n.p.) argue the need for readiness for change:

Readiness [...] is reflected in organizational members' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organization's capacity to successfully make those changes. Readiness is the cognitive precursor to the behaviors of either resistance to, or support for, a change effort.

Five key beliefs appear to underpin change recipients' motivation to support change: "discrepancy" (believing that a change is needed); "appropriateness" (believing that the proposed change is the correct one); "efficacy" (believing that the change recipient and the organization can implement the change successfully); "principal support" (believing that change agents and opinion leaders are committed to the success of a change) and "valence" (believing that the change will benefit the change recipient) (Armenakis & Harris, 2009, p. 129).

A lack of such beliefs and therefore readiness to change may lead to resistance and the literature details wide-ranging reasons for resistance including: *rational factors* which occur when employees' assessment of the outcomes of a proposed change differ from those of management (Waddell & Sohal, 1998); *psychological and non-rational factors*, based on predispositions, personal preferences, self-interest, fear of job cutbacks, fear of demotion or loss of position (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Hughes, 2007; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Waddell & Sohal, 1998); *fear* (Gunner, 2017; Joussem & Scholl, 2016); *fear of the unknown* (Agocs, 1997; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Bradutanu, 2015;

Cummings & Worley, 2015; Paton & McCalman, 2008), *fear of failure* (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008); *concern about the ability to develop the needed skills* (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Bradutanu, 2015; Cummings & Worley, 2015); a *low ability to cope/overload* (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Joussem & Scholl, 2016); *political factors* including favouritism, point-scoring, threats to powerful stakeholders (Agocs, 1997; Balogun and Hope Hailey, 2008, Cummings & Worley, 2015; Waddell & Sohal, 1998); *the economic environment*, whereby depending on its state employees will be more or less likely to resist (Bradutanu, 2015) and *management factors* (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Waddell & Sohal, 1998). Resistance, may be caused by the less than honest behaviour of the change agents (Bradutanu, 2015; Ford et al., 2008; Oreg, 2006; Prediscan & Bradutanu, 2003; Senior & Swailes, 2010) who, for example, create resistance "by breaking agreements both before and during change and by failing to restore the subsequent loss of trust" (Ford et al., 2008, p. 365). Other factors include *poor training/lack of competence* (Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016); *lack of confidence to implement the change* (Joussem & Scholl, 2016); *previous failures of change projects* (Dimitriadis et al., 2016); *emotional reasons*: lack of energy and motivation, denial of need for change, demoralisation, uncertainty about the impact on people (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008, p. 249) and *culture* (Agocs, 1997; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Cummings & Worley, 2015). Age is also identified as a cause; Prediscan, Bradutanu & Roiban (2013) propose that older employees are more likely to strongly resist change whilst youth delivers weaker resistance, and mature managers receive less resistance than younger ones (the evidence supporting these claims is, however, unclear). *Organisational factors* causing resistance include poor relationships between management and trade unions and poor relationships between departments (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008) and *too much recent change* (Joussem & Scholl, 2016).

It is argued that people resist as it is part of our nature to do so. Sklar (2018) states that resistance to change is intrinsic to humans, whilst Gunner (2017, n.p.) proposes that people are effectively hardwired to resist change: "The findings from neuroscience research conclude that the brain is fundamentally averse to change" with anxiety and fear at its core. Fear, in various forms, is highlighted as a motivator of resistance (Agocs, 1997; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008;

Cummings & Worley, 2015; Gunner, 2017; Paton & McCalman, 2008), with fear and self-interest considered to underpin resistance:

Why do people resist change? Quite simply because they fear the unknown and are comforted by the familiar. Also very often successes and power bases are rooted in the past and present, not necessarily in the future. Why risk losing position, control and reputation? (Paton & McCalman, 2008, p. 52)

Self-interest is a frequently cited cause of resistance (Hughes, 2007) and Kotter and Schlesinger (1979, p. 3) are explicit about the strong link: "One major reason people resist organizational change is that they think they will lose something of value as a result." Agocs (1997), Burke (2011) and Moran and Brightman (2000) identify a sense of loss as a motivating factor for resistance and their descriptions of this phenomenon link closely to self-interest; fear that the loss delivered by the change will outweigh any benefit they might gain. People also resist the loss of the known when being requested or compelled to move into the unknown (Burke, 2011).

Thomas and Hardy (2011) note the negativity within the literature surrounding why people resist change. Causes are generally viewed in terms of people's shortcomings regarding their attitudes, emotions and/or behaviours, or their deficiencies including misunderstanding the change and cynicism towards it (Thomas & Hardy, 2011). Evidence of this includes Ford and Ford's (2009, p.3) suggestion that some people resist "for no apparent reason other than that change didn't suit them" and Oreg's (2003) descriptions of why people resist change being rooted in personal deficiencies. There is thus a frequently expressed view linking resistance to personal weaknesses or failings.

Bradutanu (2015, p. 7), however, proposes a different view of self-interest stating that "employees do not always put their personal interests in the foreground" and argues that they resist changes that they perceive as harmful to the organization and their job security. This concern for job security may be motivated by self-interest however such self-interest may be beneficial to the organisation if it is protecting it from harm. Smith (2012) also considers self-interest from a different perspective, arguing that the change might have been motivated by the self-interest of those driving it. In such circumstances those resisting the change are seeking to protect the organisation, whilst those initiating it have their own, not

the organisation's, best interests at heart. This turns on its head Bradutanu's (2015) suggestion that managers place the organisation above their personal interests, having sight of a broader picture. Thus, far from being motivated by self-interest, resistance to change may develop from a desire to protect the organisation from ill thought through plans by highlighting potential problems in the proposed change (Senior and Swailes, 2010), or from changes rooted in the self-interest of those driving them. Indeed Piderit (2000, p. 783) argues that "researchers have largely overlooked the potentially positive intentions that may motivate negative responses to change." There is thus a counterbalance to the negative reasons identified as underpinning resistance. This is positive resistance as constructive discontent, discussed in section 2.6.

The literature also suggests that it is not always change itself that is being resisted but that often people are resisting uncertainty (Carnall, 2007; Cummings & Worley, 2015). The resistance might therefore stem from the way in which the change is being managed and communicated by the change agents; if they were to act and communicate clearly and with integrity causes of resistance might be removed.

2.8.1: Communication as a Cause of Resistance

As Armenakis et al. (1993, n.p.) argue: "*The primary mechanism for creating readiness for change among members of an organization is the message for change.*" However, just because a change message has been communicated, it does not mean it has been communicated effectively (Hughes, 2010) and misunderstandings can cause resistance (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). Such resistance may arise not just amongst change recipients, but also amongst those developing the change when different meanings are ascribed to a change by the different professional groups involved in creating it (Pieterse et al., 2012). Thomas and Hardy (2011, p. 323) suggest that the literature perceives such misunderstandings as a "deficiency" on the part of the employee, but instead it may highlight the importance of good communications (Bradutanu, 2015; Carnall, 2007; Wachira & Anyieni, 2017; Wittig, 2012) to managing change successfully. Carnall (2007) also highlights the importance of good communications to removing a cause of resistance but in an unusual twist also suggests that

information can provide ammunition to those resisting as it may assist them in their obstruction.

Resistance may also be caused if management communications lack honesty, as problems can be caused by poor communications and spin which reinforces the "cynicism spiral": "Management is not always 'squeaky clean' in its words and its deeds so it is important not to simply dismiss cynicism and scepticism as the reactions of people who cannot see the light" (Senior & Swailes, 2010, p. 266). Management may emphasise the benefits of the change and downplay its negative effects, resulting in a loss of respect and trust when employees find they have been deceived (Bradutanu, 2015).

2.8.2: Management Behaviour as a Cause of Resistance

Some of the reasons underpinning resistance rest with the actions of the change agents. Indeed research into organizational justice suggests that how people react is dependent upon how they are treated by management (Bradutanu, 2015). Management can cause resistance through poor or dishonest communications and by their behaviours. They may increase resistance by communicating the need to change inappropriately or poorly (Prediscan & Bradutanu, 2003) or create hostility by avoiding involving employees (Bradutanu, 2015).

In addition, management provokes resistance in employees by breaching the psychological contract (Strebel, 1996), the "individual beliefs in a reciprocal obligation between the individual and the organization" (Rousseau, 1989, p. 121). Resistance can occur when change breaches this "personal compact" as "Employees and organizations have reciprocal obligations and commitments, both stated and implied, that define their relationship" (Strebel, 1996, p. 87). Unless psychological contracts are taken into account as part of the change process, they may block the change (Strebel, 1996, p. 87).

The management behaviour of *imposing change* is also identified as a cause of resistance (Bennis, 1989; Burke, 2011; Moran & Brightman, 2000; Walker & Soule, 2017): "Nothing makes people resist new ideas more adamantly than their belief that change is being imposed on them" (Bennis, 1989, p. 3). In contrast to

Gunner (2017), Burke (2011) argues that people are not by nature resistant to change but that it is human nature to resist its imposition. Imposition of cultural change is also resisted as culture resides collectively within people's habits and commonly held perceptions about how things should be done (Walker and Soule, 2017). Organisational culture can thus generate resistance (Agocs, 1997; Burke, 2011; Bradutanu, 2015; Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996; Walker & Soule, 2017) and is more likely to underpin resistance in organisations where there is a conservative culture of daily routines than those with cultures based on innovation and achievement (Bradutanu, 2015). Resistance may also be a reaction to poor change which is inadequately thought through: "Those who advocate change without considering the big picture deserve to have their ideas shot down, and they should learn from the experience rather than complain about resistance to change" (Smith, 2012, p. 16).

There are thus multiple factors underpinning resistance to change, some residing within the change recipient others as a reaction to the communications or behaviours of the change agent. Regarding the change agent and change recipient dualism, the various arguments in the literature suggest that the picture is complex. *The superficial conceptualisation of change agents supporting the organisation and those opposing change being harmful to it, can be challenged.* Some resistance may indeed be motivated by personal reasons of self-interest, but it may also be the change agents who are acting through self-interest and the change recipients who are seeking to protect the organisation. Alternatively it may be a bad, ill-thought through change that the change recipients seek to defend the organisation against (Brooks, 2003; Senior and Swales, 2010). Finally the change agents themselves may be the cause of the resistance, through their behaviours, poor communications or seeking to impose change, rather than the change itself.

2.9: How Resistance to Change Manifests

Just as there are multiple reasons why change is resisted, so there are multiple ways through which that resistance is manifested. Bradutanu (2015), Oreg (2006) and Piderit (2000) propose three states of resistance: cognitive, emotional and behavioural. However, conceptualising resistance in behavioural terms is common (Piderit, 2000).

Behavioural resistance manifests in multiple ways including: *defiance* (Piderit, 2000); *opposition* (Carnall, 2007; Ford & Ford, 2010; Dimitriadis et al., 2016); *absenteeism* (Hughes, 2010); *omission* (Piderit, 2000); *deception* (Piderit, 2000); *routine-seeking* (Senior & Swailes, 2010); *indifference* (Carnall, 2007; Bradutanu, 2015); *industrial action* (Hughes, 2010); *procrastination/postponing actions necessary for achieving the change* (Hughes, 2010; Bradutanu, 2015); *disruptive behaviour* (Hughes, 2010); *impatient behaviour* (Bradutanu, 2015); *undue caution* (Bradutanu, 2015); *indirect resistance via incompetent behaviour - undertaking tasks in the old way or deliberately making errors* (Bradutanu, 2015) and *sabotage* (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999; Ford and Ford, 2010; Morgan, 2001; Morrison & Milliken; 2000; Moss-Kanter, 2012; Nevis, 1987). *Denial* (Agocs, 1997; Bradutanu 2015) is argued to be a common form of resistance when staff do not understand the necessity of the change or reject it (Bradutanu, 2015). In such circumstances people will deny that change is required even in the face of a compelling argument, denying that the change message, the change messenger or both are credible and "may take the form of claims that it is exaggerated, biased, self-interested, irrational or untruthful" (Agocs, 1997, p. 922).

In addition to behavioural resistance, Piderit (2000), Oreg (2006) and Bradutanu (2015) also identify how resistance has been described in *emotional* terms. It is argued that emotions such as aggression, frustration, anxiety (Piderit, 2000) fear and anger (Bradutanu, 2015) can fuel or express resistant behaviours. Piderit (2000) may claim that resistance is usually portrayed in behavioural terms, but research by Joussem and Scholl (2016) suggests that change has the largest effect on people's emotions. It manifests as emotional stress or potential discomfort, and the rational questioning regarding if the change makes sense arrives later, if at all (Joussem & Scholl, 2016).

Regarding resistance and *cognition*, cognitive rigidity relates to how open a person is to changing their mind (Senior & Swailes, 2010), and "may include a component on negative thoughts about the change" (Piderit, 2000, p. 786). Cognitive processes, or distorted thinking, are linked to resistance when people create their own perceptions about what will occur during a period of organisational change, particularly when there is a lack of information. If such distortions are not amended then resistance increases (Bovey & Hede, 2001),

which reinforces the arguments regarding the importance of good communication in managing change (Carnall, 2007; Bradutanu, 2015; Wachira & Anyieni, 2017). The association between irrational ideas and resistance is increased by emotion, and "blaming, being inert and passive, not controlling one's destiny, and avoiding life's difficulties" are the emotions most strongly correlated with the intention to resist (Bovey & Hede, 2001, p. 379). Resistance may therefore present behaviourally, emotionally or cognitively and are interlinked.

Preceding behavioural resistance, however, is the cognitive state of "(un)readiness" (Piderit, 2000, p. 786). Oreg (2003, p.683) found that people "who are less open to experiences, "less tolerant of ambiguity, and [...] more risk-averse are expected to exhibit higher resistance to change." These findings in part support Gunner's (2017) argument that people are hard-wired to resist change as it suggests that some, if not all, are. Those not hardwired to resist change, but who cope well with it, tend to hold management positions and this itself can be a source of problems as it frequently leads top managers to overestimate the flexibility of their organization, with potentially disastrous consequences (Joussen & Scholl, 2016, p. 20). Personality can thus be a component underpinning resistance to change.

However, despite how and why resistance occurs, it may be miss-identified as such. What may actually be manifesting is reluctance (Piderit, 2000). Ambivalence to change is also prevalent, for example when a person's cognitive and emotional responses to a proposed change are in conflict (Piderit, 2000). Change may thus meet resistance in multiple forms, or it may instead meet reluctance or ambivalence, where individuals are conflicted.

Such manifestations of resistance are identified as dimensions of resistance within the literature (Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000) and therefore this review advances Objective 1, Question 1.

2.10: The Overcoming Resistance versus Soliciting Resistance Dualism

As part of considering the change agent and change recipient dualism, it is important to address how resistance is managed. As discussed in sections 2.4 and 2.5, resistance to change is conceptualised both positively and negatively.

This throws up an associated dualism of leading change with a view to overcoming resistance which is considered problematic, or valuing resistance to the extent that it is solicited. I progress the chapter by exploring this dualism, by first considering the literature that focuses upon overcoming resistance to change and then that which considers soliciting it.

2.10.1: Leading Change and Overcoming Resistance to It

"The primary reason why managers try to avoid resistance to change is clearly because it has negative consequences for the organization" (Oreg, 2006, p. 82). With resistance conceptualised so negatively it is not surprising that a body of literature emerges prescribing how to overcome it. Within the literature, from some of the earliest pieces to current guidance, a number of themes emerge (Appendix 3) including both positive and negative approaches to leading change and overcoming resistance to it. However, such prescriptions can be challenged based on their underlying assumption that there is "one best way" and one size fits all (Hughes, 2010).

Regarding positive approaches, communication and participation are dominant themes and their importance is identified in some of the earliest literature by Coch and French (1948). Over the following 70 years a substantial body of literature grew regarding these themes:

The overwhelming suggestion in the management literature is that participative techniques are the best method of handling resistance [...] The now classic studies by Lewin (1991) and Coch and French (1948) both concluded that involvement in the learning, planning and implementation stages of a change process significantly influences commitment to change and apparently lowers resistance (Wadell & Sohal, 1998, p. 546).

Communication and participation thus appear to play a key role in the arsenal of weapons recommended to successfully introduce change and overcome resistance: "Effective communication often holds the key to successfully unlocking the door to change" (Paton & McCalman, 2008, pp. 53-54). However, some communication and participation efforts are abused, being far removed from being participative in nature and paying little more than lip-service to consultation, effectively amounting to information "battering" and salesmanship

indicative of an oppositional management mindset (Waddell & Sohal, 1998, p. 546).

Communications may also arm resistance (Carnall, 2007) and employee participation in planning a change may hinder change efforts, perhaps due to people interpreting management behaviours and their intent in different ways (Furst & Cable, 2008). Lawrence (1954, p. 56) also questions the value of participation in change management but highlights the problems caused by the "blindspots" and the attitudes of those leading the change, arguing that it becomes a self-fulfilling prophesy when resistance is expected and people are treated accordingly. Indeed resisting perceived resistance can assist its manifestation (Thomas et al., 2011). There are thus some arguments challenging the efficacy of communicating and participation to overcoming resistance, whilst poor communications or spin can motivate resistance (Senior & Swailes, 2010).

Bradutanu (2015) emphasizes the importance of selecting the change agent to be someone from a senior position in the organisation as employees usually have confidence in top management and trust them even more in turbulent times. Clearly she is not referring to organisations where communication is abused (Senior & Swailes, 2010; Waddell & Sohal, 1998) and the cynicism spiral (Senior & Swailes, 2010) has manifested. Indeed, the potential for resistance may stretch back to the relationships between manager and staff that precede any current communications about change; if it has been positive employees are less likely to resist any influencing tactics employed than if it has been antagonistic (Furst & Cable, 2008).

Just as communication and participation may impact positively or negatively upon change management and overcoming resistance, the same may apply to management style. Bradutanu (2015) recommends using an authoritarian management approach for urgent or imposed changes, emphasising the need to communicate or explain reasons. This recommendation exposes itself to critique when it is argued that authoritarian imposition begets resistance (Coch & French, 1948). Kotter's (1995, p.3) recommendation to establish "a sense of urgency" is also challenged as its helpfulness might not last long when to secure people's complete and enduring commitment they must deeply desire and feel a

responsibility to change (Walker & Soule, 2017). Diefenbach (2007, p. 129) takes Kotter's (1995) idea of creating a sense of urgency to the extreme when highlighting the "TINA-principle" or "There is no alternative!": "for belief systems like managerialism it always helps to portray the environment as hostile, dangerous and frightening, to have an "enemy outside" – ideally that threatening that the survival of the whole is at stake." Indeed, based on this management principle no engagement activity makes any difference as "The "grand plan" is already decided" (Diefenbach, 2007, p. 129). Such managerialistic tactics are effectively imposition; a cynical manipulation of people's fears to achieve what was already planned.

At first sight the recommendations regarding how to lead change and overcome resistance appear to fall into two camps, the positive and the negative, although the positive approaches can also possess a darker side depending upon how they are employed. Other approaches linked to coercion appear to be unambiguously negative. Bradutanu (2015, p. 59) explicitly advises employing the negative methods of "hidden persuasion, and explicit and implicit coercion" to reduce resistance if positive methods do not work. These are surprisingly traditional recommendations coming from an author who claims to be reconceptualising change and writes about the importance of trust, describing the negative consequences associated with breaking it. There is some disconnect within her arguments as she also identifies that such negative tactics causes dissatisfaction, tension, and negative impacts on morale and performance. Whilst arguing "people will always resist imposed changes" (Bradutanu, 2015, p. 74) it is justified as possibly the only option if immediate implementation is required.

There is thus confusion around the need for, and efficacy of negative tactics, underscored by Furst and Cable's (2008, p. 453) argument that using "sanctions or edicts" to force employee support for a change has been found to be both effective and ineffective depending upon the case it was applied to. The success or failure of such tactics to overcome resistance is thus situational; so is successful change which "takes place on a path that is appropriate to the specific situation" (Strebel, 1997, n.p.).

2.10.2: Leading Change: Soliciting and Working with Resistance to Change

Nevis (1987, p. 150) advocates "working with the resistance rather than trying to overcome or annihilate it". The latter is considered patronizing, whilst dissipating oppositional forces creates compliance which does not best support the organisation. Nevis (1987) proposes going beyond listening to opposing views to actively soliciting them, making time for them to be understood. To advocate "soliciting" is to recommend actively seeking out resistance and in valuing opposition to this extent Nevis (1987) goes against the body of conventional change management literature which proposes selling the benefits of the change (Blockdijk, 2008; Orridge, 2009). The idea of consulting to gain opposing views is not new however. In the 1920s Mary Parker Follett argued that:

We shouldn't put to [...] workers finished plans merely to get their consent [...] one of two things is likely to happen, both bad: either we shall get a rubber stamped consent and thus lose what they might contribute to the problem in question, or else we shall find ourselves with a fight on our hands (cited in Piderit, 2000, p. 784).

This advice was provided by Follett almost 100 years ago, and yet literature in the traditional vein continues to be produced advocating coercion, albeit as a last resort (Bradutanu, 2015; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979).

The literature provides a range of proposals regarding how organisations might embrace resistance which are discussed in the following sections.

2.10.2.1: The Devil's Advocate and Multiple Advocacy

The devil's advocate (Reissner, Pagan & Smith, 2011) is a concept derived from the Catholic Church when in 1587 Pope Sixtus V introduced the position of the Promoter of the Faith (*Promotor Fidei*), commonly known as The Devil's Advocate (*Advocatus Diaboli*), to investigate and prepare arguments against the beatification or canonisation of individuals (New Advent, 2018). Within organisations it is employed as a means of providing challenge to an idea under consideration, to ensure that the decisions taken are in the organisation's best interest as various options have been considered (Reissner et al., 2011). However there are differences in how devil's advocacy is implemented in practice. In some cases, where no-one is challenging the dominant view, a leader appoints someone to the role on an ad hoc basis. In other cases a subgroup is

appointed to provide ongoing opposition even after a decision has been made (George & Stern, 2002).

The value of devil's advocacy is disputed. Schwenk and Cosier's (1980) found decision making can benefit from employing an objective, non-emotional devil's advocate approach, but the value of such role-playing is questioned as it lacks authenticity, and authentic dissent is argued to be more valuable (George & Stern, 2002; Nemeth, Brown & Rogers, 2001). George and Stern (2002, p. 487) highlight the difference between a "genuine policy dissident" who as a "political actor" possesses organisational resources, and role-playing as devil's advocate where the most achieved will be to assist in achieving a multi-sided exploration of the issue under consideration. Genuine dissent may be of more value as the opposing views are likely to be argued with more conviction and supported by more resources. However, whilst the devil's advocate role may not be perfect, when there is no genuine dissent (or at least none that anyone is prepared to openly express) it does at least promote some greater depth of thinking around an issue, even if it is of only modest or incremental assistance (George & Stern (2002).

Multiple advocacy builds on the role of the devil's advocate, encompassing authentic differences whereby multiple advocates covering a range of different viewpoints and options exist within the policy-making system, delivering a range of benefits to decision-making (George & Stern, 2002). De Cremer et al. (2016) also identify the value of multiple perspectives and advocate going further than being open-minded about resistance but to actively embrace it by starting structured debates to surface multiple perspectives rather than waiting for people to speak out, thereby risking their professional reputations. They thus identify the potential risk of speaking out, which is inherent in George and Stern's (2002) argument that the role of devil's advocate is designed to protect those providing challenge from sanctions as it is known that the views are not genuinely held. The threat is clearly articulated by Thomas and Hardy (2011, p. 325) who highlight the problem for employees when resistance to change is celebrated and encouraged. If they do not resist they risk being castigated for their lack of contribution, and if they do then their comments might not be well received. It is advised that training be given in how to manage people speaking out before

creating a culture that promotes it, to avoid inappropriate, negative reactions (De Cremer et al., 2016)

2.10.2.2: The Sage Fool

Kets de Vries (1990) discusses the value of humour and the role of the sage-fool, a mediating role between leader and followers which surfaces conflict thereby allowing both sides to manage the concerns. The behaviour and actions of senior management can be effectively influenced by the sage-fool and humour is central to the effectiveness of this role "in fostering insight (necessitating a capacity for self-observation) and as such becomes a vehicle for change. In its unmasking function -- releasing unconscious material -- it can become a sort of safety valve, controlling leadership's potentially destructive outcomes" (Kets de Vries, 1990, p. 760).

The dangers inherent in this role are thus alluded to and whilst employees may assume it, it is generally safer for someone external to the organisation to take it on: "Just as the king's fool had to be careful not to transgress too far and forfeit his life, the truthsayer in organizational life plays a role which is also not without risks" (Kets de Vries, 1990, p. 764). Just as the person playing the role of devil's advocate is 'protected' because it is known that they are not necessarily expressing their own views (George & Stern, 1990), so the sage-fool is protected to some extent through humour. It is concerning, however, to note the literature highlighting the need for 'protection' due to the danger in sharing opposing views within an organisation.

2.10.2.3: Managing Mindsets and Delayed Agreement

A straightforward way to reap the benefits of resistance is to appeal to change agents to adjust their mindset, question why they perceive the behaviour to be resistance and instead to consider it feedback to help them improve the proposed change (Ford & Ford, 2009; Bradutanu, 2015). Gregersen (2016) identifies direct approaches to generating opposing views including: asking staff questions; going on listening expeditions to identify problems; airing grievances via a companywide chat group and requesting totally honest reports about why things are not working. The organisation might also benefit from a "mindful" (Binci, Cerruti & Donnarumma, 2012 p. 869) organisational attitude being employed,

whereby resistors are not aggressive and managers are not closed to criticism. Such mindfulness is “a state of active awareness characterized by [...] an openness to new information, and a willingness to view contexts from multiple perspectives” (Levinthal & Rerup, 2006, p. 502).

In order to fully air grievances it is important to avoid premature agreement. Organisational conflict can have a positive side as "apathy breeds compromise" (Darwin, 2004, p. 2) and the urge to seek agreement too soon should be resisted as it steals from the organisation the benefits that a legitimate diverse range of perspectives provides. When "closure" is delivered too soon it may be damaging as "Premature agreements may be narrow, unsatisfactory, harmful to the actors involved and prone to unravel" (Darwin, 2004, p. 2). Slowing down to delay agreement by being more reflective to enhance deeper listening and real communication, facilitates the emergence of agreement at a deeper level (Darwin, 2004).

The literature thus contains proposals regarding how to solicit resistance or challenge, and embrace it to enhance decision-making. However, inherent dangers for staff for doing so are also identified.

2.10.3: Summary

The literature thus depicts resistance as both a negative and positive phenomenon and the approach to it as a simple dualism; a phenomenon to be overcome or solicited to reap its rewards. I capture this theoretically in Figure 9.

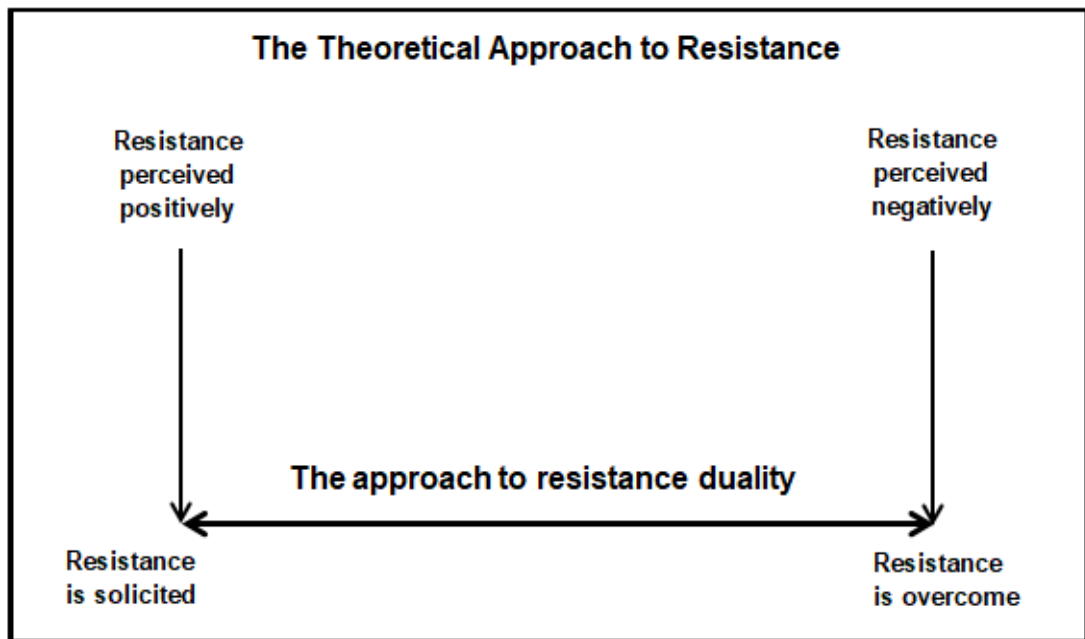


Figure 9

A positive perception of resistance leads to it being solicited whilst a negative perception leads to it being overcome.

2.11: The Impact of Change and Resistance

To conclude my consideration of the change agent and change recipient dualism, I review the literature discussing the impact of change and resistance upon these parties. It cannot be assumed that they all share the same experiences as different stakeholders interpret change differently (Bartunek, Rousseau, Rudolph & DePalma, 2006).

2.11.1: The Impact of Change upon the Change Recipient

Organisational change can be an emotional event (Smollan & Sayers, 2009; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010). Kiefer (2002) proposes that the literature tends to focus upon negative emotions, such as stress that needs to be managed or that fuels resistance, which from an organisational perspective can act as a barrier to change. However, there are a range of both negative and positive emotions which can “evolve along with the process of change” (Castillo, Fernandez & Sallan, 2018, p. 5).

Negative emotions associated with change include: *stress* (Kiefer, 2002; Maitliss & Sonenshein, 2010; Oreg, Vakola & Armenakis, 2011); *fatigue* (Oreg et al.,

2011); *anger* (Barner, 2008; Ford & Ford, 2010; Huy, 1999; Smollan, 2006); *uncertainty* (Terry, Callan & Sartori, 1996;) *fear* (Ford & Ford, 2010; Huy, 1999; Kiefer, 2002; Smollan, 2006); *defensiveness* (Huy, 1999) and *anxiety* (Barner, 2008; Obholzer, 2003; Oreg, et al., 2011; Terry, et al., 1996) which can lead to “staff illness, breakdown and burn-out” (Obholzer, 2003, p. 207). People can become *overwhelmed*, paralysed so that they are unable to reason, plan or understand what is happening (Carnall, 2007), and may become *disorientated* (Barner, 2008). In addition to these intense emotions, Maitliss and Sonnenshein (2010) identify lower level emotions such as *sadness, gloom or guilt*. People can also experience *cynicism* (Aslam, et al., 2016; Fleming, 2005; Oreg, Bartunek, Lee & Do, 2018; Senior & Swailes, 2010) which may be bred by past failures of change (Smollan, 2006). Behaviourally, people may *withdraw* (Aslam, Ilyas, Imran & Rahman, 2016; Kiefer, 2002; Oreg et al., 2011; Oreg et al., 2018) developing the intention or desire to *quit* because of the change (Castillo, Fernandez, & Sallan, 2018; Oreg et al., 2011). Alternatively, people may suppress what they feel as there may be organisational barriers to communicating emotions (Barner, 2008) and consequently be impacted by the strain of *emotional labour*: “The need to control emotions is a key element of the construct of emotional labor” (Smollan & Sayers, 2009). There are thus a range of potential impacts upon the change recipient, whether or not they express their feelings.

People handle change by experiencing a “coping cycle” of denial, defence, discarding, adaptation and internalization, and can experience frustration and depression as they struggle to understand how to deal with the new situation (Carnall, 2007, p. 241). Castillo et al. (2018, p. 2) also identify denial and frustration and suggest other emotions: “anger, bargaining, depression, revising, deserting and acceptance”, arguing that these emotional stages impact upon relationships with family, friends, co-workers and supervisors at different points. Change can thus significantly impact emotionally upon the recipient, with negative emotions being more prevalent than positive ones (Maitliss & Sonnenshein, 2010), and radical change often involves huge uncertainty and significant emotional energy (Huy, 1999).

Some positive impacts are also identified, however, associated with pleasantness, commitment to the change and change-related satisfaction (Oreg et al., 2011) and people may feel “happy to be able to move things” (Kiefer, 2002; p. 58). Hope, relief, joy (Maitliss & Sonnenshein, 2010), excitement (Oreg, et al. 2018), exhilaration, pleasure, contentment, enthusiasm (Smollan, 2006) may also be felt. The literature is inconsistent regarding how personality traits affect the impact. Oreg et al. (2011) advises that some research suggests that positivity links to a better acceptance of change whilst pessimism links to more negative outcomes; alternatively research suggests that those engaging with change were more likely to succumb to depression and emotional exhaustion.

Change may thus impact positively or negatively upon the recipient in a range of ways but there is little literature regarding the impact that *resisting change* has upon the change recipient or resistor. It instead focuses upon the negative emotions provoked by change which cause people to resist it (section 2.8 – 2.8.2).

2.11.2: The Impact of Change upon the Change Agent

The literature primarily focuses upon the impact of change upon the recipient, with less attention paid to the impact upon the change agent. Indeed Kiefer (2002) argues that the organisational change literature focuses primarily upon change management, therefore taking a typical managerial perspective of emotion and only concentrating on the emotions of change recipients, ignoring those of other stakeholders. Obholzer (2003), however, identifies that managers may feel lonely and need support, whilst Carnall (2007, p. 238) indicates that they may experience the same negative emotions as the change recipients: “Change creates, anxiety, uncertainty and stress, even for those managing change, and even if they are fully committed to change.” Indeed stress can have positive and negative impacts; it can motivate by providing challenge but too much can create feelings of being swamped (Carnall, 2007).

Literature considering the impact upon the change agent of managing those that resist change is also somewhat neglected. It may be implicitly included in the stress that Carnall (2007) mentions and may be fatiguing: “With such a negative emphasis, it must be exhausting for managers and leaders to tackle and address

resistance behaviors” (Mathews & Linski, 2016, p. 964). Change agents may become defensive if they receive feedback from change recipients suggesting the change may be flawed (Ford, Ford & D’Amelio, 2008) and if they perceive the resistance as threatening they may become “competitive, defensive, and uncommunicative, more concerned about being right, looking good (or not looking bad), and winning (having their way) than about accomplishing the change” (Ford & Ford, 2010, p.24).

Although the literature is limited on the impact of change and resistance on the change agent, it is clear that it can impact powerfully. It takes a strong leader to engage positively with resistance in the face of people who may be exhibiting the strong emotions provoked by the change, but ultimately engagement with it delivers better results (Ford & Ford, 2009).

2.12: The Success versus Failure Dualism

It is argued that a considerable proportion of change initiatives fail (Kotter, 1995; Pieterse et al., 2012; Sirkin et al., 2005), however there is a debate regarding the exact proportion. Some authors argue that it is a significant proportion (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Kees & Newcomer, 2008; Kotter, 1995; Shin, Taylor & Seo, 2012) whilst Hughes (2011) concludes that empirical evidence supporting the frequently cited claim that 70% of change efforts fail is lacking. Few change efforts are total failures but then few are entirely successful either (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). One side argues that failure is usually blamed on inadequate change management competences (Griffith, 2001), whilst the other suggests that resistance is usually blamed (Bradutanu, 2015; Dimitriadis et al., 2016).

This "blame game" is also played by both the change agent and change recipients themselves, with each side blaming the other for failure (Piderit, 2000, p. 784). Blame is used by some as a cloak to cover their own inadequacies; managers blame resisters for the problems and failure of change to transfer these failures caused by their inappropriate decisions on to the resistant employees (Bradutanu, 2015). Indeed Jousen and Scholl's (2016, p. 14) research within the aviation industry revealed that "employee resistance was seen as the number one reason for the failing of change initiatives, with a majority of 91% of the airlines confirming this statement."

Thomas et al. (2011) also suggest that some blame may lie with those leading change, arguing that senior managers or change agents who do not engage with the counter offers or proposals of change recipients may be as much to blame for change failing as the resistant subordinates. Indeed, Bradutanu (2015, p. 6) posits that although the failure of change initiatives is often blamed on resistance, change agents should attempt to view it positively as by analysing it they might experience greater success in implementing the change and win more employees over to "their side". This reference to "sides" suggests that change is being viewed through the traditional adversarial lens (Waddell & Sohal, 1998). However, rather than positioning sides in such adversarial terms, Barrow & Toney-Butler (2018) argue that both are responsible for the success or failure of the change.

Joussen and Scholl (2016, p. 14) advise that their research suggests that "Change projects whose objectives were fully achieved were not existent." Change can therefore be considered either a partial failure or a partial success dependent upon the perspective taken. This proposes nuances; degrees of failure (or success) that the simple success versus failure dualism misses. Indeed if the literature arguing that resistance can be beneficial to change is accepted, then not meeting all the initial objectives might be a form of success if the resistance led to the failure of poor objectives that risked harming the organisation. *The straightforward dualism of success versus failure thus appears overly simplistic, lacking sufficiently nuanced insight to be appropriately applied to a phenomenon as complex and multidimensional as resistance to change.*

2.13: The Language of Resistance: Metaphors and the Labelling of Resistance

Figurative language, including metaphors, is used to discuss change within organisations and for the purposes of this thesis I refer to the various types of figurative language as metaphors. Metaphors are linguistic tools through which one object can be perceived and experienced from the perspective of another (Argaman, 2007; Spicer & Alvesson, 2011).

Metaphors are used to understand organisations (Morgan, 2006), to introduce change (Armenakis, & Bedeian, 1992; Marshak 1993; Pearce & Osmond, 1996) and to make sense of and reconstruct the impact of change (Smollan, 2014). Indeed, some metaphors such as rollercoaster and the grief cycle have become accepted vocabulary within organisations (Smollan, 2014), with many derived from the military and sport (Cleary, et al., 1992). This section progresses through a consideration of the literature regarding the metaphors employed to explain change and the resistance to it.

2.13.1: Metaphors of Change

During change reality is fluid and people may lack the vocabulary to describe an unfamiliar reality, employing metaphors to provide insights which might otherwise remain unarticulated (Argaman, 2007). Marshak (1993) and Morgan (2001) identify three different types of metaphor associated with change. Marshak's (1993, p. 48) *transformational metaphors* describe a transformation from one state to another. These appear similar to Morgan's (2001) *structural metaphors* which create the meaning of one phenomenon through association with another. Marshak (1993) also identifies *developmental metaphors*, whereby change builds on the past and the associated metaphors link to construction or developmental growth, and *transitional change metaphors* which describe a move from one state to another and link to relocating or moving. Morgan (2001) also proposes *orientation metaphors* which are usually spatial in nature, and *ontological metaphors* that give understanding through objects and substances. Within the literature, change metaphors are thus distinguished by type.

In terms of the specific metaphors used during change, Cleary et al. (1992) propose that many are derived from the military. However, just because a metaphor has the same derivation, it does not mean that they are automatically employed in the same way. Women and men both employ the war metaphor of conflict, but women see themselves as the victims rather than the victors (Morgan, 2001). Morgan (2001) finds a range of metaphors employed during an organisational change. Travelling metaphors are used to indicate a process orientation to change that restricts any discussion about other potential routes toward the desired end, whilst "get out of the box" is used to signify letting go of the old and effectively reinventing the company. He also describes "walk the talk"

being applied to suggest leading by example, and managers employ metaphors associated with moving, transport and direction: “I like the direction”, “It’s where we need to be” “we’re on the right track”. The metaphor of “the old guard” is used to identify people who would resist any new changes whilst metaphors are also employed to indicate that if someone is not with the change then they leave the company: you either “get out” (quit) or be “sent home” (fired). Parental metaphors are used to suggest that both support and discipline are provided, however this parenting metaphor and accompanying behaviours, shuts down dissenting voices, as the parent knows best (Morgan, 2001, pp. 86-97).

The literature thus proposes a range of metaphors associated with change which are employed during its implementation.

2.13.2: Metaphors of Resistance

Fleming (2005, p. 48) argues that the term resistance is itself a metaphor derived from the natural sciences, particularly Newtonian physics whereby “every action has an equal and opposite reaction.” However, the literature focusing upon the metaphors describing resistance to change is limited.

Fleming’s (2005) article “Metaphors of Resistance” suggests by its title that it will discuss metaphors associated with resistance. It mentions metaphors of defence, distancing and production however its primary focus is upon cynicism, and resistance and culture, rather than metaphors of resistance to change. Marshak (1993, p.44), however, identifies a primary metaphor of resistance, arguing that one expression is synonymous with resistance to change: “If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it!” - superficially appearing to be a statement of fact, it is essentially a mantra of resistance, defiantly proclaiming: “No change is wanted or needed here; go tinker somewhere else!”. Through this metaphor the organisation is viewed as a machine which may, or may not, need repair (Marshak, 1993).

There is thus a body of literature discussing organisational metaphors and metaphors of change which identifies different *types* of metaphor. However, beyond Marshak’s (1993) research identifying some metaphors associated with resistance, the literature focusing specifically upon the metaphors of resistance to change is lacking.

2.13.3: The Labelling of Resistance and Power

There is much discussion in the literature about resistance being a label (Ford & Ford, 2010). Ford et al., (2008) argue that resistance to change does not exist independently of change agent sense-making, whilst Nevis (1987, p. 141) suggests that: "Resistance is a label applied by managers or consultants to the perceived behavior of others who seem unwilling to accept influence or help." This importance of power is maintained by Dent and Goldberg (1999) and Ford et al. (2008) who also highlight change agents' power in determining what is, and what is not resistance, questioning why some behaviours are labelled resistance whilst others are not. Indeed almost any response by the change recipient could be labelled resistance (Bradutanu, 2015; Ford et al., 2008): "Usually, managers consider those behaviors and discussions as resistant that they either do not like or those that involve extra work on their part" (Bradutanu, 2015, p. 14). Nevis (1987, p. 144) also highlights the importance of the power differential to the labelling of resistance, which "has meaning only where there are power differentials among people. Those with less power cannot easily say "no" to something, and so they fall back on reactions that are then labelled as resistance." Differences of opinion between peers are, however, termed negotiation, as peers have the power to say no (Nevis, 1987). According to this argument, peers perceive resistance amongst themselves but potentially deal with it in a different way to how they might deal with perceived resistance from subordinates. This argument relates to Dent and Goldberg's (1999, p. 37) proposal that resistance is a label applied to subordinates with the underpinning assumption that their resistance "is always inappropriate."

Regarding responses labelled as resistance, Bradutanu (2015) proposes that anxiety, reluctance and seeking information are not necessarily forms of resistance, and suggests that questions are usually asked because people are curious about the change. This potential to misapply the label is also highlighted by Oreg et al. (2018), whilst Ford and Ford (2010) argue that those labelled as resisting might not consider themselves to be so. This view is shared by Nevis (1987, p. 141) who argues that the label of resistance "is not necessarily the phenomenological experience of the targets." Effectively, those identified as 'resistors' might not see themselves as such, a factor frequently overlooked when "most of the attempts to understand resistance are made from the perspective or

bias of those seeking to bring about change” (Nevis, 1987, p. 141). This lack of literature from the perspective of the change recipient is also highlighted by Piderit (2000). Regarding management, Ford and Ford (2009, p. 102) identify that managers may exhibit resistant behaviours but often would identify them not as resistant but as “a manifestation of a rational, reasonable desire to be heard.”

Pieterse, et al. (2012, p. 800) also address the issue of power, highlighting three different perspectives within the critical literature. The first associates resistance with "unequal power relations"; the second "focuses on how ideologies and cultural socialisation make people comply with the existing order, without explicit force and avoiding overt conflicts" whilst the third presents power as a productive energy key to how people relate to each other. People interact to collaborate, a characteristic of which is the struggle for meaning as their reality is negotiated and resistance has become considered an integral component of the power play (Pieterse et al., 2012). Thomas and Hardy (2011, p. 322) also focus on power arguing that there are "two dominant approaches in the conceptualizing of resistance: celebrating it and demonizing it" with the most common approach being the latter. Both approaches privilege the change agent and thereby fail to appropriately address power relations, proposing that even when resistance is celebrated those that resist potentially face problems: “encouraged to resist, they risk condemnation if their responses are not deemed to be palatable by their superiors" (Thomas & Hardy, 2011, pp. 322-323). If this warning is accepted by potential resisters, it creates the risk of losing the value that raising concerns might bring, effectively creating a climate of silence (Dmytriiev et al., 2016) or destructive content (Dann, 2008). It is also noteworthy that such an overt abuse of power comes with a warning to the potential victims, rather than guidance to those driving change to do so with integrity, avoiding punitive behaviours. Indeed, the literature is dominated by a managerialist approach to resistance that privileges the change agent over the recipient. Thomas & Hardy (2011, p. 324) find that “the two dominant ways of conceptualizing resistance to change within the management literature shows how both are situated within a particular discursive framing where the interests and assumptions of management and change agents dominate.” There is also a theoretical problem associated with change agents defining resistance, as it opposes recent developments in change

theory which contend that it is the co-construction of meaning by a range of actors that leads to successful change (Thomas & Hardy, 2011).

Power thus plays a part in the labelling (and miss-labelling) of resistance and Ford and Ford (2009, p. 102) also highlight the subjectivity involved: "Two opposite behaviors - asking questions and not asking questions - were perceived as resistance, depending on the manager. Asking questions was itself seen in different ways, either as resistance or as engagement." Indeed, as Ford and Ford (2010, p. 25) argue: "resistance is more "in the eye of the beholder" than an objective report by an unbiased and disinterested observer." Perhaps it is now time to retire this label (Dent & Goldberg, 2000; Hughes, 2010; Nevis, 1987; Piderit, 2000) and if the phenomenon must be named then perhaps "responses to change" (Hughes, 2010, p. 172) might be a more appropriate way of conceptualising it.

2.14: Resistance and the Dimensions of Time and Space

Within the literature the temporal and spatial dimensions of resistance to change are discussed both explicitly and implicitly. Nevis, (1987, p. 157) identifies both dimensions implicitly when he proposes "making room for the "opposition" so that it has at least equal, if not more, time to become known to all concerned." In this instance the dimension of "room" or space is directly linked to the dimension of time, because here he does not suggest making a physical space in which people can express their discontent, but to giving them the time to do so. The two dimensions of space and time are thus conflated into one. The spatial and temporal dimensions can also be considered independently of each other and this section progresses through an exploration of how they are conceptualised within the literature.

2.14.1: The Temporal Dimension

Defined as the difference between two points in time (Ford & Ford, 1995), change thus *implicitly* possesses a temporal dimension. This temporal dimension is not limited to one facet, as quantitative and qualitative aspects of it are identified (Huy, 2001). The former conceptualises time in terms of clock-time and as a valuable resource (Halford & Leonard, 2006; Huy, 2001), whilst the latter views it as "private emotional equanimity or meaningful social experience" (Huy, 2000, p.

602). Such subjective understandings of time are significant to change as they can provide a source of stress (Huy, 2001). Inner time is linked to equanimity; the present has little meaning without a past and people attempt to conceptualise their future by pre-living it. When planning change it is therefore important to proceed with care to limit psychological damage by minimising the disturbance to people's inner time (Huy, 2001).

Another aspect of qualitative time is that of social time which refers to meaningful events internal to the organisation; people bond in organisations through engaging in cyclical rituals which create shared meanings (Huy, 2001). These three elements of time can be problematic for those leading change as they "risk upsetting employees' temporal work routines (clock time), their psychological comfort (inner time), and the quality of their relationships (social time)" (Huy, 2001, p. 601). Whilst Huy (2001) does *not* explicitly associate these dimensions of time to resistance to change, it does not take a great leap to link resistance to a lack of quantitative time and the stress problems associated with qualitative time. Indeed, when supportive leadership is lacking, resistance may fester over time, reducing employee commitment to the organisation (Jones & Van de Ven, 2016).

Central to organisational change is the reorganization of time through changes to the timescales of individual or organisational goals, or changes to working practices (Halford & Leonard, 2006). In leading change the quantitative conceptualisation of time dominates as change agents employ clock time to measure economic targets that should be achieved by specific points in time, using coercive or directive methods to secure compliance (Huy, 2001). Such imposition can generate resistance (Gill, 2003; Oreg, 2003). Indeed quantitative time can be used as a weapon, such as when sanctions are threatened if certain targets are not met by a specified time in the future (Huy, 2001). It is not difficult to envisage how this can lead to stress and potential resistance, although this association is not explicitly made by Huy (2001).

The literature presents the challenges the linear conceptualisation of past present and future creates for change management, and so becomes a dimension of resistance. The past impacts the present (Cutcher, 2009; Wolfram Cox, 2001) as

resistance to a change that threatens continuity is linked to what has happened in the past rather than what is occurring now (Cutcher, 2009). It can also be fuelled by experiences that remain over time creating a meaning to work that lends a moral authority (Cutcher, 2009). As Wolfram Cox (2001, p. 179) argues: "References to the comfort of an organization's past are not unusual in accounts of organizational change." Such behaviour is typical where radical organisational change has occurred creating a sense of discontinuity; people become nostalgic, romanticising the past to make sense of the present by demonising it (Wolfram Cox, 2001). Ford and Ford (2009, p.4) also identify how memories of past failures impact the present by fuelling current resistance as they anticipate history repeating itself and so resist to avoid going through it again.

The past can also be negated by change management processes. Wolfram Cox (2001) argue that, since the Forcefield Model linked change to opposing forces, transitioning from the past towards the future changed state has created an assumption that the past should be let go, and that change takes us forward. The past is not so easily dismissed however (Cutcher, 2009), and the conceptualisation of time in a non-linear, cyclical form challenges such assumptions (Wolfram Cox, 2001). Indeed loss is identified as linking in four ways to the past, present and future: "loss as regret for what has been in the past, loss of what might have been in other futures, loss as relief to move on to what can be better futures, and loss as release from constraints of the past" (Wolfram Cox, 2001, p. 169).

In addition to being conflated and operating independently, the temporal and spatial dimensions can also work together (Huy, 2001; Cutcher 2009) as employees draw on "spatio-temporal narratives" to underpin their resistance (Cutcher, 2009, p. 278). Cutcher's (2009, p. 284) research suggests that employees of an Australian Credit Union were drawing "on counter-discourses of the past (mutuality and member) and place (community and belonging)" to both resist a new strategy and lend that resistance a moral authority.

2.14.2: The Spatial Dimension

Just as time is conceptualised as having several aspects, so the spatial dimension is multi-faceted, characterised in the literature in both physical and non-physical forms.

Space can link to resistance in terms of resistance being fuelled internally or externally to the organisation (Cutcher, 2009, p. 284) which gives it a sense of physicality:

The tactics of resistance they employed drew on a solidarity forged with each other both inside and outside the workplace. They were friends, they lived in the same communities, and their resistance was aimed at protecting those friendships and a sense of belonging to a community.

Here Cutcher (2009) identifies relationships existing both within and outside the organisation, providing resistance with an implicit sense of space. Space is also explicitly identified in physical terms: “different groups can draw on ‘place’ as a resource in their efforts to develop, promote, and protect their preferred versions of themselves and their organization, and to take comfort in nostalgia, fantasy and scapegoating” (Brown & Humphreys, 2006, p.32). In this conceptualisation, “space” is a physical place. Ford & Ford (2009) also highlight people’s concerns about how space will be apportioned following a merger, suggesting that the physical space people occupy can potentially fuel resistance.

In addition to having a physical presence, space is conceptualised intangibly in terms of creating 'space' for resistance (Cutcher, 2009). Other forms of intangible space are created through oppositional strategies including sharing rumours, whistle-blowing and employing irony, scepticism and cynicism (Brown & Humphreys, 2006). There are thus internal and external, tangible and intangible dimensions of spatial resistance identified within the literature.

2.15: The Multidimensionality of Resistance

Resistance to change can be understood through its dimensions. Thomas and Hardy (2011, p. 330) infer this when arguing that "Resistance has to be judged on its merits and from multiple perspectives" and Dimitriadis et al. (2016, p. 311) describe it as a “multidimensional phenomenon”. The literature, however, is

fragmented in terms of identifying the various dimensions with studies focusing upon only a limited number.

Oreg (2006), Piderit (2000) and Szabla (2007) suggest that resistance to change is a multidimensional phenomenon, identifying three dimensions which they similarly describe as possessing emotional, cognitive and intentional/behavioural facets, which Oreg (2006) proposes are negative positions towards change. Resistance is thus limited to the dimensions of how people behave, think and feel (Erwin & Garman, 2010).

Dimensions of change and resistance are also discussed within the literature without being specifically identified as such (Nevis, 1987; Smollen, 2014). Smollen (2014) discusses metaphors of change, which proposes a language dimension, highlighting problems associated with the speed of change (lack of time) thereby suggesting a temporal dimension. Cutcher (2009) explicitly identifies the temporal and spatial dimensions of resistance, and time is described as being itself multi-faceted, possessing both quantitative and qualitative dimensions (Huy, 2001; Halford & Leonard, 2006). The spatial dimension of resistance is also identified as being multidimensional, possessing internal and external, tangible and intangible dimensions (Cutcher, 2006; Brown & Humphrey, 2006). The authors in each case are, however, only focusing upon one or two primary dimensions and their sub-dimensions. The literature neglects to identify and discuss the multiple primary dimensions of resistance and their associated facets.

The literature is thus fractured regarding its consideration of the multidimensionality of resistance to change. The literature splinters, as authors focus on a limited number of dimensions, or on the multiple sub-dimensions of one dimension of resistance. Indeed, the multidimensionality of resistance is only implicit within some studies (Nevis, 1987; Smollen, 2014).

Within Figure 10, I capture the three dimensions of resistance explicitly identified as such within the literature.

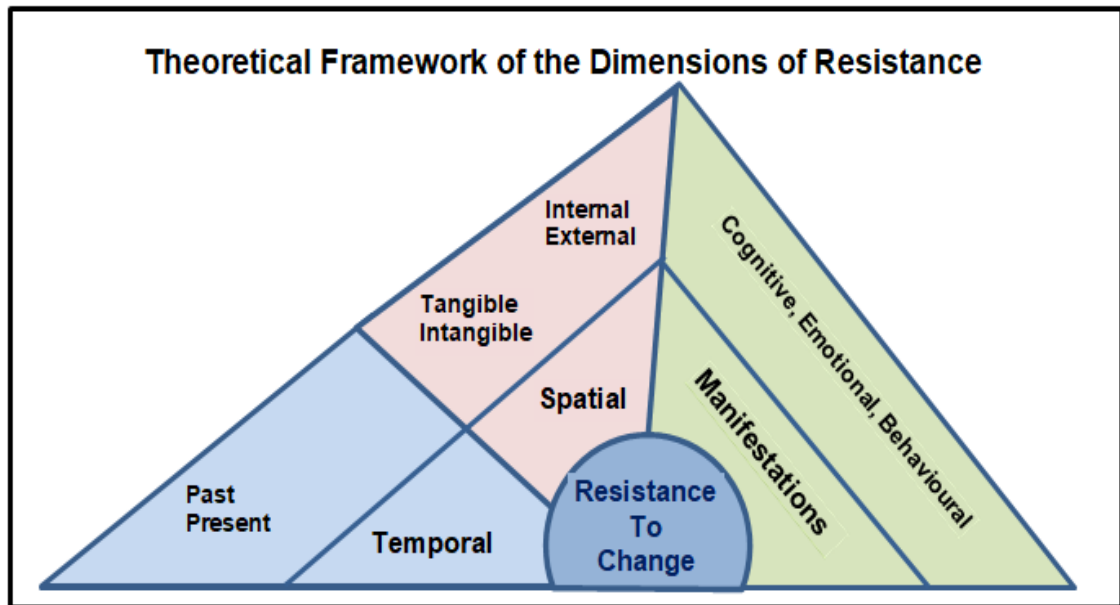


Figure 10

I depict the theoretical framework of Figure 10 as a triangle of resistance as the literature explicitly identifies only three primary dimensions of resistance (and as I identify eight empirically in the Octagon of Resistance; Figure 1). Through this literature review, culminating in the theoretical framework of the Dimensions of Resistance I advance Objective 1 and answer Question 1 regarding the dimensions of resistance identified in the literature.

2.16: Literature Review Conclusion

Within the literature resistance to change is identified and explored as a multidimensional phenomenon, with some of the dimensions being themselves multi-dimensional. However, in terms of examining these dimensions the literature is fractured, identifying and focusing upon just a limited number at any one time.

Resistance is also frequently conceptualised as a range of simple dualities and dichotomies with a number of underlying assumptions emerging. The histories of the resistance to change literature suggest that traditionally resistance is conceptualised as a bad thing to be overcome, and there is a substantial body of literature with overcoming resistance within its very title. However, on closer reading, it transpires that whilst the earliest literature may have offered guidance on overcoming resistance, it at least in part lays the blame for the resistance at

the feet of those leading the change and their poor practices that cause it. A more critical body of literature emerges that seeks to reconceptualise resistance as a form of feedback that can be beneficial to the organisation, however this does not mean that the traditional conceptualisation disappears. Indeed literature is still being published conceptualising resistance to change as a harmful phenomenon. Ambiguities also occur regarding which camp the author sits in, as articles published from both a traditional and critical perspective may offer the same advice: listen to those resisting and be prepared to change the change as the feedback can be useful.

The literature also frequently presents change as a top down phenomenon with resistance emerging bottom up. There is little literature focusing explicitly upon senior management resistance, or the resistance of those leading the change and none could be located regarding top level management resisting changes they had initiated. Indeed Bradutanu (2015) even suggests that this does not occur. Other limited areas of literature include the impact of resistance upon those leading change, and the metaphors employed to describe resistance.

There are thus several neglected areas within the fractured literature of resistance to change.

Chapter Three: The Methodology

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Literature Review
Chapter Three	Methodology
Chapter Four	Findings & Discussion: The Value Dimension
Chapter Five	Findings & Discussion: The Character Dimension
Chapter Six	Findings & Discussion: The Impact Dimension
Chapter Seven	Findings & Discussion: The Actors Dimension
Chapter Eight	Findings & Discussion: The Engagement Dimension
Chapter Nine	Findings & Discussion: The Language Dimension
Chapter Ten	Findings & Discussion: The Temporal Dimension
Chapter Eleven	Findings & Discussion: The Spatial Dimension
Chapter Twelve	Conclusion and Contributions

3.1: Introduction

My research is qualitative, inductive and interpretivist taking a social constructionist approach. This chapter proceeds by discussing the methodology I employed to undertake this research, explaining why it was selected as the most appropriate to meet my research objectives.

The chapter begins with a discussion of the ontological and epistemological assumptions that provide the philosophical underpinnings regarding the nature of reality and knowledge upon which this research is based. "Disinterest in such philosophical matters is not an option. The question is not whether ontology but which?" (Marsden, 1993, p. 94). I then discuss research paradigms, justifying the interpretivist paradigm within which this research sits. The chapter then progresses through a consideration of the social constructionist approach taken and the qualitative, inductive methodology followed. My axiology and positionality are discussed together with my reflexive thinking which provides the history of the thesis, including the twists and turns of my research journey to reach this point. I then discuss its ethical approval and the method employed, explaining my interview strategy, how participants were recruited and my selection of semi-structured interviews. I discuss the location and duration of the interviews and

how the material was captured, concluding the chapter with details of how the material was analysed to deliver rigour to the research and meets standards of evaluation.

3.2: Ontology and Epistemology: The Philosophical Underpinnings

As I consider the ontological and epistemological foundations of this research, it is important to define these key terms before proceeding to justify its subjectivist underpinnings and the social constructionist approach I take.

Ontology considers "the nature of knowledge [...] the view of how one perceives a reality" (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 69). Effectively it asks the question, is there a world out there independent of people's consciousness? Burrell and Morgan (1979) identify the nature of ontology for social scientists as questions related to if the reality being investigated is internal or external to the individual. Does it possess an objective nature or is it created by individual cognition; is reality external to us, or the creation of our minds? The answer to these questions depends upon whether the researcher selects a realist or subjectivist view of ontology. The realist view holds that social and natural reality exists prior to human cognition and is independent of it, whereas the subjectivist view is that reality is created by people's cognitive processes (Johnson & Duberley, 2003). Tadjewski (2006, p. 430) argues that "proponents of the subjective world (i.e. interpretive) paradigm view the social world as having a precarious ontological status." This research is undertaken from this subjectivist perspective.

Epistemology is linked to ontology and focusses upon "what can be known and how" (Cameron & Price, 2009, p. 53). Epistemology relates to the assumptions about the foundations of knowledge, about how people understand the world and share this with others as knowledge, and a key epistemological issue is to decide how one determines what is true and false (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). An objectivist epistemology links to a realist ontology by necessity, however a subjectivist epistemology may relate to either a subjectivist or realist ontology (Johnson & Duberley, 2003). Tadjewski (2006), however, argues that by questioning the ontological nature of social reality, interpretive research focuses upon the de-emphasis of an external concrete social world. This de-emphasis is associated with the underlying assumptions that any real world that might exist

beyond our knowledge is unknowable, and therefore the meaning that people make should be the focus rather than what is, and thereby ontology is collapsed into epistemology (Nicholson, Brennan & Midgley, 2014).

My research takes a social constructionist approach. Haslanger, (1995, p. 97) argues "the notion of "social construction" is applied to a wide variety of items and seemingly with rather different senses." This apparent confusion is also identified by Hay (2016, p. 521): "Constructivism is difficult to specify precisely because, in the end, it does mean different things to different people – and, to compound the problem, the content of such meanings has itself changed over time." As there are multiple views relating to the nature of reality (Haslanger, 1995) and therefore ontology and, as Nicholson, et al. (2014) highlight in interpretivist research ontology can be collapsed into epistemology, it is important to be specific about the underpinnings of this research. Within the social constructionist approach research can take either a subjectivist epistemology, with either an ontological objectivist/realist position whereby reality is external and independent of people and how they interpret it, or a subjectivist/nominalist position whereby reality is dependent on social actors and assumes that individuals contribute to social phenomena (Wahyuni, 2012). Therefore to be explicit, this research has a *subjectivist ontology and epistemology* and this chapter proceeds by providing the justification of its research paradigm and social constructionist approach.

3.2.1: Research Paradigms: Functionalism versus Interpretivism

The research paradigm is the logical assumptions providing research with its philosophical underpinnings. It determines the intent, motivation and expectations of the research, forming the basis for the selection of the methodology, methods and research design (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

The functionalist paradigm is one of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) four research paradigms the other three being interpretive, radical humanist and radical structuralist. Management and organisational literature is dominated by writings and research in the functionalist tradition (Fisher, 2010; Hughes, 2010; Marsden, 1993; Nodoushani, 2000). It is grounded in regulation, undertaking research from a realist, determinist and nomothetic position, underpinned by the assumption

that there is a real, independent world out there which delivers positive outcomes if certain steps are taken and produces negative ones if they are not followed (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Within this functionalist paradigm sits positivism whereby the world is viewed as deterministic, managed by cause and effect. Deductive reasoning is employed to generate theories that can be tested, and a belief in empiricism is held that puts observation and measurement at its heart (Trochim, 2006). Burrell and Morgan (1979) define positivism in a similar manner, proposing that the term characterises epistemologies that search for regularities and causal relationships in the social world to explain and predict what occurs within it.

The change management literature is dominated by this functionalist, positivist cause and effect approach: "Classic thinking about strategic change assumes that planning processes rely on the ability to join-up causes and effects, [...] the assumption that certain actions will lead to certain outcomes" (Senior & Swales, 2010, p. 51). This functionalist paradigm dominated management and organisational studies until the 1980s when it began to be challenged (Nodoushani, 2000; Marsden, 1993) as researchers viewed research through different paradigms and the functionalist perspective's ontological and epistemological arguments were increasingly contested (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Indeed, as Morgan and Smircich (1980, p. 498) posit:

Once one relaxes the ontological assumption that the world is a concrete structure, and admits that human beings, far from merely responding to the social world, may actively contribute to its creation, the dominant methods become increasingly unsatisfactory, and indeed, inappropriate.

From an interpretivist's perspective, it is impossible to provide an objective observation of the social world and as such, it cannot be understood by applying research principles taken from the natural sciences (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

Having accepted these challenges to the functionalist paradigm for social research, I situate my research within the interpretivist paradigm. This paradigm seeks to comprehend the social world's nature from the level of subjective experience, considering the social world as emergent and created by the people involved (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). In this paradigm social reality is created by an

intersubjective experience and lacks an external, concrete form (Hassard, 1992). The interpretative approach is based on the assumption that people's interpretations of information and events influences their understanding and actions, therefore actions depend upon the meanings assigned to the events (Gioia & Chittipedi, 1991): "For interpretive researchers, social reality is seen to be intersubjectively composed, so that epistemologically, knowledge is not approached from the standpoint of an external, objective position, but from the lived experience of the research co-participant" (Tadajewski, 2006, p. 430).

This research is interpretivist because human beings interpret events to create their understanding, and I am interpreting how other people make sense of the world (Smith & Osborn, 2007, p. 53) to develop understanding. "Researchers are not objective but part of what they observe. They bring their own interests and values to the research" (Collins & Hussey, 2009, p. 56). This interpretative approach is appropriate as I am seeking to explore people's experiences of resistance to change in organisations to gain an understanding of how it might link to constructive discontent (Dann, 2008; Dmytriyev et al., 2016; Lowitt, 2013; Suchy, 2004) and to interpret the dimensions of resistance that emerge from their stories.

Interpretivism is often linked to Weber's work which proposes that the social sciences are frequently linked to 'verstehen' or understanding, rather than to 'erklären' or explaining which seeks causal links and is the basis of the natural sciences (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight; 2010; Gill & Johnson, 2010). Verstehen is "the interpretative understanding of the meaning a set of actions has to an actor through some form of contact with how they experience their experience" (Johnson & Duberley, 2000, p. 34). This research is interpretivist as I seek to gain understanding by exploring my participants' stories in depth. I am interpreting their interpretations of their experiences of the social reality of resistance to change.

3.2.2: The Social Constructionist Approach of This Research

This research sits within the research paradigm of interpretivism (constructionism) as I believe that social reality is created by people through their perceptions and that as people may hold different perspectives which are subject

to change, so there may be a number of different realities (Wahyuni, 2012) which are themselves subject to change. This research therefore has an underpinning subjectivist ontology and epistemology because "reality is socially constructed" (Berger & Luckmann, 1966, p.13), comprising "multiple realities" (Berger & Luckmann, 1966, p. 35) and "observable events, may be interpreted in very different ways" (Oliver, 2010, p. 61). However, an important distinction should be made regarding whether all reality, or just social reality, is considered to be socially constructed. Crotty (1998) makes this distinction clear arguing that some understand social constructionism to mean that only social realities have a social origin; natural and physical realities do not. Social constructionism therefore relates only to the construction of social reality, it does not mean that all reality is socially constructed (Crotty, 1998). Searle (1995, p. 9) also asserts that when specifying features of the world "there is a distinction between those features that we might call intrinsic to nature and those features that exist relative to the intentionality of observers, users, etc."

Therefore to be transparent about this research, *I am constructionist in terms of the creation of social reality* but not regarding the natural world. This research is constructionist in that it focuses upon social realities, accepting that knowledge is constructed in interactions between people and their world, and is created and shared in an essentially social context (Crotty, 1998). Indeed, my philosophical understanding of the social world, and its "multiple realities" (Berger & Luckmann, 1966, p.35; Grant & Marshak, 2011), that underpin this research is encapsulated in the argument that no objective truth awaits discovery (Crotty, 1998). Instead, truth or meaning is constructed in our engagement with others and the world, and different people may create meaning in different ways even when considering the same phenomenon (Crotty, 1998).

Some scholars may undertake social constructionist research from a subjectivist epistemology and a realist ontology (Wahyuni, 2012), but as I hold Crotty's (1998) argument regarding the subjective nature of social reality, this research holds a subjectivist ontological position. This belief is underpinned by Searle's (1995, p. 11) argument that "Observer-relative features exist only relative to the attitudes of observers". Resistance to change exists within our social world as an observer-relative feature of the world and is therefore subjective. It exists as a

multidimensional phenomenon (Piderit 2000; Oreg, 2003) given meaning by the interpretations assigned to it by those involved, and these are subject to change (Wahyuni, 2012).

This subjectivist, constructionist ontological and epistemological underpinning is appropriate for this type of qualitative, inductive, interpretative research, because as McLachlan and Garcia (2015, p. 204) argue:

Certainly qualitative interviews are conducive to the social constructionist perspective in that (ontologically) people's knowledge, views, understandings, interpretations, experiences and interactions are meaningful properties of social reality. There is a clear and coherent link here with epistemology in that a legitimate means of generating meaningful data on these ontological properties is to talk interactively with people and hear their accounts.

They came to this conclusion having sought to undertake qualitative, reflexive research, from an objectivist ontological position and discovered that respondents "were seemingly constructing their realities through our interaction. This appeared to us as incompatible with the philosophical separation purported by critical realism" (2015, p. 203). This supports Berger and Luckmann's (1966, p.173) argument that "At the same time that the conversational apparatus ongoingly maintains reality, it ongoingly modifies it." My research therefore avoids the ontological and epistemological challenges McLachlan and Garcia (2015) encountered by taking a subjectivist, constructionist ontological approach from the outset.

Based on Burrell & Smircich's (1980, p. 492) characterisation of the Subjective-Objective debate this research generally fits under their description of "social construction" in terms of its links to understanding and interpretation. This somewhat simplistic explanation of the subjective/objective debate is helpful as it supports the researcher in visualising where their work might fit on the subjectivist/objectivist continuum. It offers a means of considering the assumptions that underpin research within the social sciences and the issues of epistemological and methodological adequacy (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). However, the subject-object distinction upon which it was based is challenged (Cunliffe, 2010) and the continuum replaced with "three knowledge problematics-intersubjectivism, subjectivism, and objectivism" (Cunliffe, 2010, p. 7). My

research is most generally linked to Cunliffe's (2010) subjectivist descriptions whereby the researcher is embedded in the world and is shaped by and shapes experiences and accounts, interpreting the meanings of participants. As the researcher I impacted upon the construction of the meaning of what was discussed and *I write in the first person to recognise the subjectivist, personal nature of this research and to acknowledge that as interpretivist research it is I, the researcher, who is interpreting the material.* I impacted on meanings and understandings through the questions I asked, and I then interpreted the participants' stories whilst trying to present the individual's understanding of their experiences as accurately as possible. This research therefore embraces the relationship between the researcher and the research participant, understanding that they impact upon each other and that the data emerges from their relationship and is co-created through their dialogical interactions (Finlay, 2009 p. 13). I thus support the argument that "because knowledge is socially constructed, there is no objective (and so no independent) reality" (Haslanger, 1995, p. 97).

This subjectivist approach is supported by a body of literature. When researching transformational change and issues related to conflict, a subjectivist approach is recommended as it "becomes very awkward to handle using any immutable objectivist framework. What is "out there" becomes very much related to interpretations made "in here" (internal to both the organization members under study and the researchers conducting the study)" (Gioia & Pitre, 1990, p. 586-587). An important consideration to address is whether social reality is constructed individually or socially (Haslanger, 1995). Fox et al. (2007, p. 16) propose that "No knowledge is completely individually constructed. Usually there is some shared meaning between people and therefore in this way it is socially constructed." Without this we would find it virtually impossible to communicate with each other as we would be living in our own different worlds (Denscombe, 2007). Conversely, "there are always elements of subjective reality that have not originated in socialization" (Berger & Luckmann, 1966, p.154). Therefore, underpinning this research is the philosophical position that as individuals *we both construct our own social realities and we also co-create meanings with others* leading to the creation of multiple realities discussed earlier. There is thus

interplay as we individually create our own understandings which are also created by, or adapted through, our interaction with others.

There is thus support in the literature for the subjectivist ontological and epistemological approach taken to underpin this qualitative, interpretivist research.

3.2.3: The Qualitative, Inductive Approach

I chose to undertake qualitative research because it can be employed when the researcher "cannot anticipate which constructs should be measured in a closed-ended, quantitative manner" (Martin & Roundy, 2012, p.278), and when exploring people's subjective interpretations of their experiences of resistance to change, I was unable to predict what might emerge from the material. The rationale supporting the use of qualitative research "To capture individuals' lived experiences and interpretations" (Graebner et al., 2012, p. 278) underpins this research. Qualitative research can either build entirely new theory, or complement and extend previous theoretical work (Graebner et al, 2012, p. 279). Through this research I develop new concepts by building on earlier theoretical work and propose the reconceptualization of phenomena associated with resistance to change.

The methodology I followed is Thomas' (2006) General Inductive Approach with applications of Gioia et al.'s (2013) inductive model which is designed to bring rigour to qualitative, interpretative research: "Overall, our approach mainly allows any reader—whether qualitatively or quantitatively inclined — to more easily discern how we progressed from raw data to emergent theory in a fashion that is credible and defensible" (Gioia et al., 2013, p. 25). A key element of both is the linking of concepts that emerge to theory. Thomas' (2006) inductive methodology clarifies the data reduction process through procedures to create meaning in complex material by developing summary themes or categories. Three purposes underpin the approach and this research closely follows them:

1. to condense extensive and varied raw text data into a brief, summary format;

2. to establish clear links between the research objectives and the summary findings derived from the raw data and to ensure that these links are both transparent (able to be demonstrated to others) and defensible (justifiable given the objectives of the research);
3. to develop a model or theory (Thomas, 2006, p. 238).

I describe in detail how I meet points 1 and 2 in the method and data analysis sections (3.3; 3.4) of this chapter. Regarding point 3, this research is interested in *concept development*. Based on the themes that emerge from the participants' stories I develop a conceptual framework of the multidimensionality of resistance to change (The Octagon of Resistance; Figure 1), and of Constructive Discontent (Figure 18) which constitutes the first dimension the Octagon and act as lenses through which practitioners can view dimensions of resistance to change.

3.2.4: Approach to Theorizing: Axiology, Reflexivity and Positionality

This research is interpretivist and as such takes the axiological position of the emic, or insider perspective, whereby a phenomenon is researched from the perspective of the participants and the material which is collected and its analysis is significantly impacted upon by the experiences and values of the research participants and the researcher (Wahyuni, 2012). Through the process of reflexivity I have sought to understand how my values and research choices have impacted upon this research.

There are different views in the literature regarding the nature of reflexivity. Indeed "the word is used in so many different senses that it often sustains confusion rather than clarifying any underlying issues" (Holland, 1999, p. 463). Reflexivity involves the researcher reflecting upon how their role in the research and personal background might potentially influence their interpretations and shape its direction, and the impact of their presence and personality (Creswell, 2014; Fox, Martin & Green, 2007; Holland, 1999). Reflexivity also involves "thinking about how our thinking came to be, how a pre-existing understanding is constantly revised in the light of new understandings and how this in turn affects our research" (Haynes, 2012, p. 73). To avoid confusion (Holland, 1999) and to be transparent, for the purposes of this research I employ reflexivity which involves thinking about my thinking and how that impacts upon the research. I

consider what influenced my thinking and how my choices influence and affect the research, as we all have inescapable prejudices and the researcher should attempt to gain an insight into them and discuss them whenever it seems necessary in relation to their research (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Such reflexive practice links to axiology which "is concerned with the role that your own perception plays in the research" (Wilson, 2010, p. 12), and in interpretivist research such as this, values are part of the research process (Wilson, 2010). Indeed, "Valuational preferences are not artefacts we can dispense with" (Hart, 1971, p. 29)

McLachlan and Garcia (2015), however, highlight the important point that when undertaking reflexive research the philosophical positioning of the researcher can change. Indeed McDonald (2013, p. 141) contends that "because identities are fluid and constantly evolving, there is no way to know a priori how particular aspects of our identities will make a difference in the field." Reflexive thinking therefore leads the researcher to understand both how they impact upon the research, and how it can also impact upon the researcher leading them to adapt or change their positionality. There was thus the possibility that as a result of ongoing reflexive thinking I may experience changes towards my research approach as it progressed.

In the Introduction Chapter (section 1.1) I refer to my "positionality" (Thomas, 2013, p. 144) and "prejudices" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 242) which I consider 'my baggage' which influenced my area of research and my approach to it. I am aware that my personal experiences of resistance to change left me feeling that those who resist can be unfairly negatively perceived. Regarding my axiomatic position, or values, I feel a strong sense of injustice regarding the negative conceptualisation and pejorative labels, such as "the old guard," attached to those that resisted, and became interested in exploring how resistance might be a positive phenomenon within organisations. As a result I took care to ensure that my research is "fair and balanced" (Thomas, 2013, p. 110) by specifically asking questions to elicit stories about how it might also be harmful to the organisation. It is important that the researcher is aware of their own bias so that the text can "assert its own truth" (Finlay, 2009, p. 12) and I thereby seek to meet this requirement.

I have also reflected upon how my research journey has impacted upon this research. A managerial role, which left me struggling to find time to focus upon research, and a serious illness, left me very aware of time constraints. I became focused upon making progress with this research and having identified a 3 week window when my role would be relatively quiet, I arranged the majority of my interviews during this period, sometimes conducting two interviews per day (with just a couple held a few weeks later when they needed to be rearranged.) This impacted on my research methodology, because I had anticipated analysing one interview and then moving on to the next over time with the interviews possibly being spread out over several months. In the event I did little formal analysis between interviews but a considerable amount of thinking. This method was successful because it meant that what was emerging was very fresh in my mind as I went between interviews and I adapted questions and areas for exploration accordingly. It was an intensive period of fieldwork which led to me feeling fully immersed in the world of my participants and meets Creswell's (2014, p. 187) description of qualitative research whereby "the inquirer is typically involved in a sustained and intensive experience with participants".

Typical of qualitative research, my research focus shifted (Silverman, 2013) as interesting themes started to emerge from the material. I went into the field to explore people's experiences of resistance to change and how they might be a positive phenomenon linked to constructive discontent. These two facets of resistance as a good or bad thing were my intended focus. However, early in the research, other themes began to emerge. It soon became apparent that the dimensions of resistance to change were more numerous than the simple dualism of good versus bad, and challenged assumptions within the literature. The focus of this research therefore grew to both incorporate the emerging multidimensional nature of resistance to change, and to problematizing (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2007) the literature underpinning it.

My own assumptions about the nature of reality were also substantially challenged throughout my research journey. Initially I felt an affinity with critical theory and its realist ontology, subjectivist epistemology and links to emancipation (Antonio, 1981) which resonated with my sense of injustice

regarding how resistors were treated. However, shortly before my assessed doctoral presentation I was advised to take a neo-positivist approach but, despite passing the examination, this approach did not sit comfortably with me. I struggled to comprehend how I could be objective about another person's subjective interpretations of their experiences and was signposted first towards social constructionism and subsequently to phenomenology. Having being guided along differing philosophical and methodological paths I felt at a crossroads. I therefore reflected deeply to personally choose a route that kept my research authentic to *my* personal belief, that social reality has both a subjectivist epistemology and ontology and is socially constructed. Therefore, like McLachlan and Garcia (2015) before me, where social research is concerned, my ontological position has shifted over the course of my studies, from that of a realist to that of a subjectivist. Reflexive thinking has thus had a profound effect upon me, shaking me from my earlier understanding of the nature of social reality.

3.2.5: Ethical Considerations

A key aspect of research ethics is that it does no harm to the participants (Sveningsson, 2004) yet I was aware that my research may cause some participants to feel distressed in recalling instances of resistance to change, particularly if they feel they and/or others were not treated appropriately. I therefore submitted my research proposal to the Faculty's Ethics Committee for approval which it subsequently gained, subject to not discussing the NHS (if people involved in a change were still employed there) or discussing change within the Business School. I was sensitive to the feelings of participants and would have ended an interview if it appeared to be causing distress, and signposting them to the university's counselling service. In the event, there were no problems.

Regarding confidentiality and anonymity, "A cornerstone of research ethics is that the respondents should be offered the opportunity to have their identity hidden in a research report" (Oliver, 2003, p. 77). Applying these principles to my research, to maintain participants' anonymity it was agreed that they would be numbered and so are referred to as P1 (Participant 1) etc. In addition when participants refer to themselves or others the gender references have been made

neutral, employing they/their instead of he/she and his/her. Whilst voluntary informed consent is central to research ethics (McNamee, 2002), Kvale (2007, p. 27) argues that informed consent can be problematic, questioning how it can be handled "in exploratory interview studies where the investigators themselves will have little advance knowledge of how the interviews will proceed." To meet this challenge I made it clear to participants that they "should feel free to withdraw at any time" (Oliver, 2003, p. 47).

This research thus seeks to do no harm, maintain participants' anonymity, support their informed consent and has ethical approval.

3.3: Research Method

Within this section I discuss the sampling and data collection methods that were employed within this research, explaining how the data was analysed and how its quality might be evaluated.

3.3.1: Sampling

I recruited participants who work at a Business School, a faculty of a British university, via an email attached to which was an Information Sheet (Appendices 4 and 5) inviting volunteers. I gained permission to do this from the Chair of the Business School's Ethics Committee. This is a "purposive" (Salmons, 2016, p. 104) approach to sampling intended to recruit participants with relevant experiences (Thomas, 2013). It resulted in a self-selecting sample in keeping with Smith and Osborn's (2007) guidance regarding the need to be pragmatic when doing research as the sample will be partly determined by who is willing to participate. I chose this route because of ease of access to participants (Flick, 2014; Symon & Cassell, 2012; Thomas, 2013) with experience of working in the private, public and voluntary sectors; experiences which might bring variety and richness to the stories shared. The recruitment email specified that participants should have experience of resistance to change, either through resisting a change themselves or through being involved in leading a change that was resisted. They were therefore a homogenous group "who can offer a meaningful perspective of the phenomenon of interest and who share a certain lived experience" (Gill, 2014, p. 11). In Figure 11, to provide context, I provide details of the participants and the main story of change / resistance that they discussed.

Background Information of the Participants and Change

PARTICIPANT	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
P1	Participant 1 was involved in leading part of the implementation of a data quality improvement change across multiple sites of a government-owned business. They encountered resistance in a top-down change from managers who did not like the introduction of Key Performance Indicators which measured their success. They found shop-floor workers generally wanted improvements.
P2	Participant 2 worked in a management role within H.R. for a private sector organisation that went into receivership. The change involved the Receiver deciding to make a significant number of staff redundant and P2 being required to inform large numbers of staff of this. Having done so they were themselves subsequently made redundant. P2 describes the shock and personal trauma linked to the change and how it was managed. They also describe the long term impact this had upon them; in future employment they did not wish to engage in resistance as they suspect that having challenged the Receiver they were selected for redundancy.
P3	Participant 3 worked for an organisation that had two sides: one advising Government and the other profit-making. The participant was headhunted into the business to become Managing Director to develop the profit-making arm of the organisation and professionalise the business. Resistance came from the two owners of the business who had recruited P3 to make the changes and it manifested through lack of engaging with the change and avoidance tactics. Ultimately the change failed and the participant left the business. P3 provides a story of top management killing the change they initiated.

<p>P4</p>	<p>Participant 4 worked in a middle-management role in the private sector within the fast-moving consumer goods industry. The change described is of the organisation being purchased by another company, following which redundancies were made as the UK organisation that P4 worked in was closed. A bonus was offered to some staff to stay on to facilitate the transition and resistance occurred regarding how this transition process was managed as the bonus was linked to staying right until the end and no end date was forthcoming.</p> <p><i>They were resisting because of the uncertainty; towards the end there was a lot of frustration [...] they paid us an amount of money to stay there till the end, that's how they got us to stay for the year and four months as opposed to everybody just leaving, but the problem was that we had to be there on the end date that they chose and when it got to the final three months or so and we hadn't been given a date it became very difficult because people were in the situation we'd like to look for new jobs and we can't because we don't know exactly when that will be. It could be in 60 days from now or it could be in four months from now, we're not getting any information.</i></p>
<p>P5</p>	<p>Participant 5 worked for a publishing company in a management position and was asked to project-manage the designing and introduction of a new stock control system. This top-down change encountered resistance from the board level Finance Director who was heading up the change who kept seeking exceptions linked to maintaining the status quo, and other managers. The Personnel Director understood the need for change but was concerned by the way it was being introduced causing stress for staff. <i>“And interestingly enough, our Board of Directors was very conservative and resistant to change. It really was a change brought about by the necessity of being left in this mess of a half-baked stock control system.”</i></p>

	<p>The change was led by the Finance Director who, the participant suggests, caused chaos through making regular changes to the change and not understanding why the amendments they sought were not practical.</p>
P6	<p>Participant 6 was a manager who was involved in leading a top-down change in a public sector organisation which met with resistance to changes to employee's contracts and resistance when they halted and replaced an unprofitable activity. They reflect upon how they would lead change and manage resistance differently now.</p>
P7	<p>Participant 7 had worked their way up from clerical roles to their first management role. They describe a top-down change in an organisation that had been nationalised but had been recently privatised when they joined it. The Managing Director employed external consultants to lead on the introduction of structural changes and how teams worked; this involved training staff. P7 believed this new way of doing things was aimed at the manufacturing industry rather than the service industry they worked in, and questioned the need for change as the business was profitable. Resistance from staff was subtle and generally covert. P7's story describes their understanding that key resistance came from the Chairperson, who had become aware of the discontent within the organisation. They suggest that the Chairperson hired one of the old Managing Directors to come out of retirement and "<i>do some sniffing around</i>" and report back. The new Managing Director subsequently lost their job. The retired Managing Director was given the post of interim Managing Director whilst the Chairperson recruited a replacement, and the change was halted.</p>
P8	<p>Participant 8 worked as part of a team as a consultant and for the change they discuss was brought in to implement a</p>

	<p>change decision. They describe being retained as a consultant by a private sector organisation within the chemical processing industry to facilitate voluntary redundancy as part of a top-down change to reduce costs by 25% which would mostly come through a reduction in headcount. They describe the resistance they encountered to the redundancy deal on offer due to the belief that a better offer would be made if employees waited.</p>
P9	<p>Participant 9 was on the board and a trustee of a voluntary sector organisation. The change occurred when the local Council refused to continue funding multiple voluntary organisations and required them to unite and work together. There was a precedent of this happening elsewhere. Resistance came from multiple stakeholders including the manager of the organisation P9 worked with and from other organisations who did not wish to lose their independence by becoming part of a larger organisation.</p>
P10	<p>Participant 10 worked as a middle-manager for a large, international private sector business with offices around the world. P10 was based at their Head Office in England. Business results had not been particularly good and the Chief Executive Officer was replaced. The new CEO quickly set about making top-down changes to improve business performance. P10 describes how staff were advised that there would be both internal promotions and external recruitment and that they became aware that a secret list of 100 people in the company had been compiled that who were highlighted for promotion and that they were on this list. Appraisals were changed to include people's aspirations, and staff were given one hour per week to work on their professional development. In addition leadership programmes were developed for senior leaders, emerging leaders and operational leaders; P10 attended the latter. Initially P10 was supportive of the changes as</p>

	<p>they appeared to offer an opportunity to develop within the organisation and describes the first training session they attended being much appreciated by all the participants. The focus was on improving the business and during it criticisms emerged of senior management. Subsequently, the training programme was cancelled before the second session, with poor sales given as the reason. This caused resistance amongst the participants. A culture shift was also noted: <i>“From that, I could see the culture shift there from the senior management and instead of the encouragement, it’s more telling you, “This is what needs to be done now.”</i></p> <p>In addition, redundancies were introduced. P10 tells of staff effectively applying for their own jobs and the use of assessment centres and observing that those who had been resistant were made redundant, observing that the business thereby lost some good members of staff.</p>
P11	<p>Participant 11 worked in the public sector at a time when certain sections were being outsourced and turned into agencies. P11 had a leadership role within this change: <i>“I was asked to take forward initial discussions in a particular region and area before developing an agency to take on some of the department’s work in that area”.</i></p> <p>P11’s role was to promote the agency concept to people who might join the board. The participant describes not feeling comfortable with the change they were leading, being resistant to it and meeting resistance from members of staff who treated them with distrust due to the role they had taken on. P11 subsequently resigned, accepting employment in the private sector at the point the new agency came into being.</p>
P12	Participant 12 describes resistance to a top-down change

	<p>that occurred in a small to medium sized business that was part of a larger group and operated in the light engineering sector. The participant worked as a consultant for an organisation that provided grants for staff development. To gain the grant senior management had to undergo leadership training and a 360 degree appraisal. Resistance came from the top of the organisation, from the General Director, who sought the funding for training but then resisted engaging with the appraisal system that was part of the requirement to secure the funding. This senior manager was thereby resisting elements of the change he had initiated.</p>
<p>P13</p>	<p>Participant 13 worked as a senior manager in a public sector organisation. They were charged with making changes to save money and the change they led was to rearrange people's desks, to free up space, so that they could save on rental costs:</p> <p><i>we needed to save £50,000 per annum, year-on-year. The simplest way was to look at [...] the minimum requirements for health and safety for personal space within the office environment and then look at what we're actually utilising. I could see that there was a saving of over £60-70,000 at that point in time. So £50,000 was easy doable but I was working with a workforce that had worked in their desks [...] for a long time and that's what they were used to. And getting through to them that actually we're doing this as a collective change so we can actually save money so we can actually save jobs was difficult.</i></p> <p>Although initial resistance came from the workforce the participant engaged them to design the change which resulted in what they believe to be a better change than the change idea they had come up with. The final resistance they encountered came from their line-manager who objected to the solution they had devised with staff to meet the change objectives. They describe overcoming this final</p>

	hurdle by "standing up" to them.
P14	<p>Participant 14 was the Chief Executive Officer of a division of within a Plc group that operated in the consumer durables business. The business had several sites in England and in two countries overseas. P14 describes top-down changes brought in following the arrival of a new Chairperson and new Group CEO aimed at increasing the share value and the share price that met resistance.</p> <p>P14 also describes resistance to changes they proposed which they found valuable, and why they personally failed to resist a proposed change, that had been tried and failed in the past, and which resulted in sales losses.</p> <p>P10 also relates how they successfully resisted a change by setting it up for failure. They effectively sabotaged the change, which resulted in continued profits for the organisation.</p>
P15	<p>Participant 15 worked in senior management running a group of companies. They describe a top-down change related to a division of the group that produced food ingredients. The change followed the acquisition of another company and the impact of bringing it into the group upon the existing business, which was subsequently split into two to incorporate the new business.</p> <p>P15 draws on a range of experiences and describes an instance of managing top level resistance by moving on a Managing Director who was resistant to change.</p>

Figure 11

Thinking reflexively about my choice of participants, led to an understanding of how it impacted the research. A number of the participants had studied change and referred to theory to make sense of their experiences and to explain them to

me. If I had interviewed non-academics they might have answered in a similar way if they had also studied change, but I suspect that it occurred more frequently than might usually happen because of the nature of the participants who, as academics, are accustomed to referring to theory. I believe my choice impacted as participants' stories were rich and varied, with several making interesting references to theory.

Regarding sample size for non-probability research, there are "no hard and fast rules" (Saunders, 2013, p. 44). I established the size of my sample inductively "namely continuing to collect data until there is data saturation, the point at which no new information or themes are observed in the data" (Saunders, 2013, p. 44). I reached this point after 15 interviews. Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) argue that for most research twelve interviews are sufficient, whilst Saunders and Townsend (2016, p. 836) suggest that there is "an organisation and workplace research norm of 15-60 participants." My research therefore has an appropriate sample size as it was determined through data saturation and meets recommendations proposed in the literature.

3.3.2: Strategy for Conducting Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were employed to collect material and are an appropriate data collection method for this qualitative research as they allow subsidiary questions to be asked, which vary according to the individual. The advantage of in-depth interviews is that they provide a more accurate and clearer picture of participants' positions or behaviours, because open-ended questions are asked which do not limit responses to a few alternatives (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Semi-structured interviews also provide a flexible method of collecting data permitting the researcher to analyse in detail how participants perceive and understand events (Smith & Osborn, 2007). This flexibility enables the researcher to adapt questions based on the replies of the participants and delve into emergent areas that appear interesting and important (Smith, 2011). As a method it is also highly suitable for exploratory, inductive research as it is well matched to their purposes (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010) and is therefore appropriate for this research.

As I employed semi-structured interviews I prepared in advance topics I wished to discuss, which is good practice as it requires the researcher to think in advance about what they consider or hope the interview might cover (Smith & Osborn, 2007). Smith, Flowers and Larkin (2009) suggest that for the articulate participant between six and ten open questions plus prompts will usually lead to an interview lasting between 45 and 90 minutes. I ultimately had about 16 questions (Appendix 6) which developed as the fieldwork progressed. Therefore, not every participant was asked every question and they were asked the questions in different ways, varying according to the individual stories I was being told. The interviews were therefore "guided by the schedule rather than be dictated by it" (Smith & Osborn, 2007, p. 58) allowing me to be flexible, exploring ideas as they emerged.

Between interviews I reflected upon the themes that emerged and adapted questions iteratively as the interviews progressed as "alert researchers are always prepared to change their focus as they learn new things from others and from their own data [...] in qualitative research studies, research topics are always emergent" (Silverman, 2013, p. 99). This is thus a flexible, iterative approach to interviewing whereby the researcher adapts to new circumstances, modifying subjects and questions as they proceed (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). I sought the freedom provided by this flexibility to explore whatever emerges of interest in the material, because unexpected themes can emerge that are surprising and of conceptual interest (Creswell, 2014), which fits with Gioia et al's (2013, p. 20) methodology whereby "the interview questions must change with the progression of the research. We follow wherever the informants lead us in the investigation of our guiding research question."

This method permits participants to influence the course of the interview, providing them with a good opportunity to share their own stories (Smith & Osborn, 2007). This is consistent with Gioia et al.'s (2013) methodology which I followed whereby attention is paid to the initial interview protocol to ensure that it focuses on the research questions, is thorough and avoids leading questions. The protocol is revised as the research progresses even to the point of modifying the initial research if necessary. My research was modified in line with Gioia et al.'s (2013) methodology as I explored emerging themes and subsequently

widened the focus to incorporate the multidimensionality of resistance and problematization which emerged from my material.

Smith and Osborn (2007, p. 58) argue that the semi-structured interview has several advantages. These include facilitating "rapport/empathy" which was important to helping the participant feel comfortable discussing various topics with me. It permits "a greater flexibility of coverage and allows the interview to go into novel areas" which is important as the purpose of my research is to undertake inductively an exploration of resistance to change in order to allow ideas to emerge. It "tends to produce richer data" (Smith & Osborn, 2007, p. 58) which is what I seek to make this research as interesting and insightful as possible. They also highlight the disadvantages of the method which "reduces the control the investigator has over the situation, takes longer to carry out, and is harder to analyse" (2007, p. 58). I was not seeking "control" as I was after participants' own stories and the interview schedule I had created was sufficient to keep the interview on track. The latter two disadvantages suggest that they entail more and harder work; a small price to pay for the rich material I believe that I have gained through employing this method.

This method also supports Gioia et al.'s, (2013, p. 20) methodology which I followed whereby:

Adhering to some misguided sense that the protocol must be standardized so that there is consistency over the course of the project is one of the reasons why traditional research sometimes is not very good at uncovering new concepts to develop.

Their methodology seeks not to impose upon the participants an a priori construct or theory to explain their experiences. Instead it permits their voices to come through when gathering the data and analysing it, and to feature prominently when reporting the research. This provides the opportunity to discover new concepts rather than affirming existing ones (Gioia et al., 2013) which occurred in this research as multiple dimensions of resistance emerged in addition to the good and bad dualism I set out to explore. When considering this guidance, however, I was initially concerned by its requirement that prior theory is not imposed upon the participants, as I have written two assessed literature

reviews as part of my doctoral studies. However Gioia et al. (2013, p. 20) understand this challenge:

we are never completely uninformed about prior work, either, so one might also term this stance as “willing suspension of belief” or witting (as opposed to unwitting) ignorance of previous theorizing in the domain of interest. Some combination of knowing and not knowing [...] allows for discovery without reinventing the well-ridden wheels.

My research topic emerged from reading the literature and so to address this aspect of their methodology I generated the interview questions, and thereafter followed the guidance to suspend belief. This permitted themes to naturally emerge and questions were amended as interesting areas arose so that they could be pursued.

3.3.3: Theorizing Approach

The literature was a constant companion throughout my research. Figure 12 captures how I worked with the literature, detailing at which point I engaged with it, either pre-fieldwork or during fieldwork and analysis. Phase 1 shows the literature I was aware of prior to undertaking my fieldwork. Phase 2 indicates where I researched further into the literature as themes emerged from my analysis, either to build on my understanding of the Phase 1 literature or to engage with a new body of literature related to themes emerging from my material. Phase 3 details how this research contributes to the literature.

Working with the Literature

Phase 1: Pre-Empirical	Phase 2: Fieldwork and Analysing Data	Phase 3: Contributions of this Research
How people resist change	Sabotage of change as a constructive phenomenon. No literature found.	No literature: revelatory contribution
Why people resist change		Supports the literature: incremental contribution
Middle-management and employee resistance.	No literature found on resistance by top-management; those who initiate change	No literature: revelatory contribution
	Change agent: leading change they do not believe in. Little academic literature; some in professional journals and blogs.	Contribution to building a neglected area of academic literature
Prescriptions for managing change		Incremental: support literature
Dann's (2008)	Concept also found in the	Contribution linking

conceptualisation of constructive discontent as a challenge to leaders.	leadership literature. Little academic literature on this topic; some reference to it in professional literature.	resistance to change to constructive discontent. Revelatory: builds bridge between three bodies of literature: change, E.I. and leadership.
Change as harmful (to be overcome) versus beneficial to be engaged with. Traditional and critical perspectives.	Discovered in conflict literature, challenge can lead to innovation.	Revelatory: provide lenses to support multiple dimensions
	The impact of change and resistance to it	Change recipients: incremental regarding the impact of change. There is little literature and limited findings about the impact of resisting. Change agents: neglected area. Incremental in terms of the negative impacts; revelatory in terms of the positive impacts.
	The spatial dimension of resistance. Minimal literature.	I build on this limited area of literature.
	The temporal dimension of resistance. Minimal literature.	I build on this limited area of literature.
Organisational metaphors.	The language of change and resistance: figurative language.	Revelatory: Adds to the limited literature. Specific to the language of resistance to change includes new metaphors.
Labelling resistance		I contribute to the literature through discussions of power and who labels resistance. I identify alternative labels to that of resistor. I associate labelling with social constructionism.
	The Neutral Positions of Resistance	I provide evidence of ambivalence and contribute to this topic within the literature.
Emotional labour: Some understanding of the concept based on undergraduate teaching.	Emotional Labour associated with change and resistance.	I contribute to the literature on the emotional labour of change and resistance which are neglected areas within the literature.

Figure 12

As Figure 12 reveals, my relationship with the literature was not linear with a neat start and end point to my reading. I was turning to the literature throughout, prior to fieldwork, during fieldwork, whilst analysing data and writing up the thesis. On a number of occasions I pursued areas of theory that were unknown to me prior to them emerging from my material and sometimes struggled to find literature relating to the themes that emerged.

3.3.4: Location and Duration of Interviews

To undertake the research interviews I agreed times and a location where I would meet the interviewees. I was aware that the location of interviews can impact on the material generated (Ecker, 2017; Herzog, 2005):

the choice of interview location (who chooses and what place is chosen) is not just a technical matter of convenience and comfort. It should be examined within the social context of the study being conducted and analyzed as an integral part of the interpretation of the findings (Herzog, 2005, p. 26).

I arranged for the interviews to be conducted in a classroom in the University's Business School, which was the participants' work environment. This offered them convenience and comfort as it was a location well-known to them, and as I was asking work-related questions in a work environment I consider it an appropriate location. I considered offering the participants' the opportunity to select where the interviews might be conducted but, mindful of maintaining confidentiality and anonymity, I was concerned that they might select a public place such as a café or public house where I would not be able to guarantee not being overheard. In addition, regarding the university requirement that consideration be given to the safety of the researcher, I was reluctant to travel to participants' homes and regarded the participants' workplace to be a safe location for both parties. No participant raised any objection to the location selected for the interviews.

Participants were advised that the interview would probably last about an hour, but the meeting room was booked for 2 hours to enable me to set up and participants to speak for longer if they wished. I was interested in accessing their stories and gathering rich data and so did not wish them to feel any time pressure. The majority of meetings lasted over an hour in total with the duration of the actual interview that was subsequently transcribed being just under an hour (some were longer, some shorter.) I was keen that the interview last as long as the participant wished to speak and ended the interview when there was a natural conclusion. Denscombe (2007) suggests that interviews should last at least an hour in order to explore participants' accounts in depth. In practice the duration of my interviews varied according to what the participant wished to share, but the average length of the 15 interviews was 45 minutes, excluding

time spent on the discussion and signing of consent forms (Appendix 7) and responding to questions etc. This took the overall duration of time spent on the interview to approximately an hour which is generally in line with Smith, Flowers & Larkin's (2009) guidance.

3.3.5: Capturing the Data

Qualitative interviews are frequently termed a "conversation with a purpose" (Smith, et al., 2009, p. 57) and my interviews were conversational in nature. They were recorded and subsequently transcribed by a professional transcriber, creating material, "narratives", which were analysed (Gill, 2014, p. 4). Smith (2011, p. 10) proposes that "Interviews are audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim before being subjected to analysis." In order to ensure that I remained close to the material I read the transcriptions a number of times and listened to the recordings to correct any errors in the transcription that I perceived. This is in line with Wahyuni's (2012) advice that recordings are often outsourced to professional transcribers and the transcriptions subsequently checked by the researcher against the recordings for accuracy.

3.4: Analysis and Rigour

I analysed my data following the General Inductive Approach (Thomas, 2006) whereby I read the material closely to gain an understanding of the core meanings and, as a result of this analysis, I identified themes and sub-themes. Thomas (2006, pp. 241-242) specifies five steps to analysing the data which I followed:

1. Preparation of raw data files

To achieve this I recorded semi-structured interviews which were subsequently transcribed.

2. Close reading of text

This was undertaken carefully and line by line; potential errors were corrected through reference to the recordings.

3. Creation of categories

Categories were identified and captured on an Excel spreadsheet.

4. Overlapping coding and uncoded text: [...] (a) one segment of text may be coded into more than one category, and (b) a considerable amount of the text (e.g., 50% or more) may not be

assigned to any category, because much of the text may not be relevant to the evaluation objectives

The relevant text was captured and coded against the relevant categories. This was done multiple times for the same piece of text where it supported more than one theme. Each quotation from the transcript was identifiable as it was given the participant's number and the page number of the transcription it appeared on.

5. Continuing revision and refinement of category system: Within each category, search for subtopics, including contradictory points of view and new insights. Select appropriate quotations that convey the core theme or essence of a category. The categories may be combined or linked under a superordinate category when the meanings are similar.

This was undertaken both on an excel spreadsheet and visually through the creation of a network analysis drawing. To identify themes (categories), I followed the "network analysis process" described by Thomas (2013) that shows how ideas are related by a network, similar to a tree, which was drawn (Appendix 8). The trunk is the underpinning idea, with branches which are the ideas that emerge from it. I began by creating individual drawings representing the first few interviews I analysed; as recurrent themes started to appear I collated everything into an overarching network analysis (Appendix 8). I also developed Excel spreadsheets to capture all the themes and subthemes that emerged (Appendix 9). Each page captured a specific theme; within that page sub-themes were listed and beneath each sub-theme I add quotations from the interview material that supported them. Sometimes the same quotation is added to more than one theme, which Thomas (2006, p. 242) refers to in this methodology as "overlapping coding." Here comments were added to the spreadsheet to highlight where this occurs (Appendix 9). Where I interpret material as irrelevant as it is unrelated to the research, it remains uncoded. Thomas (2006, p. 242) suggests that up to 50% of material may remain uncoded; in practice I found that my uncoded material was minimal.

Excel assisted in coding each category, theme and sub theme. For example, the following quotation about senior management resisting change "And interestingly enough, our Board of Directors was very conservative and resistant to change" is coded as 4B13 5p5 as it appears on page 4 of the Excel spreadsheet (Who resists), in column B (Senior Management), row 13, comes from Participant 5

with the quotation appearing on page 5 of the transcript. In this way all the material that is captured can easily be linked through its themes and sub-themes right back to the specific participant and the page it appears on the transcript of their interview.

I follow a reductionist approach as it is suggested that no more than eight key themes should be identified and if more are found the researcher should combine some or prioritise the most important (Thomas 2006). I reduced my themes to eight: the eight dimensions or Octagon of Resistance (Figure 1). Making the inter-connectedness of the themes transparent is key to Gioia et al.'s (2013, p. 22) methodology which is designed to provide rigour to the analysis of qualitative research. They argue that the key is to build a model that reveals "all the major emergent concepts, themes, and dimensions" and "their dynamic interrelationships" so that they are totally transparent to the reader. They devised a model to show the relationships between the concepts that emerge and to make the data-to-theory links transparent "(thus allaying the usual concern that qualitative research too often does not show just how data relate to theory)" (2013, p. 22). I have additionally undertaken this analysis as it complements Thomas' (2006) methodology and through the transparency adds rigour.

The first-order analysis is conducted to uncover themes and patterns in participants' stories whilst the second order analysis progresses to a more theoretical level, in which the data and first-order findings are studied for underlying explanatory dimensions (Gioia, et al., 2013). This is a flexible approach; the authors accept that it might not always be appropriate to try to force material into the first and second order categories:

To force fit data into the 1st-order/2nd-order rubric when not called for not only diminishes the potential value of those data, but also sacrifices the benefits of qualitative research's flexibility in applying different approaches to fit different phenomenological needs (Gioia et al, 2013, p. 25).

They argue that it has a "flexible orientation toward qualitative, inductive research that is open to innovation, rather than acting as a "cookbook" (2013, p. 26). I have therefore employed it as it best meets the needs of my material. To be specific, I have identified the initial emergent themes in the first order analysis and collected them into coherent groups which can be linked to associated

theory in the second analysis (the theory is discussed in the Findings and the Conclusions and Contributions chapters. To follow Gioia et al.'s (2013, p. 17) guidance to avoid imposing “our preordained understandings” upon the participants' experiences, I did not attempt to shoehorn the material into pre-existing themes but instead permitted the themes to emerge naturally from the material which did, as they suggest, lead to themes emerging that I would not have preconceived. This approach is also consistent with the guidance “to control a temptation to a priori impose conceptual categories” as most qualitative methodologies require that theory is derived from data, not vice-versa (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2012, n.p). Figure 13 captures my analysis of my material according to this methodology.

Emergent Themes: Based on Gioia, Corley and Hamilton's (2013) Methodology

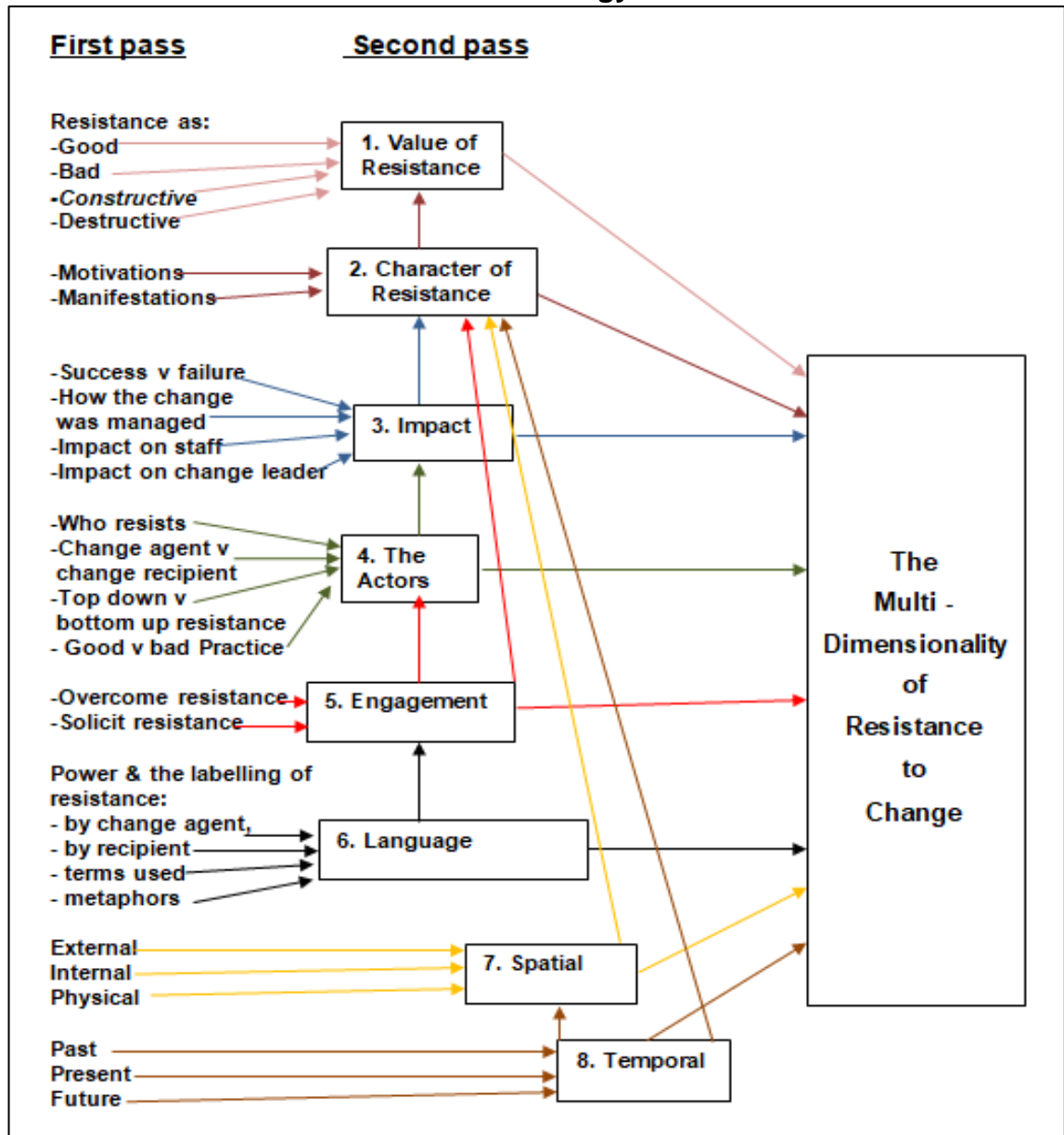


Figure 13

Figure 13 highlights in the first pass, the key themes that emerged from the data. The second pass indicates how the themes were reduced to eight core dimensions and how these interlink.

3.5: Presenting the Findings

When presenting the findings Gioia et al., (2013, p. 23) propose producing an informative story that leads towards developing new concepts through carefully presenting the evidence in the form of quotes that link to the exemplars, making clear to the reader how the 1st-order codes connect to the 2nd-order themes: “The

meta-message to the reader is “This is what the informants told us. We’re not making this stuff up.” To evidence rigour within this research I have employed quotations to support my interpretations of themes, citing *all* my participants on multiple occasions so that my conclusions are not drawn from a limited number. The ultimate goal of this methodology is to build an inductive model that is grounded in the data, capturing the participants' experiences in theoretical terms (Gioia et al., 2013) and by pursuing it I have developed the conceptual frameworks of The Octagon of Resistance and Constructive Discontent (Figures 1 and 17.)

Within my methodology, I have thus followed the good practice highlighted in Thomas' (2006) General Inductive Approach and have drawn upon Gioia et al's (2013) guidance to add rigour.

3.6: Problematization

Myths and assumptions impede the theory and practice of managing change (Hughes, 2010) and we should challenge them rather than be deceived into accepting them as truths (By et al., 2016). Based on the work of Alvesson and Karreman (2007), I problematize the literature by challenging assumptions within it. Within the context of this research, problematization is

to challenge the value of a theory and to explore its weaknesses and problems in relation to the phenomena it is supposed to explicate. It means to generally open up and to point out the need and possible directions for rethinking and developing the theory (Alvesson & Karreman, 2007, pp. 1265-1266).

The challenge to the assumptions or theories in the literature emerges from the empirical material (Alvesson & Karreman, 2007). I problematize the literature by drawing on my empirical material to surface challenges to existing assumptions or theories. I then explain my challenge based on the empirical material. This approach links to paradox research (Poole & Van der Venn, 1989; Lewis, 2000) which pays attention to the “tensions, oppositions, and contradictions among explanations of the same phenomenon (Poole & Van der Venn, 1989, p. 562).

Problematization is appropriate for this multidimensional research because from this perspective, theories do not describe an ultimate truth, but are alternative aspects of a multifaceted reality (Poole & Van der Venn, 1989), which is in-

keeping with the social constructionist approach (Alvesson and Karreman, 2007) of this multi-dimensional research. Indeed social-constructionism encourages problematization (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). The assumptions I challenge are captured in Figure 2.

3.7: Evaluation

Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2008) highlight concerns regarding how to provide quality in constructionist research designs. Golden-Biddle and Locke (1993, p. 595) identify three criteria to assist with this: "authenticity, plausibility and criticality" of which the minimum to achieve is authenticity and plausibility whilst Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) suggest that results should be believable and reached through transparent methods. Tracy (2010, p. 840) expands on these, identifying eight criteria through which to demonstrate quality in qualitative research (Figure 14).

Removed for copyright reasons.

Tracy (2010, p. 840)

Figure 14

(Tracy, 2010, p. 840)

Based on Tracey's (2010) criteria and those of Easterby-Smith et al., (2008) and Golden-Biddle and Locke (1993), I have developed Figure 15 which captures how this research meets standards of quality.

Meeting Quality Standards in this Research

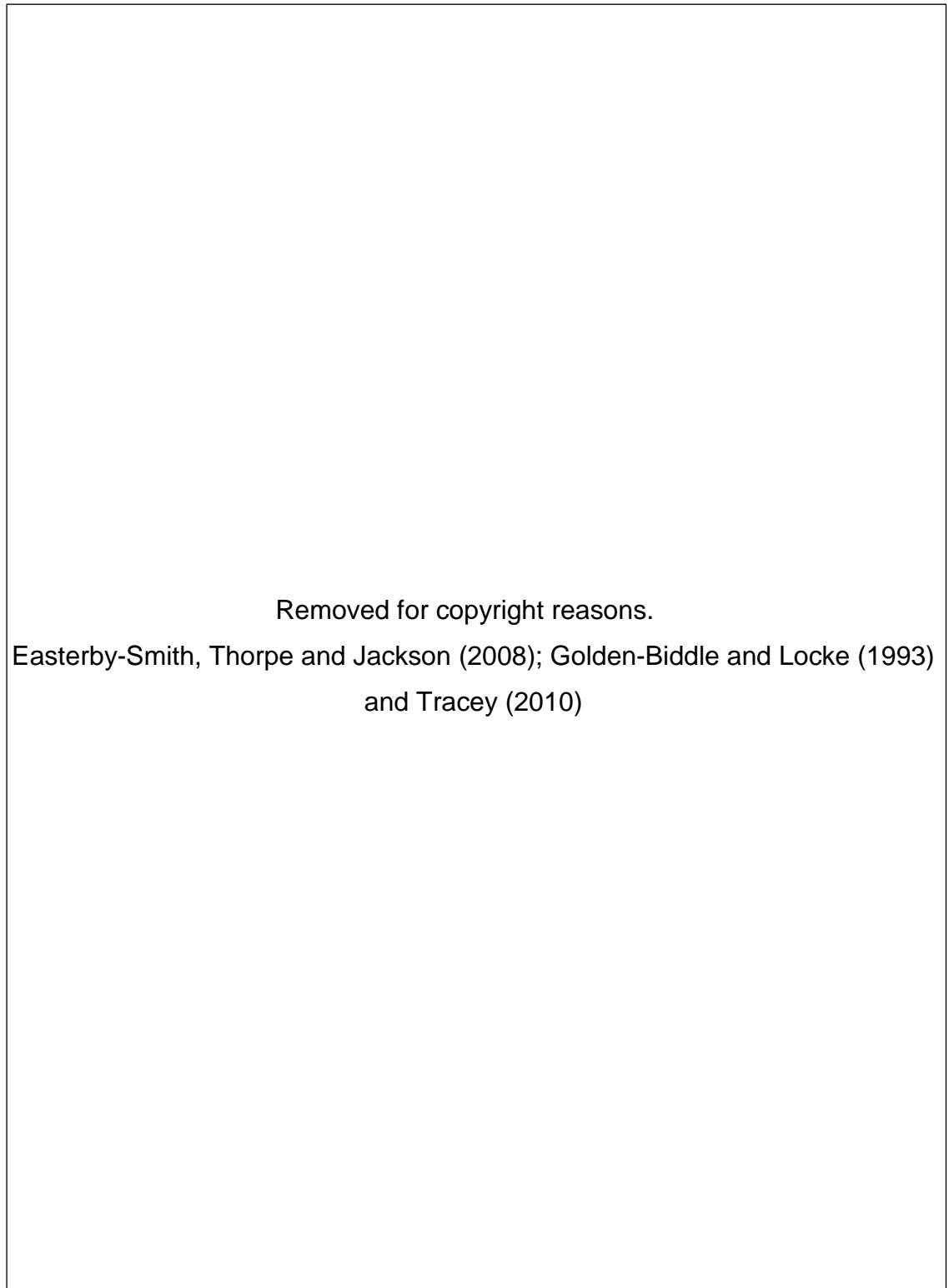


Figure 15

This research can thus be evaluated against a range of criteria for quality and rigour meets these standards, as identified within this section.

3.8: The Methodology Chapter Conclusion

Within this chapter I have explained the philosophical underpinnings of this research and justified its social constructionist approach, methodology and method as being appropriate for this interpretivist, qualitative, inductive research. I have detailed how this research meets ethical standards and how I analysed the material to meet high standards of academic rigour. Finally, I explained how the research might be evaluated with reference to Golden-Biddle and Locke, (1993); Easterby-Smith et al., (2008) and Tracy (2010) and how it meets their prescribed standards. I capture all my research choices in Figure 16 below.

Research Choices

Research Choice	Research Design
Ontology	Subjectivist
Epistemology	Subjectivist
Paradigm	Interpretivist
Approach	Social Constructionist
Methodology	Thomas General Inductive (2006) / Gioia et al. (2013) for rigour in qualitative research
Sampling	Purposive approach resulting in a self-selecting sample
Method	Semi-structured interviews to the point of saturation.
Analysis	Initial manual Network Analysis (Thomas, 2013) with data subsequently captured and coded via Excel. I followed Thomas' (2006) reductionist methodology and Gioia et al., (2013) for added rigour.
Ethics	Ethical guidelines followed and ethical approval granted by Sheffield Hallam University.
Evaluation	Meets Quality Standards criteria specified by Easterby-Smith et al., (2008); Golden-Biddle and Locke (1993) and Tracey (2010).

Figure 16

Within this chapter I have justified these research choices with reference to the literature.

I now progress the thesis through a discussion of my findings. In order to understand the context of the findings, a description of each participant, their relationship to the change and the resistance they experienced can be found in Appendix 10. The findings and their links to the literature are discussed through eight chapters, each of which focuses upon one of the eight dimensions of resistance that emerged from my material. I explain how, based on the empirical material, I problematize (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2007) the literature, challenging its underlying assumptions. As some findings support existing literature I focus primarily upon those that make a revelatory contribution in terms of either theory or practice, make a significant incremental contribution, or contribute to a largely neglected area of literature. The findings are presented as dimensions of resistance in the order in which they appear and are numbered in the Octagon of Resistance (Figure 1). They ultimately combine to form this single conceptualisation of the dimensions of resistance.

4. Findings and Discussion: The Value Dimension

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Literature Review
Chapter Three	Methodology
Chapter Four	Findings & Discussion: The Value Dimension
Chapter Five	Findings & Discussion: The Character Dimension
Chapter Six	Findings & Discussion: The Impact Dimension
Chapter Seven	Findings & Discussion: The Actors Dimension
Chapter Eight	Findings & Discussion: The Engagement Dimension
Chapter Nine	Findings & Discussion: The Language Dimension
Chapter Ten	Findings & Discussion: The Temporal Dimension
Chapter Eleven	Findings & Discussion: The Spatial Dimension
Chapter Twelve	Conclusion and Contributions

4.1 Introduction

As the initial objective of the research was to explore how resistance to change might link to the concept of constructive discontent (Abraham, 1999; Dann, 2008; Dmytriiev et al., 2016; Suchy, 2004), the findings related to this area are discussed first. I call these findings “The Value Dimension” of resistance to change which encapsulates the constructive/destructive aspects of resistance and also the findings related to the positive and negative dimensions of its antithesis, content or lack of resistance. Figure 17 indicates where The Value Dimension sits within the overall conceptual framework created through this research.

Dimension 1: The Value Dimension

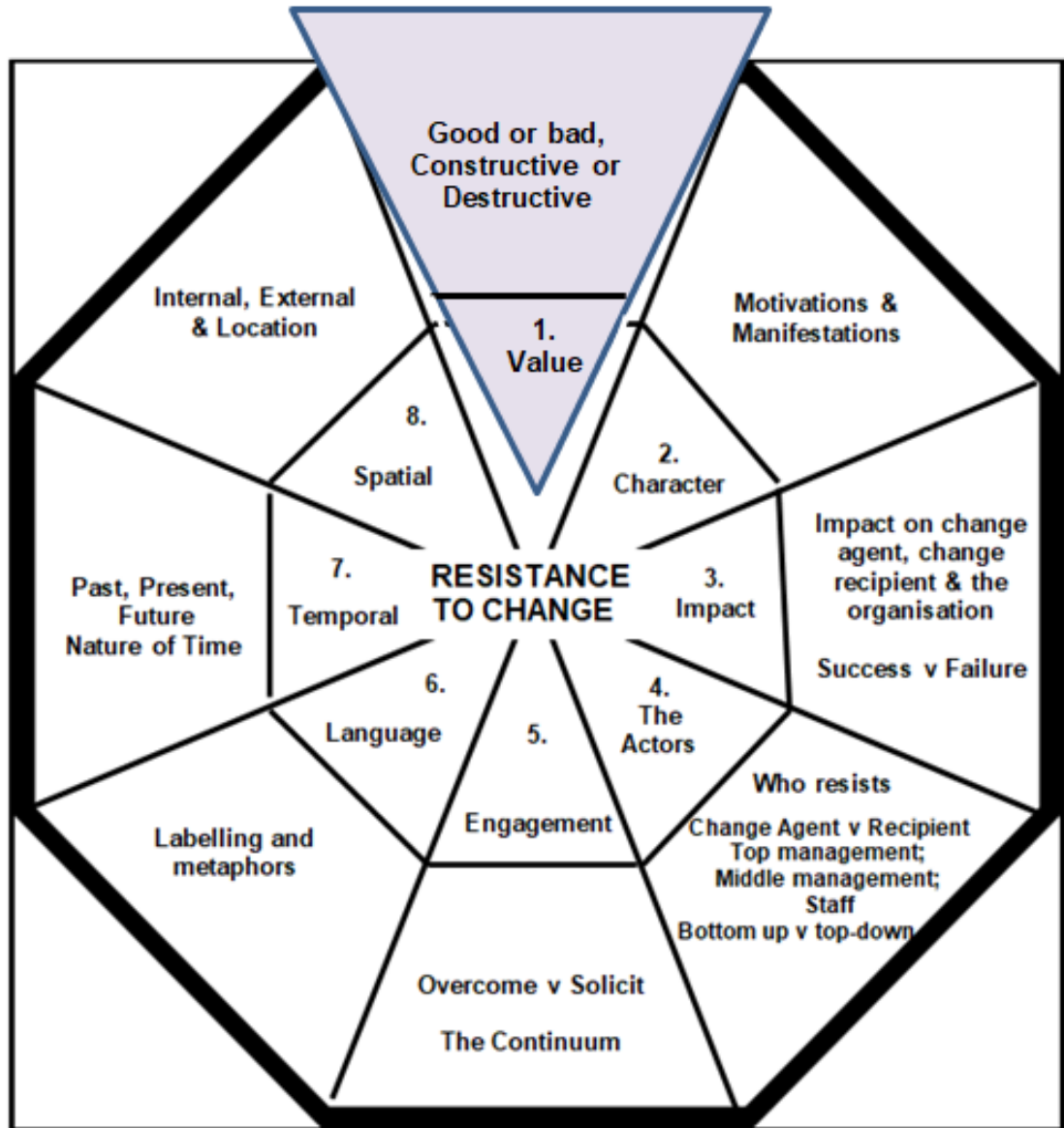


Figure 17

As I explore a possible link between the concepts of resistance to change and constructive discontent, it is important to specify what is meant by constructive discontent and destructive content within the context of this research. Therefore, to be explicit, for the purposes of this research I explore it from an organisational context, as the challenge that leader's require (Dann, 2008; Suchy, 2004). The antithesis of constructive discontent is thus "destructive content" (Dann, 2008, p. 170) whereby no challenge is provided to the detriment of the organisation.

Having discovered the concept of constructive discontent, I created a 2x2 theoretical framework based on the concept, linking resistance to change to its

various constructive/destructive and content/discontent elements (Figure 8). I analysed the empirical material I collected through this theoretical framework, repopulating it and building on the theoretical framework to include the neutral positions which emerged from my material. I thereby create a *conceptual framework of Constructive Discontent (Figure 18)* based on my empirical material and thereby meet Objective 2, answering Question 3.

Conceptual Framework of Constructive Discontent

	Constructive	Destructive	Neutral
Content	<p>1. Promotions to board resulting in good communications with management team.</p> <p>2. Change is desired.</p>	<p>Choosing not to resist</p> <p>1. Fear: - worries for job security if resist. - Compliance through fear.</p> <p>- "Yes-men" through fear.</p> <p>2. Time: - No time to resist. - Bad experiences linked to resisting in past</p> <p>3. No point in resisting: - felt accomplish - compulsion - no response</p> <p>4. Paid compliance: "goldplated" contracts and so good packages if made redundant (self-interest.)</p> <p>5. No overt resistance, but rubbish the change privately.</p> <p>6. Silence: - lack of confidence - lack of trust</p>	No empirical material
Discontent	<p>1. Alerting to potential problems/to prevent problems with the change that are taken on board. Challenge thinking leading to re-evaluation of what is being done.</p> <p>2. Identifying how the change might be improved.</p> <p>3. When the change is perceived as wrong and the reasons are well communicated.</p> <p>4. Not wishing to engage and so being as efficient as possible to minimise work to be done.</p> <p>5. Open dialogue leading to creativity.</p> <p>6. Communicating via constructive feedback.</p> <p>7. Caused by caring for the organisation/ its people/stakeholders</p>	<p>1. Resisting to protect the Status Quo; Self-interest / -- "Happy as they are" -Self-interest to protect pet projects</p> <p>2. Resisting being measured , performance indicators.</p> <p>3. Being unhelpful- that's not my job.</p> <p>4. Non-engagement. Pretending it will go away.</p> <p>5. Lowered morale caused by the moaning.</p> <p>6. Them and us: tension between colleagues</p> <p>7. Out of comfort zone / fear of learning.</p> <p>8. Locked into a position.</p> <p>9. Rejection for rejection's sake.</p> <p>10. Outright refusal: unwilling to compromise.</p> <p>11. Peer group pressure.</p> <p>12. Lack of logic / Irrational.</p> <p>13. Politics.</p>	<p>1. Discontent not with the change but with how it is managed:</p> <p>2. Knew resistance would make no difference but resisting made them feel better.</p>
Neutral			<p>1. Questioning: lack of understanding.</p> <p>2. Ambivalence or Ambiguity: We need the change but concerned for the impact on staff.</p>

Figure 18

Within this section I compare and contrast the theoretical framework (Figure 8) with my conceptual framework (Figure 18). I consider each element of the frameworks, their association, or lack thereof, to resistance to change and its conceptualisation as good or bad for the organisation.

4.2: Constructive Discontent

In this section I focus upon my findings related to resistance to change and constructive discontent *and so advance Objective 2, Question 3*. Dann (2008) contends that leaders need constructive discontent and Dmytriiev et al. (2016, p.38) argue the case for "constructive disagreement". I conceptualise elements of constructive discontent based on the literature and Figure 19 highlights this aspect of the theoretical framework.

Constructive Discontent within the Theoretical Framework

	Constructive	Destructive
Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Acceptance, enthusiasm and active support for the change. - Opposing views have been sought and constructive agreement reached. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No need to change. - No challenge offered or sought. - The appearance of acquiescence or support which may be: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Groupthink (Janis 1971) - Premature agreement - the fear of disagreement as destructive leads people to rush too quickly into a superficial and unhelpful agreement (Darwin, 2004) - the 'silent meeting' where everyone appears to be in agreement, while privately they are not (Dann, 2008). - agreement at a rational level, and therefore no objections raised but disagreement at an emotional level (Piderit, 2000)
Discontent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Resistance as a valuable form of feedback (Ford and Ford) (2009) - resistance as a means of avoiding groupthink. - solicited resistance to ensure a plan is well thought through. - resistance to prevent harm to the organisation. - resistance for the "common good." (Paton and McCalman, 2008, p. 54) - Roles: Devil's Advocate; Sage Fool 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The traditional view of resistance to change. - Sabotage. - Resistance motivated by self-interest.

With acknowledgements to my supervisor, Darwin, J. for assistance in developing this framework.

Figure 19

My conceptualisation of constructive discontent is based upon the *motivation* or *outcome* of the resistance being to benefit the organisation. When populated with my empirical material the constructive discontent element of my conceptual framework emerged (Figure 20):

Conceptual Framework: The Constructive Discontent Element

	CONSTRUCTIVE
DISCONTENT	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Alerting to potential problems/to prevent problems with the change that are taken on board. 2. Challenging an ill-considered change. 3. Challenge thinking leading to re-evaluation of what is being done. 4. Identifying how the change might be improved. 5. When the change is perceived as wrong and the reasons are well communicated. 6. Not wishing to engage and so being as efficient as possible to minimise work to be done. 7. Open dialogue leading to creativity. 8. Communicating via constructive feedback. 9. Caused by caring for the organisation/ its people/stakeholders. 10. Acting as a needed restraint 11. Solicited resistance. 12. Provides an opportunity for personal development. 13. A catalyst to enhance relationships.

Figure 20

Empirical material supports the literature-based theoretical conceptualisation of constructive discontent (Figure 8) and extends beyond it. I therefore argue that there is a link between resistance to change and the emotional intelligence and leadership concept of constructive discontent. *Resistance to change can provide a form of constructive discontent.* To evidence this finding I progress this section by discussing the elements of each framework, providing participant quotations to support the arguments *and thereby meeting Objective 2, answering Question 3.*

4.2.1: Avoiding Groupthink

Avoiding groupthink (Janis, 1971) appears in the theoretical framework. It does not emerge explicitly from the empirical material but may be implicitly present. Due to the nature of groupthink, as a lack of challenge within a strongly cohesive group (Janis, 1971; Walsh, 1981), I would not expect people to be aware that they were experiencing it, as the mutual agreement within the group may lead them to believe that they were making the correct decision.

I propose that the potential to avoid groupthink is implicit in the empirical framework, appearing as challenge to avoid potential problems with the proposed change and to a proposed change that is perceived to be wrong. Challenge has the potential to mitigate the effects of groupthink and P6 is explicit about how resistance led to re-evaluation: *"Because of the challenges, we did re-evaluate what we were doing."* This supports Blount and Carroll's (2017) findings that if opposing views are truly heard by the change agent, it will change their thinking if not their overall plan. Groupthink may arise, however, when resistance is ignored and change is imposed: *"I think it was the culture set at the senior level [...] the culture was, "You don't question, you do what's being asked." [...] and you don't question" (P10).* Indeed elements of both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks are to alert management to potential problems with the change and challenge the thinking, which benefits the organisation. P5 and P1 discuss finding resistance beneficial to the organisation: *"on the shop floor there were slight changes made [...] to the generic processes when people turned round and say, "Well we can't really do it that way," and that was then taken on board. So in effect that was constructive" (P1).* P11 also highlights that their motivation to resist was to do good: *"I recognised that these changes were going to happen, so if I could influence them [...] for good, then I would stick my two-penneth in and try and do that."*

Participants' responses thus evidence resistance occurring from a desire to support the organisation and resistance being found as beneficial to the change which supports Morrison and Milliken's (2000) argument that exploring various views and alternatives improves decision quality. Such constructive challenge could thereby prevent the problems caused by groupthink (Janis, 1971) identified in the literature framework and thus appears implicitly in my conceptual framework.

4.2.2: Preventing Harm

The constructive discontent elements of both frameworks identify it as preventing harm to the organisation. It may achieve this by providing a needed restraint:

I've sometimes said, it might be really outlandish, and actually atrocious to be honest, "Why don't we just fire this, that and [colloquial; the other]?" and then of course they've said, "You can't do that. It's

immoral, it's unconscionable, you can't do this, you can't do that." And it was a real help because it stops you tipping over. (P14)

P14 thus identifies how constructive challenge prevented them from behaving inappropriately, linking directly to Dmytriiev et al.'s (2016, p. 34) argument that constructive disagreement leads to "more ethical" behaviour. Indeed it also provides an example of the "Courageous Follower" who will have the courage to challenge a leader and take a moral stand, refusing "to participate in an activity viewed as immoral and to take corrective action where possible" (Chaleff, 2015, n.p.).

P14's example provides evidence supporting both frameworks in their identification of how constructive discontent prevents harm and associated with preventing harm, participants also raised the issue of resisting a change that is considered not to have been well thought through (Nevis, 1987; Senior & Swailes, 2010; Waddell & Sohal, 1998): *"Because it was wrong, basically, wrong, unfair, ill-considered, externally-driven, not logical"* (P8). Such resistance helps prevent bad decisions being made, as business history provides numerous examples of poor decisions that may have been avoided had opposing views been solicited, considered and acted upon (Dmytiyev et al., (2016). Such challenge is thus an important form of constructive discontent and may also provide examples of "Intelligent Disobedience" whereby orders that are potentially harmful are challenged or resisted (Chaleff, 2015, n.p.).

4.2.3: Improving the Change

In addition to preventing harm, constructive discontent is identified in the theoretical framework as having the potential to improve the change (Ford & Ford, 2010) and I empirically support this: *"the most vital learning, I think, was that if resistance is for a reason, then I need to listen to it"* (P5). Indeed P15 is explicit that listening to resistance can be beneficial: *"Don't treat all resistance as negative; be open, be prepared through listening to be persuaded on better courses of action."* P6 and P14 also propose benefits from listening to resistance; P14 argues that it helped them think through their plans:

he was a great loss to me when he retired [...] because I knew I could always push against him and if he was going to be negative about something, that challenge meant that I had to work it out logically. I

either had to sell it to him or where I was coming from was the wrong place.

There are thus general references to resistance improving change, and I also found empirical evidence of more specific ways in which improvements manifest. P5 relates an example of a challenge to a new computing system leading to improvements: *“And I thought, “Oh yeah, that’s a good point actually!” [...] That’s a real example of where you can make it much more efficient.”* For P5, the resistance led to increased efficiency, a benefit also identified by P4 but from a different perspective. In P4’s example a change led to redundancies and certain employees just wished to take their enhanced redundancy package and leave. However, before this could happen certain work had to be completed so that they would obtain the enhanced package. Staff therefore became extremely focused in order to minimise the work and their contact with others:

we were really efficient in getting that information across because we didn’t want to do anything. So the more explicit we could make the information that we had to hand over then the fewer questions we would get about it from the other side.

Enhanced efficiency can therefore be rooted in a positive or negative place; a desire to resist a bad change and thereby support the organisation, or a desire to disengage entirely from the organisation resulting in enhanced efficiency so that the work can be minimised and quickly completed. Resistance is thereby associated with increased efficiency and better thought through change, further examples of constructive discontent which advances Objective 2.

Associated with the idea of resistance improving the change (Oreg, et al., 2018), empirical material emerges from P4 and P8 to support the argument that it leads to creativity: *“I think just for somebody to say, “No,” or, “Why?” or, “I won’t,” does make you stand back and think [...] and that can then facilitate a measure of creativity or whatever it happens to be” (P8).* Enhanced organisational creativity can thus be a by-product of resistance to change and I therefore interpret it as constructive discontent. Creativity was initially lacking in my theoretical framework which is based primarily upon the change literature. However, I subsequently found within the conflict literature the argument that constructive conflict can lead to enhanced innovation and productivity (Uline, Tschannen-Moran & Perez, 2003). I propose, however, that within my theoretical framework

creativity is subtly and implicitly present in the overarching claim that it can improve the change.

4.2.4: Protecting Stakeholders, Enhancing Relationships and Professional Development

Several participants identify resistance occurring from a desire to protect staff or other stakeholders from harm: *“But I didn’t want to go with what they wanted to do because I thought it was wrong for the business and wrong for the people”* (P14); or as a reaction to the lack of care exhibited by those leading the change: *“I got really annoyed and I said, “We’re talking about people here and people that have worked for us for a long period of time and our jobs; and we’re not talking about sackings, we’re talking about redundancies””* (P2). P2 resisted the rather brutal way the change was implemented: *“really just no care, (they) didn’t care for the people’s feelings, for the fact that we had to then go out of that room and tell whole unit-fulls of people [...] that they’d been made redundant”*. P11 also describes their concern for their colleagues’ jobs: *“I realised that I, internally, had my own concerns and misgivings, often on behalf of other people. I was thinking, “What is going to happen to all my mates’ jobs?” and things like this”* P14, however, expresses concern for colleagues during a change, viewing their role as one of protector: *“I was interested in the businesses and the people who worked in them and [...] I saw my job protecting them”*. Rooted in a care for people, this resistance is the antithesis of resistance rooted in self-interest, and care for people thus emerges as a motivation underpinning constructive discontent. In these cases the resistance is interpreted as constructive due to its altruistic foundations, caring for the staff and, as in P14’s case, it is also to protect the organisation. This interpretation can be countered from the organisational perspective if caring for people is damaging to the organisation, but this is not the case here. P2 is arguing for some compassion and appropriate behaviour in how people are managed during the change and P5 and P9 share similar stories of people resisting to protect staff or other stakeholders.

Participants also provide further examples of resistance benefitting the organisation. I interpret them as constructive discontent because the resistance generated positive results by enhancing professional development and

professional relationships. P13 explains how they developed their interpersonal skills as a result of dealing with resistance:

it forces you to develop your skills in communication; be that listening, be that talking, be that actually just being there just in case. And it enables you to engage with [...] that very delicate people skill and [...] to understand it at a different level, rather than talking about it or reading about it in a book. [...] it really has enabled me to understand people a lot more. So for me, a big tick in the box

In addition to personal development, three participants highlight resistance as a catalyst to develop and enhance relationships: *"I suppose this is intangible but, [...] we all got to know each other, because before we hadn't really. [...] is that an advantage? It seems to be"* (P9). Resistance can thus benefit both individuals and the organisation by providing an opportunity for personal development and by bringing people together and enhancing professional relationships. These findings only populate my conceptual framework, as I did not find these benefits in the literature, and further advance Objective 2 and Question 3.

4.2.5: Communication, Culture and Constructive Discontent

It emerges that constructive discontent thrives in environments that are open to discussion and avoid a culture of fear: *"it was a really lovely company to work for and we all had a very open relationship with each other, so there wasn't this idea of being scared to voice something or holding back your opinion"* (P5). The open culture P5 describes is effectively Dmytrieyev et al.'s (2016, p. 34) "climate of possibilities" where managers give serious consideration to constructively offered disagreement. However, a limited challenge to this also emerges from the empirical material. The importance of *how* the resistance is communicated and its association with constructive discontent clearly emerges. P1 argues that resistance is *"not necessarily negative if the 'change' is really perceived to be wrong and the reasons are well communicated."* They thereby link *how* resistance is communicated to whether it is conceptualised as being positive or negative. P12 also identifies the importance of how resistance is expressed: *"so I think people learned that you can be resistant to change but do it in the right way"*, whilst P5 states that they seek to resist constructively without moaning. Indeed moaning is identified by P5 as a problem in the way resistance is communicated:

moaning to me is one step further, where you just go over and over and over the same ground again. But that I tried to ignore [...] I wouldn't see (it) as anything negative, because I still got the points, I got the challenges

P5 thus identifies the value of the resistance feedback, but is also aware that when it tips into moaning or ruminating over the same issues, it reaches the point where they need to block it out.

To constitute constructive discontent it therefore may not be sufficient to resist to protect or benefit the organisation. Resistance should be communicated appropriately to be perceived as constructive. Morrison and Milliken (2000) and Ford and Ford (2010) intimate this as they propose that change agents can be put off engaging with resistance based on how the message is delivered. There are implications for practice as communicating appropriately requires both change agents and recipients to develop the emotional intelligence to regulate their emotions at what can be a stressful time. Change recipients need to manage their emotions to express resistance appropriately, and change agents need to manage theirs to engage with it, even when it is not, to capture the benefits it may deliver. To reap the benefits of disagreements, Dmytrieyev et al. (2016) also highlight the importance of the change agents' communication and listening skills, and the value of facilitating a purposeful discussion directed at a constructive outcome. Whilst the difficulty is acknowledged when resistance is poorly expressed, the literature places a burden of responsibility to listen and engage with it on the change agent. However, based on my material, it emerges that those resisting are also required to do so appropriately, but this is not surprising as those participants proposing this were change agents (P1, P5, P12).

Although the term constructive discontent is not employed, it is apparent that some participants appreciate its value, as they advocate creating an environment where people are free to disagree: *"make all the people feel that they're valued and not that they just have to be yes men"* (P9).

4.2.6: Section Summary

Constructive discontent thus emerges as resistance that challenges leadership in order to protect the organisation or its stakeholders from the harm of a potentially damaging change. Some participants consider it to be linked to communication; resistance that is constructively delivered. However, Ford and Ford (2009) challenge this, as they advise change leaders to be strong and not ignore poorly expressed resistance so that they do not lose the benefits it might bring. They thereby associate constructive resistance with its intention and outcome rather than to its delivery.

Resistance conceptualised as constructive discontent is thus a positive phenomenon delivering benefit to the organisation. Such benefits include: leading to change being re-evaluated thereby preventing problems; improving the change; improving efficiency; generating creativity and bringing restraint when needed. Based on this evidence I argue that constructive resistance to change can be conceptualised as the form of the constructive discontent that provides challenge to leadership (Abraham, 1999; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Dann, (2008); De Cremer, (2016); Dmytrieyev et al., 2016; Lowitt, 2013; Suchy, 2004). I contend that the findings of this research align with Dmytrieyev et al.'s (2016, p. 34) "climate of possibilities" whereby opposition is provided constructively and managers consider it thoroughly so that disagreements are mined to unearth the benefit of additional understanding or judicious caution. I therefore argue that resistance to change is a form of constructive discontent as conceptualised in the emotional intelligence and leadership literatures as a beneficial challenge to leaders. I thereby build on the emotional intelligence and leadership conceptualisation of constructive discontent in the literature by relating it to resistance to change, capturing how this works in Figure 21. The arrows indicate the bodies of literature in which constructive discontent can be conceptualised as a challenge to leadership. Based on my empirical material and the arguments advanced in this section, I include resistance to change as a manifestation of constructive discontent. The second arrow from the leadership/business literature indicates the alternative way in which constructive discontent is conceptualised within that body of literature.

Constructive Discontent as a Challenge to Leaders

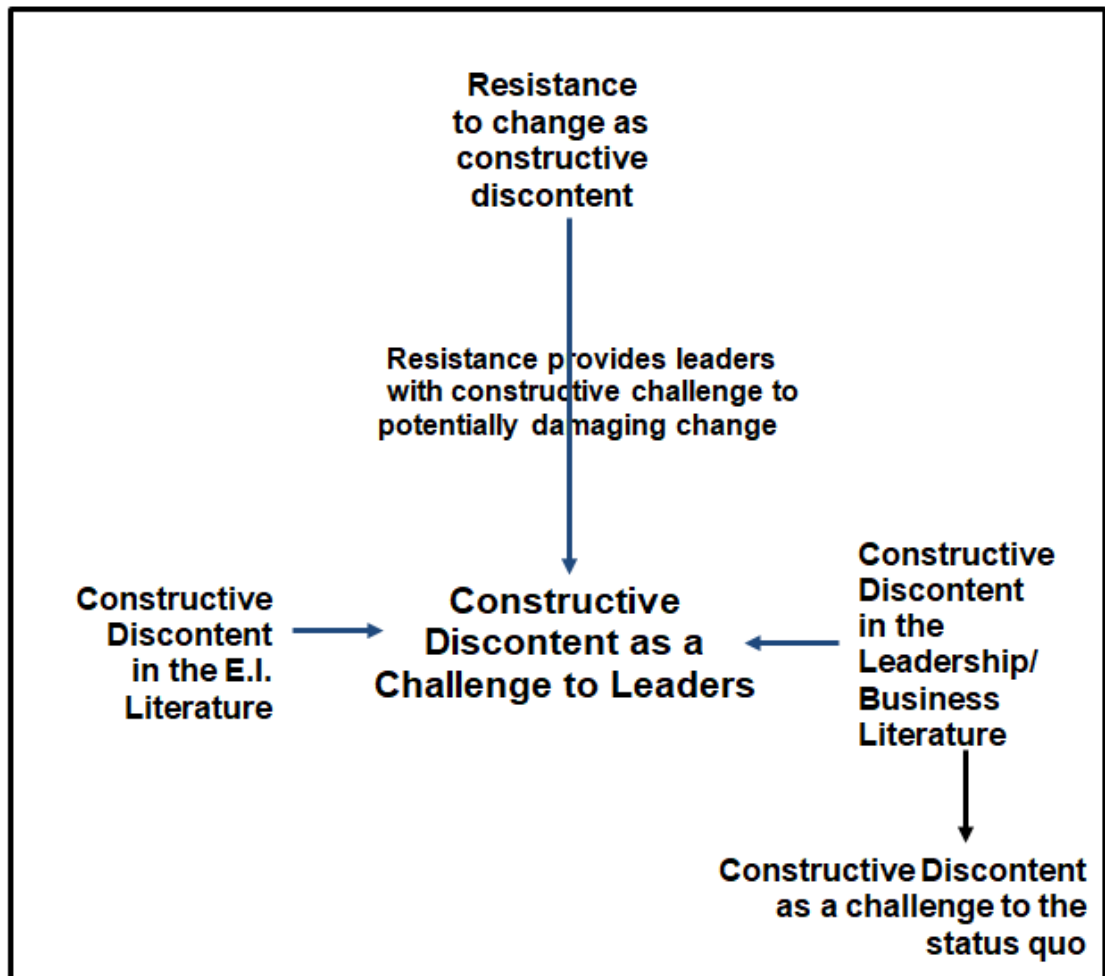


Figure 21

Question 3 of this research asks “What dimensions of constructive discontent can be identified in the narratives of the respondents?” Within this section I have answered this question and have advanced Objective 2 by considering resistance’s positive attributes. The Value Chapter now progresses by advancing Objective 2 through a consideration of the findings related to resistance as a destructive force.

4.3: Destructive Discontent

Destructive discontent is conceptualised within my theoretical framework as the traditional view of resistance to change, a bad thing to be overcome (Ash, 2009; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Oreg, 2006; Wachira and Anyieni, 2017). Figure 22 captures its position within this literature-based framework.

Destructive Discontent within the Theoretical Framework

	Constructive	Destructive
Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Acceptance, enthusiasm and active support for the change. - Opposing views have been sought and constructive agreement reached. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No need to change. - No challenge offered or sought. - The appearance of acquiescence or support which may be: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Groupthink (Janis 1971) - Premature agreement - the fear of disagreement as destructive leads people to rush too quickly into a superficial and unhelpful agreement (Darwin, 2004) - the 'silent meeting' where everyone appears to be in agreement, while privately they are not (Dann, 2008). - agreement at a rational level, and therefore no objections raised but disagreement at an emotional level (Piderit, 2000)
Discontent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Resistance as a valuable form of feedback (Ford and Ford) (2009) - resistance as a means of avoiding groupthink. - solicited resistance to ensure a plan is well thought through. - resistance to prevent harm to the organisation. - resistance for the "common good." (Paton and McCalman, 2008, p. 54) - Roles: Devil's Advocate; Sage Fool 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The traditional view of resistance to change. - Sabotage. - Resistance motivated by self-interest.

With acknowledgements to my supervisor, Darwin, J. for assistance in developing this framework.

Figure 22

Based on the literature, I conceptualise destructive discontent as resistance that is damaging to the organisation, a form of sabotage (Morgan, 2001; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Moss Kanter, 2012; Nevis, 1987), resistance motivated by self-interest (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979) or to maintain the status quo when change is needed. This is the traditional, dominant view of resistance to change portrayed in the literature and when analysing my material through this theoretical framework to populate the empirical framework, I found material supporting this negative form of resistance (Figure 23).

Destructive Discontent within the Conceptual Framework

	DESTRUCTIVE
DISCONTENT	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Resisting to protect the Status Quo; Self-interest / -- "Happy as they are" 2. Resisting being measured / performance indicators. 3. Being unhelpful - that's not my job. 4. Non-engagement. Pretending it will go away. 5. Lowered morale caused by "moaning". 6. Them and us: tension between colleagues 7. Out of comfort zone / fear of learning. 8. Locked into a position. 9. Rejection for rejection's sake. 10. Outright refusal: unwilling to compromise. 11. Peer group pressure. 12. Lack of logic / irrational. 13. Politics. 14. Self-interest to protect pet project 15. Resistance that is harmful to the organisation

Figure 23

4.3.1: Resistance Motivated by Protecting the Status Quo and Self-Interest

Resistance to support the *status quo* appears in both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks. Seven participants identify it as a reason for resistance: “*basically what people wanted from a new system was for it to look like one they already had*” (P14). Five Participants were explicit about preservation of the status quo being at the root of resistance they encountered:

they wanted to support the status quo [...] supporting the status quo is a little bit about protecting your own position, or not wanting the upheaval and the change, because we know it's hard work, it's uncomfortable, it's not a nice thing that happens (P9).

P13 and P14 found resistance to protect the status quo associated with a change of location:

some people had been at the same machine for 35 years and we were saying, right we're going to go to this new place and you can have a canteen. "You mean I can't have my bottle of milk and stuff by me press?" "No." "I'm not coming then." [...] So that was their status quo. So some of them didn't move because of things like that.

People can thus behave in an extreme manner to protect their status quo and defence of the status quo can be associated with self-interest, resisting to prevent the loss of what one currently possesses (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Waddell & Sohal, 1998): "Why risk losing position, control and reputation?"

(Paton & McCalman, 2008, p. 52). Resistance to protect the status quo fuelled by self-interest and fear of loss (Agocs, 1997; Burke, 2011; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016; Moran & Brightman, 2000) is clearly apparent in both frameworks:

there's an initial period where you are really only interested in what it means for me. [...] Initially it's going to be the number one issue. It doesn't mean to say that they are forever going to be selfish but there is that bit of that (P15).

Self-interest is a pejorative term and so resistance perceived as rooted in it is conceptualised as negative and inappropriate and three participants raise it as a motivation for resistance. P3 describes how the owners of the business were motivated by self-interest and so resisted changes aimed at professionalising it: *“it was all just self-interest for them, and that's why they were in it, and they were working on their pet projects that they wanted to work on regardless of the business.”* Gioia and Chittipedi (1991 p. 440) find a similar motivation of resistance when vested interests began objecting to the change, questioning if there was any need to change the status quo. I therefore support the literature in finding people resisting change in favour of the status quo out of self-interest.

P15 develops this self-interest as a motivation of resistance theme, citing resistance motivated by *disappointed expectations*, when people had expected to do well from a change but were subsequently thwarted: *“they would have thought that the acquisition should have been an enhancement of their responsibilities not a diminution of it.”* P7 also develops the self-interest motivation by identifying people resisting because they do not like change or want to change, even when they perceive it is required: *“It's like, “I'm going to resist that because I don't want to change, but I recognise the need to change, but I just don't want to do it.”* P7's description provides a clear example of destructive discontent, as the need for change is recognised but is resisted for reasons that are not constructive but motivated by a negative form of self-interest; clinging to the status quo for reasons that are self-serving.

Self-interest is identified in the literature as a negative reason to resist a change from the organisation's perspective (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis, et al., 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Sklar, 2018; Waddell & Sohal, 1998). However, I argue that from the perspective of the

resistor, self-interest might be a case of resisting for 'self-preservation' when jobs are at risk: *“But the alternative for most of them were either you went to an agency or your job disappeared, so it would be redundancy, so there was real concern about themselves, their families and their livelihood”* (P11). In addition to resistance to protect jobs, P6 also describes resistance to a proposed reduction in pay related to an activity that was not profitable:

(they were) getting paid something like £15 an hour, and I said, “Right, we’re going to pay people something like £7 an hour. [...] so I’d been halving (their) pay and asking (them) to do stuff (they) didn’t want to do, because I said, “It’s just not viable. And either that or we’re going to have to stop your activity.

The affected person was thus having their pay cut with the alternative threat of losing their work as what they delivered was not viable from the organisation's perspective. This highlights the discrepancy between what might serve the interests of the organisation but would impact significantly upon the interests of the individual. Self-interest as a form of self-preservation to protect pay and jobs thus emerges. I associate this with the “safety needs” Maslow (1943, p. 376) identifies; people are effectively resisting through the psychological motivation of safety or self-preservation. Whilst such resistance is understandable, from a managerialist perspective it would not be considered acceptable as what the resisters defend is not sustainable.

P9 experienced resistance motivated by both self-interest in the form of preserving their independence (the status quo) and altruism to protect their stakeholders: *“But our particular manager didn’t want a change. [...] So when we had our Board meetings, (they) would try and persuade us as a Board that it wasn’t good for (their) service users.”* P9 interprets the manager's real motive for resistance being to protect their job which the change put under threat, whilst expressing concern for stakeholders. They also encountered other resistance from agencies seeking to both protect their independence and the services to stakeholders.

But then when we had a meeting with all the advice agencies in the city, there was uproar. “No, we’re not doing that! We’ll lose our independence. We’re not going to be part of a big organisation because we have a unique set of stakeholders and we deliver unique services.

These examples illustrate resistance simultaneously from both sides of the self-interest and altruism dualism, as the resistance protects both themselves and others. P11 similarly describes two reasons for resistance, one that might be considered self-interest and the other associated with values: “Some people objected in terms of principle and other people just resisted from the point of view of, “I can see this having a long-term damaging effect on my employment,” and some people thought both those things.” When considering self-interest as a destructive reason to resist, it therefore depends upon the perspective. From a managerialist perspective (Bradutanu, 2015) seeking organisational benefit, such resistance would be harmful; but from an individual employee perspective it is linked to personal survival.

The literature portrays resistance motivated by self-interest (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Waddell & Sohal, 1998) or its antithesis, altruism (Brooks, 2003; De Cremer, et al., 2016). I challenge this dualism by proposing that resistance can be simultaneously motivated by both self-interest (if resistance to preserve one's employment is negatively interpreted) and altruism (out of concern for others) and depict this challenge to the dualism in Figure 24.

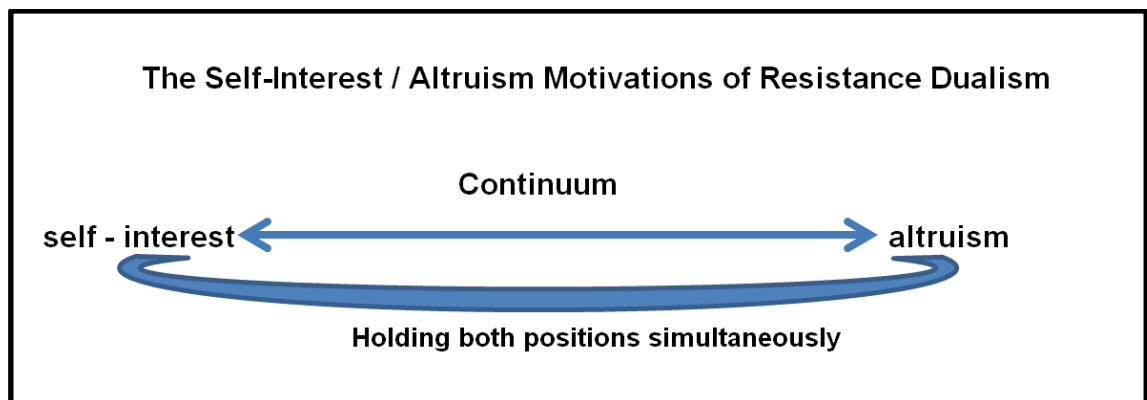


Figure 24

Figure 24 illustrates how resistance motivated by both ends of the self-interest/altruism dualism can be *simultaneously* held. It thereby challenges the assumptions in the literature that resistance is either for negative (self-interest) or positive (altruistic) reasons, *thereby advancing Objective 4 and Question 6 related to problematization.*

I also argue that resistance can be simultaneously constructive and destructive. P6 describes how an employee resisted change aimed at making the organisation's activities more profitable. The change was imposed and the resistor left the organisation and subsequently expressed resistance publicly by going to the press:

And (they) kept saying, "No, no, no," and the resistance kept coming and coming. So we said, "Okay, I'm just going to do it" and I did it, and on the Monday, the front page of the local rag, "[...] manager is a nightmare."

However, P6 proceeds to describe how a consequence of this public resistance proved beneficial to the organisation: *"in the second page of that rag was an advert for the new activity, but I didn't need the advert, the front page sorted it for me, and 130 people turned up the following Tuesday."* P6's story recounts publically aired, overt resistance to a change which was also quite personal in nature. However whilst the intention of the resistance is interpreted as destructive, the outcome was positive for the organisation as the exposure generated business. I therefore challenge the simple dualism of resistance being good/constructive or bad/destructive as the same act can be interpreted as being both, depending upon whether the focus is upon the intention or the outcome. Figure 25 depicts how this works with the arrows indicating how the intent and outcome of resistance can result in the same act of resistance being considered constructive, destructive or both.

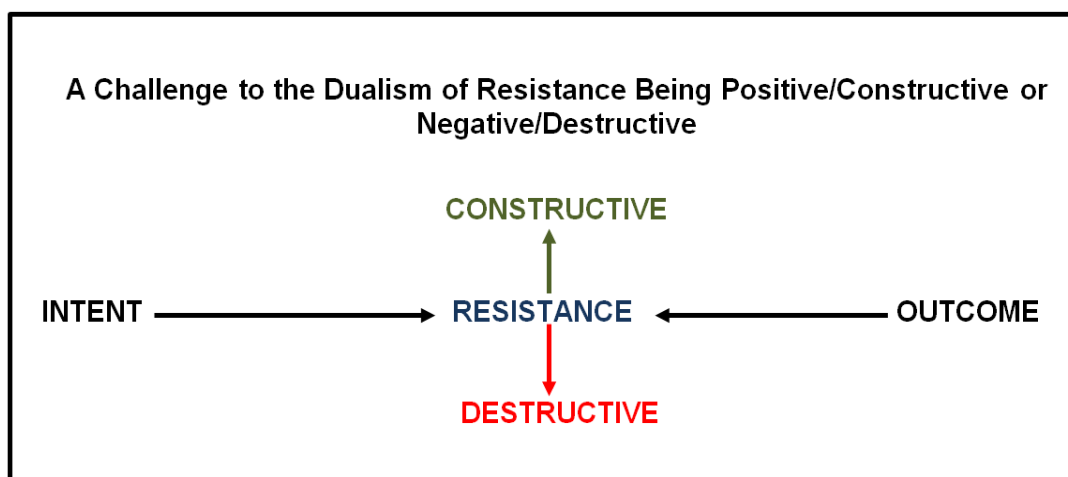


Figure 25

I therefore argue that the dualism within the literature of resistance being good/constructive or bad/destructive is overly simplistic. It is more nuanced than this. It may indeed be constructive, helping the change, or destructive, harming the change, but it may also be both simultaneously depending upon whether one views it through the lens of the *intent* or *outcome*.

Through the problematization of the simple constructive/destructive dualism I advance Objective 4 and Question 6. Through identifying the motivations of altruism, self-interest and protection of the status quo to resistance, I advance Objective 3 and Question 5 related to why people resist change.

4.3.2: Resistance that is Detrimental to the Organisation

In discussing the Value Dimension, the thesis now progresses through further consideration of resistance that is harmful to the organisation, thereby advancing Objective 2.

Detrimental resistance appears in both my theoretical and conceptual frameworks. Empirical material emerges relating to how it can have a damaging effect on productivity and sales, and increases costs: *“Resistance to change can disrupt the change process and severely damage productivity during the change and beyond”* (P2). P1 also highlights how resistance can *“sub-optimize”* processes. Such *“sub-optimisation”* also impacts people as P5 and P8 describe adverse impact on morale: *“I think there are costs on morale, because when resistance exists, it’s not necessarily everybody, so you can drag people down”* (P8). Resistance can thus lower morale and three participants propose that it can also lead to heightened tensions between colleagues: *“there are more spikes, because the stress levels are slightly higher, because, “Oh, my God, there’s change. We don’t know what to do.” Then whatever is underlying, it’s going to spike higher”* (P5).

Resistance thus leads to lowered morale and heightened tensions and P9 also suggests that the way people express their resistance might also fuel a negative atmosphere: *“some of them were quite rude, [...] they were quite willing to slag others off if they didn’t get their own way, which I found quite amazing in public meetings for that to happen.”* Regarding the communication of resistance, three

participants propose that resistance should be appropriately expressed and P9 vocalises here their shock when it is not. These comments provide an example of Dmytriyeu et al.'s (2016) description of disagreements being articulated in a negative manner which amounts to venting rather than providing a constructive contribution. Such behaviour provides support for the argument that people can be put off by how a message is delivered (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Ford & Ford, 2010) and that managing such resistance takes strength (Ford & Ford, 2009).

Participants' stories thus illustrate the negative impact of resistance. This negative aspect of the Value Dimension advances Objective 2 and Question 3, and will be further explored through an examination of the negative impacts of withdrawal which also emerge.

4.3.3: Withdrawal

An extreme method of expressing resistance to change is to resign. Withdrawal is identified within the literature (Aslam, Ilyas, Imran & Rahman, 2016; Kiefer, 2002; Oreg et al., 2011; Oreg et al., 2018) and it can manifest as developing the intention or desire to quit because of the change (Castillo, Fernandez, & Sallan, 2018; Oreg et al., 2011). Dependent upon the perspective taken, this may be a good or bad thing; good if a negative impact on morale or productivity has been caused, or bad as it means that the organisation loses the employees skills, experience, potential to provide valuable feedback and causes recruitment costs. Resignation is a direct form of resisting a change: "*And they wanted me to stay [...] and I said I'm not, I'm going*" (P14).

I was just disenchanted [...] so I thought, "I'll get out of there" and I went to the private sector (P11).

P11 and P14 both left the organisation as a method of resisting change and P14 also describes successful salespeople leaving when new managers sought to tell them how to do their job: "*and we're going to tell you how to do this, and people who've made a lot of money go [...] I'm not having it. So they left.*" Withdrawing entirely from the change thus emerges as a form of resistance.

Partial withdrawal was also described by three participants to the extent of employing a "working to contract" attitude: "*I think it was a [...] disengagement*

really that was the main form and a just kind of working to contract I suppose. [...] nobody was particularly bothered about being helpful either” (P4). P6 also highlights an informal method of working to contract: *“Certainly in that group it was there was a bit of ‘work to rule’ and not in a very formal sense” (P6).* Resistance through withdrawal can thus manifest as doing no more than the bare minimum required.

Withdrawal of this nature is based upon negativity towards the changed organisation. P10 suggests that a negative mind-set can lead to inaccuracies stemming from resistant attitudes. Their example describes the impact of management cancelling a training programme in which resistance had been expressed:

and the Emerging Leaders, many of them came from the warehouse. They were like supervisors. Theirs was pulled as well, and bear in mind they work in a warehouse where accuracy is so, so important. If they were like us and they weren’t as motivated, how many mistakes or maybe things didn’t happen in the warehouse that should have happened because of it? Actually, I don’t know if they really realised what they were doing, what impact they had by just pulling it.

Through considering the negative aspect of destructive discontent within the Value Dimension, I thus find multiple examples of the problems it causes for the organisation. These include delays, reduced productivity, inaccuracies, resignations, lowered morale and reduced engagement exhibited through informally working to contract or the total withdrawal or resignation. Such negative examples of resistance are typical of the traditional conceptualisation of resistance (Thomas and Hardy, 2011; Waddell and Sohall, 1998) and through identifying them I advance *Objective 2 and Question 3*; by identifying withdrawal and resignation as acts of resistance I further advance *Objective 3 and Question 6* regarding how resistance manifests.

The discussion of the Value Dimension now progresses through the consideration of organisational sabotage.

4.3.4: Resistance and Sabotage

Sabotage is portrayed within the literature as a negative resistant behaviour (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999; Ford and Ford, 2010; Morrison & Milliken; 2000; Moss-Kanter, 2012; Nevis, 1987), damaging to the organisation. I therefore

portray sabotage within the Theoretical Framework of Constructive Discontent (Figure 8) as a manifestation of destructive discontent. However no examples of this negative form of sabotage emerge from the empirical material. I did however interpret P14's story of resistance as a form of sabotage, but not as the pejorative phenomenon that appears in the literature as it clearly benefitted the organisation.

US parent company continually changing their range, and trying to persuade/force UK subsidiary to follow suit. We wanted to be constant and continue to support existing, growing products and ignore what we considered to be spurious and non-relevant developments. We therefore paid lip service to the US requirements by 'launching,' but in a sufficiently low key way so as to ensure they failed, did not distract from the main, but looked like we were trying to the US parent. We were successful in blocking the change, and, as it happened, the products were a failure in the US market, so we were also off the hook that way.

P14's story is one of not cooperating with instructions to change and instead sabotaging the change by setting it up for failure. This resulted in their Division continuing to make profit for the organisation, a benefit which was subsequently recognised by the change agent:

I can remember one classic meeting where (they) said [...] "Well how have we managed all this?" And I said, "Well basically we've done this, which I know is what you don't want." And (they) said, "So you didn't tell me and you've gone ahead and done it without telling me?" And I said, "Well yes." He said, "Well it's a bloody good job you did isn't it?"

They were effectively resisting a bad change to pursue a perfectly good existing strategy, as advocated by Huy and Mintzberg (2003). P14's story of sabotaging a change turns on its head the traditional conceptualisation of sabotage. Sabotage is depicted in the literature as being a negative, harmful behaviour (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999; Ford & Ford, 2010; Morrison & Milliken; 2000; Moss-Kanter, 2012; Nevis, 1987) but in this instance it was undertaken to resist a bad change and support the company to be profitable. I therefore argue that the assumption in the literature that resisting by sabotaging change is a bad thing, is overly simplistic and *thereby advance Objective 6 and Question 7 associated with problematization*. Indeed this example of sabotage is more appropriately interpreted as constructive discontent as it is a form of resistance that proved beneficial to the organisation.

I capture in Figure 26 the multidimensionality of sabotage as a constructive phenomenon based on my findings, and a destructive phenomenon based on the literature's conceptualisation. The arrows indicate intent, outcome and who applies the label. The perceptions of sabotage are divided between those of the literature/change agent and the change recipient/my empirical material. The literature's views are ascribed to change agents that view resistance in the traditional manner, identifying sabotage negatively. The positive conceptualisation, based on my empirical material, is ascribed to those change recipients committing sabotage as a means of supporting the organisation by protecting it from a bad change. When sabotage leads to organisational benefit, as emerged in the findings of this research, the negative conceptualisation of it is challenged. Where it leads to costly delays etc. it reinforces change agents' and the literature's negative conceptualisation of it. When the outcome of sabotage is negative, it is argued that the change recipient will perceive this as the expected cost of change based on the expectation that successful change takes time, as proposed by P10. Where the outcome of resistance/sabotage is positive, the change recipients' perception is that this is to be expected as it is the reason why they resisted a poor change.

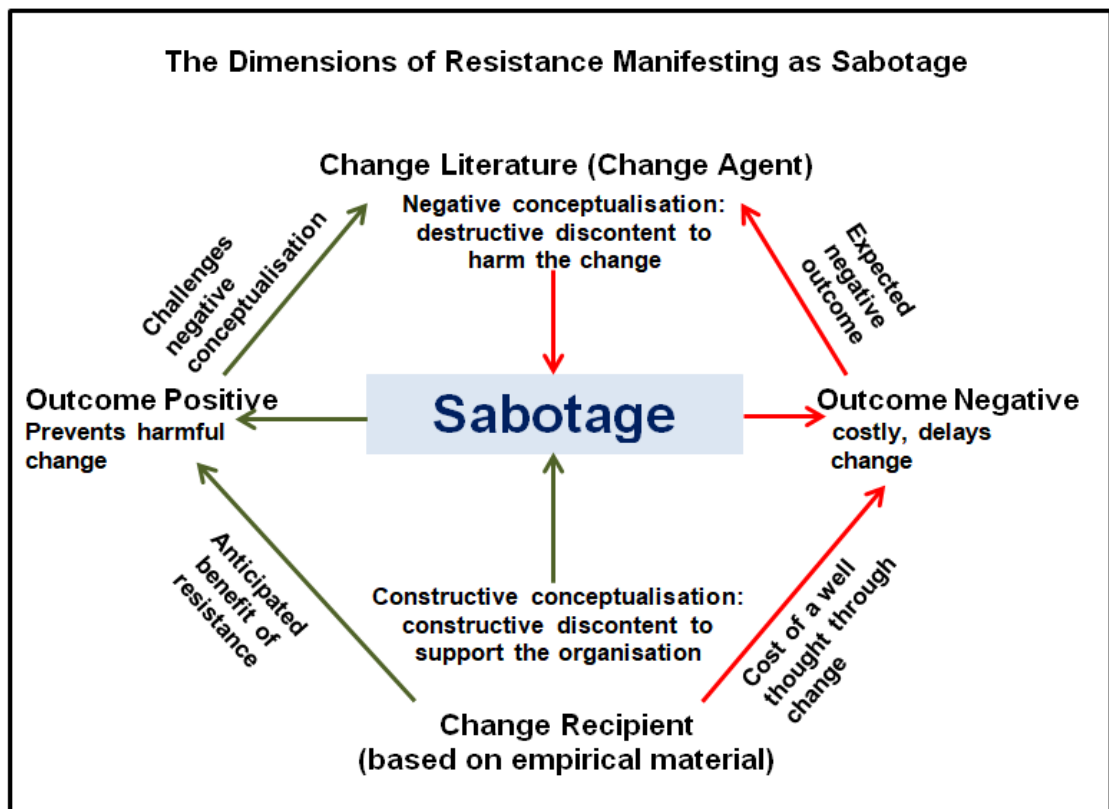


Figure 26

I thus employ my findings to build on the literature's simplistic depiction of sabotage 24 to capture its nuanced, multidimensional nature. I challenge the assumption that it is a negative method of resisting change by portraying it in a more nuanced manner than its rudimentary, pejorative conceptualisation in the literature. I thereby advance *Objective 4 and Question 7, regarding problematization; Objective 3 and Question 6 related to how people resist and Objective 2 regarding the positive and negative perspectives of constructive discontent.*

4.3.5: Section Summary

This section concerns the negative conceptualisation of resistance to change; the destructive discontent element of my theoretical and conceptual frameworks (Figures 8 and 17). Participants' stories reveal that this negative form of resistance to change can take many forms and, consistent with descriptions in the literature, examples emerged of resistance to protect the status quo for reasons of self-interest, and just not wanting to change whilst recognising that change is needed. Participants also describe how people resist through withdrawal by resigning or working to rule, and rudeness. Examples also emerge of the negative impacts of resistance: the lowering of morale, demotivation, inaccuracies potentially occurring and the damaging effect on productivity. All are negative aspects of resistance or destructive discontent, and support the conventional picture of resistance in the literature.

Based on empirical material I also find resistance to survive, to protect jobs or prevent loss of income. From a managerialist perspective, this may be interpreted as self-interest. From a critical perspective I challenge such privileging of organisational interests. Based on the findings I also argue that people can resist for reasons of self-interest and altruism, simultaneously holding the two positions on opposing ends of the dualism. I therefore challenge the underlying assumption of the literature's either/or dualism. Thomas and Hardy (2011) argue that the literature either demonises or celebrates resistance. I propose that those that resist are neither demons nor angels but may be both simultaneously.

Through my findings of the deliberate sabotage of a change, I challenge the negative conceptualisation of sabotage within the change literature. Sabotage has the potential to be constructive. On this basis I problematize the literature, challenging the underlying negative assumption it makes about sabotage, thereby *advancing Objective 4 and Question 7*.

4.4: Constructive and Destructive Content

Having considered the positive and negative elements of resistance, or discontent, I progress this chapter on the Value Dimension by discussing my findings related to the constructive and destructive elements of content, which may take the form of compliance, silence or agreement. Figure 27 shows the constructive and destructive aspects of content within the theoretical framework.

Constructive and Destructive Content within the Theoretical Framework

	Constructive	Destructive
Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Acceptance, enthusiasm and active support for the change. - Opposing views have been sought and constructive agreement reached. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No need to change. - No challenge offered or sought. - The appearance of acquiescence or support which may be: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Groupthink (Janis 1971) - Premature agreement - the fear of disagreement as destructive leads people to rush too quickly into a superficial and unhelpful agreement (Darwin, 2004) - the 'silent meeting' where everyone appears to be in agreement, while privately they are not (Dann, 2008). - agreement at a rational level, and therefore no objections raised but disagreement at an emotional level (Piderit, 2000)
Discontent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Resistance as a valuable form of feedback (Ford and Ford) (2009) - resistance as a means of avoiding groupthink. - solicited resistance to ensure a plan is well thought through. - resistance to prevent harm to the organisation. - resistance for the "common good." (Paton and McCalman, 2008, p. 54) - Roles: Devil's Advocate; Sage Fool 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The traditional view of resistance to change. - Sabotage. - Resistance motivated by self-interest.

With acknowledgements to my supervisor, Darwin, J. for assistance in developing this framework.

Figure 27

I analysed my empirical material through this theoretical framework to create a conceptual framework (Figure 28).

Conceptual Framework of Constructive and Destructive Content

	CONSTRUCTIVE	DESTRUCTIVE
CONTENT	<p>1. Promotions to board resulting in good communications with management team.</p> <p>2. Change is desired.</p>	<p>Choosing not to resist</p> <p>1. Fear:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - worries for job security if resist. - Compliance through fear. - "Yes-men" through fear. <p>2. Time:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No time to resist. - Bad experiences linked to resisting in past <p>3. No point in resisting:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - fait accompli - compulsion - no response <p>4. Paid compliance: "goldplated" contracts and so good packages if made redundant (self-interest.)</p> <p>5. No overt resistance, but rubbish the change privately.</p> <p>6. Silence:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - lack of confidence - lack of trust

Figure 28

I progress this section through considering my findings related to the elements of content that are both constructive and destructive, thereby progressing Objective 2.

4.4.1: Constructive Content

Constructive content is conceptualised as a lack of resistance, hence the content, because people are happy with the changes being proposed and how they are being managed. P10 describes support for a planned change:

so these Senior [...] Managers became Directors [...] They came back from the Board meetings and they reported findings and information to their senior teams [...], so information flow was improved, which was good. [...] so I think the new guy [...] started to improve that process of communication. And so there wasn't really any resistance from what he wanted to do.

P10 highlights a lack of resistance as staff were happy with the changes which resulted in improvements to communications. The literature highlights the importance of good communications in change management (Bradutanu, 2015; Carnall, 2007; Ford & Ford, 2010; Senior and Swailes, 2010; Wachira and Anyieni, 2017) and how it promotes successful change initiatives.

However, I propose that you can't always please everyone; that the change may be welcomed by some but not others. P1 describes such an occurrence, when some staff desired the change: *"You found that the people on the shop floor were the ones that wanted the improvements"* but the changes were less welcome by some of the middle-management who did not like being measured through Key Performance Indicators. P10 also initially supported a proposed change, but highlights how support was less forthcoming by others: *"However, it sounded good, and I bought in, [...] But the thing is, there were some people still sceptical."* Based on this evidence I argue that constructive content occurs when the change has been well communicated and is perceived by change recipients as being beneficial.

I indicate within the theoretical framework that constructive content can occur when opposing views are sought and agreement has been reached. I did not find an explicit example of this within the empirical material, but argue it is present implicitly in P14's story which describes using a colleague to test out ideas to check their value: *"I knew I could always push against (them) [...] I either had to sell it to (them) or where I was coming from was the wrong place."* P14 thus seeks challenge or resistance prior to introducing a change. Empirical material thereby leads me to argue that there were some examples of constructive content within my participants' organisations, but that this might be located within pockets of people rather than across the whole organisation, and might occur as a result of resistance being solicited. Nevis (1987) advocates such solicitation of resistance, whilst other techniques to generate opposing views are proposed in the literature (Darwin, 2004; De Cremer, et al., 2016; George & Stern, 2003; Reissner, et al., 2011). P14's example and the literature thereby propose the value of securing resistance to delivering an appropriate, accepted change.

A drawback of change being initially accepted by the recipients, however, is that unless it is actively sought, as P14 describes, change agents may lack feedback from which to improve the change which may compromise its successful implementation (Oreg, et al., 2018). This negative aspect of 'content' is discussed in the following section.

4.4.2: Destructive Content

Within the theoretical framework (Figure 8) I highlight how destructive content can manifest. It might appear as no challenge being offered or sought. If a change has been proposed, it could be a result of groupthink (Janis, 1971) or ambivalence (Piderit, 2000) whereby there is agreement at a rational level, and so no objections are raised, but disagreement at an emotional level. It could also take the form of premature agreement, when disagreement is feared to be destructive and so people rush too quickly into a superficial and unhelpful agreement (Darwin, 2004). Finally there are the silent meetings where people appear to be in agreement but privately they are not (Dann, 2008) which could be a result of fear or be a case of "yes-(wo)men". Such 'content', or lack of resistance, is conceptualised with the negative connotations associated with the concept of organisational silence (Hughes, 2007; Morrison & Milliken, 2000) and Dmytriiev et al.'s (2016, p. 32) "climate of silence." The concepts that emerge from my material related to destructive content link to some of these concepts identified in the literature, and extend beyond them. The section progresses as these findings are discussed and *advance Objective 2*.

4.4.2.1: Fear, a Lack of Trust and Futility

Fear is proposed by three Participants to explain why people remained silent: *"what I'm trying to say is the culture, the environment wasn't really allowing for resistance because I think people thought if they were resistant they would just be the next to go"* (P2). Fear is thus a cause of destructive content, or negative compliance, as people fear to speak out. Indeed, P7 describes how one senior manager was perceived as frightening: *"my boss [...] described the Managing Director as 'menacing.' [...] So my boss described (their) boss as menacing."*

Such attitudes are likely to generate fear and P10 also describes an example of a senior manager using threats to secure compliance by generating fear around job security: *"(they) just flipped, (they) just said, "If you think it's wrong, go to the door."* This is an example of a senior manager shutting down questioning about a new strategy by telling managers to leave if they do not like it, thereby securing their compliance. Destructive content, or negative compliance, is also described by P6 as feeling compelled to comply: *"quite a few either went with the change or felt they had to go with the change."* A sense of compulsion, rather than genuine

belief in the change, also resonates through P7's words: *"I think it was really just get on with it and do as you're told, and I think a lot of people thought, "Keep your head down and get on with it".*

Such compulsion and a climate of fear create yes-people: *"it makes everyone else, "My god, is my job safe?" [...] people were afraid to tell him it was a load of rubbish. People were just, "Oh yes, yes, it's good, this is good" (P10).* P14 also describes a climate of fear leading to yes-people and problems for the organisation:

people realised that with the guy at Head Office, the new one coming in and seeing all these other people off and recruiting people, they were just being yes people [...] so you could see it going wrong from that.

Turning staff into yes-people is thus identified as harmful to the organisation and the benefit of challenge and avoiding yes-people is highlighted by Caguitla (2014). P7 shares a similar example of similar destructive content, describing yes-people leading to managers being unaware of problems: *"No one will stand up to (them) and say, "It's a load of rubbish," [...] "It's not doing any good." So I think (they) probably (were) oblivious to the fact, (they) thought it was going well and it obviously wasn't".* Based on participants' stories, I argue that potential harm for the organisation arises when people fear to reveal their true feelings and so say what they think managers wish to hear, resulting in managers making decisions based on distorted feedback. Destructive content, as compliance through fear, can therefore be harmful to the organisation. P2 provides an example of a specific problem caused by a lack of resistance:

I think the resistance could have had a purpose. It could have ensured a better selection if people had argued back and said, "We want a better selection process," then perhaps they would have ended up with better people. But that didn't happen.

A lack of challenge thus had a specific negative impact.

Dann (2008) describes silent meetings as a form of destructive content. P14 describes silence in meetings which they interpret as being linked to a lack of confidence and trust.

I'd say something really outlandish and expect to get smacked back and [...] the two people closest to me, they would definitely say, "You

can't do that." Others would just sit there and think, what am I supposed to say? Because they didn't feel confident enough in their position, even though I said, "Look, it's okay to say no.

Here a leader is actively seeking challenge but being denied it due to cultural problems associated with lack of trust. Strebler (1997) associates culture to the amount of resistance provided (or not) arguing that the strength of resistance a change generates is dependent upon how people may benefit or lose and how the organisation's culture directs how they respond to change. This suggests that detecting organisational silence and challenging it is not enough, it will require cultural change to create a culture where people feel comfortable debating issues.

Morrison and Milliken (2000) argue that collective sense-making tends to create exaggerated assessments of the perils and pointlessness of speaking out. They thereby propose a sense of the futility of resistance, and Participants identify it as a negative reason for compliance, making it destructive content. P4 describes a change being a fait accompli: *"we didn't [...] resist it so much [...] because it was presented to us as almost an accomplished fact and we went through the consultation process knowing that it was a done deal."* P10 also describes a lack of response as a reason not to question: *"you think, "Am I going to get anywhere with it if I do?" You're not going to get a response."* Jones and Van de Ven (2016, p. 500) also identify the negative impact of resistance being unaddressed, arguing that if it is disregarded it may rankle resulting in a reduction in employee effectiveness and commitment. This argument describes P10's experience. Destructive content is therefore created when people think there is no point to resisting as it will not accomplish anything. Morrison and Milliken (2000, p. 722) argue that there is "compelling anecdotal evidence" of people feeling there is no point to speaking out as it is useless or dangerous. *I hereby provide empirical material to support this.*

Destructive content, whether through fear or a sense of futility, is evidently not constructive or genuine compliance, when people secretly speak against the change. I identify this form of destructive content from Participants' stories of covertly rubbishing the change: *"Not overtly resist. I think we used to talk to each other and say, "What's all this rubbish?" (P7).* Such behaviour is identified in

Morrison and Milliken's (2000, p. 706) description of organisational silence, whereby: "Behind the safety of closed doors and in veiled whispers, they talk of their leader's lack of clothing. They all clearly know that the CEO is naked, but only the foolish or naive dare to speak of it in public." This metaphor, drawing on the story of The Emperor's New Clothes, clearly illustrates organizational silence in action, how it is born of fear, and it describes P7's experience.

4.4.2.2: Issues of Time

Destructive content may also be caused by a lack of time. P2 raises three issues related to time causing lack of resistance or compliance. The first example is the lack of time: "*nobody resisted it because there was no chance to resist it*". The second relates to not being ready to resist at a specific point in time: "it was just disbelief at that point." P2's third example details how past experiences of resistance can create a psychological scar, and impact upon present and future behaviour, preventing future resistance and generating compliance: "*that affected me for quite a long time actually and after that [...] I just was happy to have a job and I refused point blank to get involved in any industrial action or any complaints.*" This links to Piderit's (2000) argument that people will rarely resist without first considering the potentially negative consequences of doing so. In this case the participant's past experience was so traumatic that it precludes them from future resistance, and the organisation therefore lost any potential benefit that might have been derived from their feedback (Ford & Ford, 2009).

There are thus three temporal causes of destructive content or compliance: no time, problems resisting at that specific point in time, and past events impacting upon current and future compliance.

4.4.2.3: Purchasing Compliance

It emerges that 'content' may also be effectively purchased by the organisation. P7 suggests that compliance was bought either by generous redundancy packages, hospitality, or promotions:

people had been there a long time [...] on a gold-plated contract, so if they made you redundant, they paid you a lot of money to go [...] a lot of the older people were happy to go early, because basically they were paying them to stay at home!

I think there was some resistance [...] but because we were going to a nice conference centre and we were looked after and everything, it wasn't so resisted.

I can imagine that if there was any resistance, there wouldn't have been for long, because (they were) basically promoting people to the Board, the senior people who had probably been against the [...] with the previous Managing Director.

Having discussed compliance generated through fear, P7's examples indicate the opposite; compliance effectively being secured through forms of generosity. From a managerialist perspective, although compliance might superficially make life easier it is not necessarily beneficial to the organisation because, as Ash (2009) argues, simple compliance does not automatically lead to successful change. Negative compliance is thus destructive content.

4.4.3: Section Summary

I identify a multiplicity of causes of destructive content which potentially damages the organisation as leaders find themselves surrounded by yes-people and lacking constructive challenge. Within the literature coercion (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2015) and getting ridding of resistant staff (Bradutanu, 2015) are proposed as methods of leading change. Negative compliance may be the child born of such tactics. Change leaders surrounding themselves with the resulting yes-people are identified as a problem, which Caguitla (2014) also cautions against.

Destructive content or negative compliance is also secured or caused by a multiplicity of other means including: hospitality; promotions; generous redundancy packages; the futility of resistance and issues related to time. Organisations thus achieve compliance, or destructive content, in a variety of ways. Within the literature it is proposed that such compliance is damaging. Dimitriadis et al. (2016) advise to listen for such organisational silence as it is not a desirable feature. Ash (2009, n.p.) also argues that such compliance is a more challenging problem than resistance to change as it is difficult to detect.

Based on the empirical material, I argue that a lack of resistance to change, destructive content (Dann, 2018), compliance (Ash, 2009) and organisational silence (Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Hughes, 2007; Morrison & Milliken, 2000) are

similar and emerge as a multidimensional concept. The problems such lack of resistance causes are highlighted by participants and in the literature (Ash, 2009; Dann, 2008; Dimitriadis et al, 2016). Destructive content is a form of the "Climate of close-mindedness and discontent" which Dmytriyeu et al. (2016, p. 33) describe as a culture whereby managers make it clear that they are not accepting of disagreements until ultimately challenge is suppressed and "a norm of silence, conformance and discontent pervades"; this description encapsulates the experiences of my Participants.

Destructive content thus emerges for my participants as a phenomenon rich in its multidimensionality. I capture its multidimensional nature in Figure 29 whereby the findings of this research are denoted in black text and those proposed by the literature, but lacking empirical material to support it, are in blue text. The arrows indicate directions: the causes of destructive content, how that destructive content manifests and its outcomes.

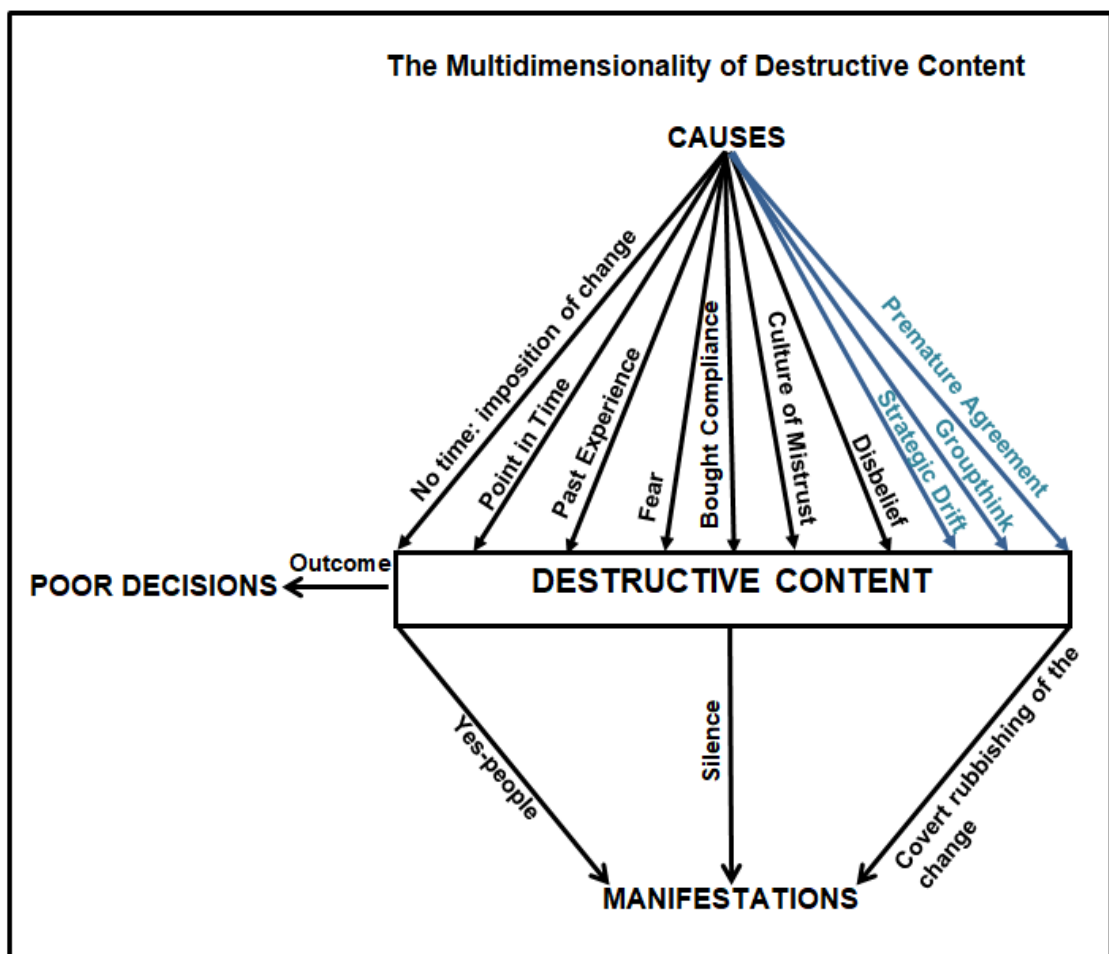


Figure 29

I thus depict destructive content and its causes, manifestations and outcomes within a single conceptualisation and argue that the absence of resistance provides a form of destructive content (Dann, 2008). I also find examples of constructive content whereby change is desired and the change had benefited the organisation through enhanced communications leading to content. *I thereby advance Objective 2 regarding positive and negative perspectives of resistance and the lack thereof, within the constructive discontent concept.*

4.5: The Neutral Positions

Within the Value Dimension of resistance a neutral position emerges related to constructive discontent. The theoretical framework (Figure 8) focuses upon how the four dimensions of constructive discontent (constructive, destructive, content and discontent) are represented in the literature and so does not contain this neutral position. The neutral positions that emerge empirically are captured in Figure 30.

The Neutral Positions of Resistance

	NEUTRAL
CONTENT	No empirical material
DISCONTENT	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Discontent not with the change but with how it is managed. 2. Believed resistance would make no difference but resisting made them feel better.
NEUTRAL	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Questioning: lack of understanding. 2. Ambivalence or Ambiguity: We need the change but concerned about the impact on staff.

Figure 30

The position of neutral content has no empirical material in support of it; effectively it makes no sense. However, neutral discontent takes a number of forms; a significant one is discontent not with the change itself but resistance to how it is managed or implemented. Six Participants identify this including P4: *“but it goes back to the problem being not necessarily the change itself but the way in which it was handled and communicated”*. Such examples provide evidence of resistance not being directed at the change, but being created by or aimed at the way the change is led. I therefore interpret this as neutral in terms of

being constructive or destructive, because it does not target the change but its management. It is, however, demonstrating discontent. Resistance provoked by the behaviours of those leading change is also highlighted in the literature (Bradutanu, 2015; Ford et al., 2008; Oreg, 2006; Prediscan & Bradutanu, 2003; Senior & Swailes, 2010).

P4 also provides an example of a different type of neutral discontent whereby discontent is expressed but is neither constructive nor destructive as it makes no difference to the organisation. P4 describes expressing frustrations with the change in the knowledge that resistance is futile:

it just made us feel better really. [...] We knew we weren't going to change anything; we weren't looking to disrupt organisational activities, it was just to express our own frustrations really rather than trying to negatively impact on the organisation in any way.

There is thus no intent to cause harm and no harm is done, hence the neutral position, but the participant is experiencing discontent and is expressing it despite knowing it will make no difference. Such knowledge can lead to destructive content, when people see no point in resisting, but here it is neutral discontent because the discontent is expressed but has no impact.

Five participants provide stories from which a Neutral/Neutral position emerges which I interpret as ambivalence or ambiguity. In one manifestation of this people are neither for nor against the change and their behaviour is neither constructive nor destructive, they simply do not understand the need for the change: *"I think it was basically that [...] why do we have to change?" (P1)*. P7 also describe colleagues not understanding why a change is needed: *"they didn't see anything wrong with the company, the company wasn't loss-making."* Within the literature, Piderit (2000) describes ambiguity in relation to change, and P5 provides an example of this:

Then we had a Personnel Director. (They were) moderately supportive. I think (their) approach was, "We need this change. We're in a bit of a mess at the moment. We need this change, but I'm really worried about the impact on staff."

The director understands the need for change but has reservations about the negative impact on staff due to how it was being implemented and the stress it

was causing. They are thus ambivalent about it as they are torn between seeing the need and the negative impact. However, an alternative interpretation of this could be constructive discontent; constructive in the sense that the person supports the change but discontent with the change due to their concerns for the welfare of staff. Questioning to gain understanding may thus be a neutral activity on the part of the change recipient, but it may be interpreted as resistance by the change agent (Bradutanu, 2015; Ford et al., 2008). The implication of this finding is to propose that change agents avoid identifying questioning automatically as a form of resistance, as it may simply link to ambivalence or lack of understanding, indicating the need for improved communications so that the need for change is understood.

However, questioning can also be an expression of discontent when people do not understand the need for change. P5 states that they resist when they do not understand the point of a change: *"when I resist change, it's because I don't understand why this would be positive"* and P6 is explicit that lack of understanding motivates their resistance: *"I think my resistance is when I don't get why."* Lack of understanding also emerges in the literature as an issue when staff query the need for change, preferring the status quo (Ezzamel, Willmott & Worthington, 2001).

I thus propose resistance to change occurs when it is not understood and when the changes are considered to be not needed. Within section 2.8.1 I highlight how the literature identifies that poor communications can lead to resistance and the need for good communications (Bradutanu, 2015; Carnall, 2007; Wachira & Anyieni, 2017; Wittig, 2012); my findings are examples of this. Questioning may therefore be a totally neutral activity related to change, or be perceived and experienced as discontent and so be constructive, destructive or neutral discontent depending upon the outcome.

Thus within the neutral positions of the conceptual framework, by their very nature, there is ambiguity present. This makes the participants' stories particularly open to interpretation and so they may fit more than one area of the framework.

4.5.1: Section Summary

The conceptual framework's (Figure 30) neutral positions have support within the literature regarding ambiguity (Piderit, 2000) and by their very nature are open to interpretation. They may fit more than one area of the conceptual framework depending upon the perspective taken. These neutral positions build on the theoretical conceptualisation of the elements of constructive discontent (Figure 8) to provide the additional neutral dimensions of the conceptual framework (Figure 18). These findings related to the neutral aspects of constructive discontent and resistance *advance Objective 2 and Question 3 regarding the dimensions of constructive discontent.*

4.6: The Value Chapter Conclusion

Objective 2 of this research is to introduce the concept of constructive discontent into the conceptual framework, considering both positive and negative aspects of resistance and the lack thereof. Its underpinning research question is "What dimensions of constructive discontent can be interpreted in the narratives of the participants?" Within this chapter I have met this objective and answered this question.

I constructed a theoretical framework based on four dimensions of constructive discontent (Figure 8) that emerge from the literature and analysed my material through this framework to create a conceptual framework (Figure 18) based on the empirical material. I considered all the positive and negative dimensions of resistance to change, and the lack thereof, and also identified neutral aspects that emerged, evidencing each dimension with reference to quotations from participants. Based on empirical evidence from participants' stories I argue that resistance can be constructive, delivering value to the organisation and thereby challenge the traditional conceptualisation of resistance to change in the literature, as a bad thing to be overcome, and support the critical body of literature that positions it positively. I propose that the simple dualism of resistance being good or bad is rather crude, and demonising or celebrating resistance (Thomas & Hardy, 2011) overly simplistic as resistance to change is more nuanced than this. Resistance can deliver positive benefits to the organisation in the form of improving the change or avoiding problems with the change but can also be detrimental, impacting on productivity and morale.

Indeed the same resistance can be both simultaneously. Resistance is interpreted as self-interest masquerading as concern for stakeholders by P9, but from an alternative perspective the manager's concern may have been very real. Resistance can improve change but also demoralise everyone when the resistance is expressed as constant moaning: "*What's the negative impact of moaning? [...] It lowers morale*" (P5). By challenging the traditional negative assumption in the literature regarding resistance, and exposing how resistance is more nuanced than simple good or bad dualism suggests, I advance Objective 4 and Question 7 relating to problematisation and the assumptions I challenge empirically.

Based on the empirical material underpinning this research, I also improve upon Dmytriiev et al.'s (2016) paper regarding the value of constructive disagreements, as it is based upon personal reflections thereby lacking the underpinning of empirical material from participants:

This paper is the result of the insights offered by one of the world's leading ethicists and the reflective thought based on hundreds of discussions by all three authors with practicing managers combining for over 60 years of such engagement.

Their paper is also more broadly based than this research, which focuses specifically upon *resistance to change* as discontent/disagreement. I thereby go beyond their work, through a specific focus upon resistance to change and by grounding my findings in empirical material collected specifically about this phenomenon.

I also analyse each of the other dimensions of constructive discontent, including its antithesis *destructive content* (Dann, 2008) which I associate with the literature on organisational silence. I underpin my arguments with reference to the supporting empirical material and develop Figure 29 which captures its motivations and manifestations. Based on the empirical material, I also propose that people can hold neutral positions, identifying ambivalence (Piderit, 2000) within them. By their very nature these positions are ambiguous and so may also be interpreted as holding alternative positions within the constructive/destructive framework.

When considering the negative aspects of resistance (Objective 2) I also find that resistance may manifest as what the literature negatively conceptualises as self-interest and sabotage. However, self-interest might be more compassionately conceptualised when the resistance is a form of self-preservation, as people struggle to retain their jobs and are concerned for their future welfare. I also find resistance as a result of altruistic motives rooted in concern for others, and suggest that one person can potentially simultaneously hold two apparently opposing motivations for resistance: self-interest and altruism. I thereby challenge the underpinning assumption in the literature that suggests that there is an either/or dualism and thereby *advance Objective 4 and Question 7* regarding problematization.

Based on P14's story of sabotaging a change to preserve a profitable strategy, I challenge the assumption in the change literature that sabotage is a negative act (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Ford & Ford, 2010). Indeed I found no change management literature proposing that sabotage may be a positive phenomenon. My research thus challenges this negative assumption underpinning the conceptualisation of sabotaging change, thereby building upon the existing change literature and *advancing Objective 4 and Question 7* regarding problematization. The implication of this finding is for change agents to consider this phenomenon from a broader perspective than the negative portrayal in the literature.

When discussing the various dimensions of constructive discontent (Objective 2) I also identify a number of motivations (self-interest, protecting the status-quo, fear and altruism) and manifestations (sabotage, withdrawal, covert resistance) of resistance and thereby *advance Objective 3* regarding why and how people resist change. In conclusion, within this chapter *I meet Objective 2 and advance Objectives 3 and 4*. This discussion of The Value Dimension also *advances Objective 1* by providing the first dimension of the multidimensional framework (Figure 1).

Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion: The Character Dimension

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Literature Review
Chapter Three	Methodology
Chapter Four	Findings & Discussion: The Value Dimension
Chapter Five	Findings & Discussion: The Character Dimension
Chapter Six	Findings & Discussion: The Impact Dimension
Chapter Seven	Findings & Discussion: The Actors Dimension
Chapter Eight	Findings & Discussion: The Engagement Dimension
Chapter Nine	Findings & Discussion: The Language Dimension
Chapter Ten	Findings & Discussion: The Temporal Dimension
Chapter Eleven	Findings & Discussion: The Spatial Dimension
Chapter Twelve	Conclusion and Contributions

5.1: Introduction

Through this chapter I advance Objective 1 and Question 2 related to the development of the multidimensional conceptual framework as I discuss the elements constituting what I interpret as the Character Dimension. The Character Dimension of resistance relates to the nature of resistance: the motivations underpinning it and its manifestations (how people resist). This is the second dimension of my “Octagon of Resistance” and Figure 31 indicates where it sits within the overall conceptual framework created through this research.

Dimension 2: The Character Dimension

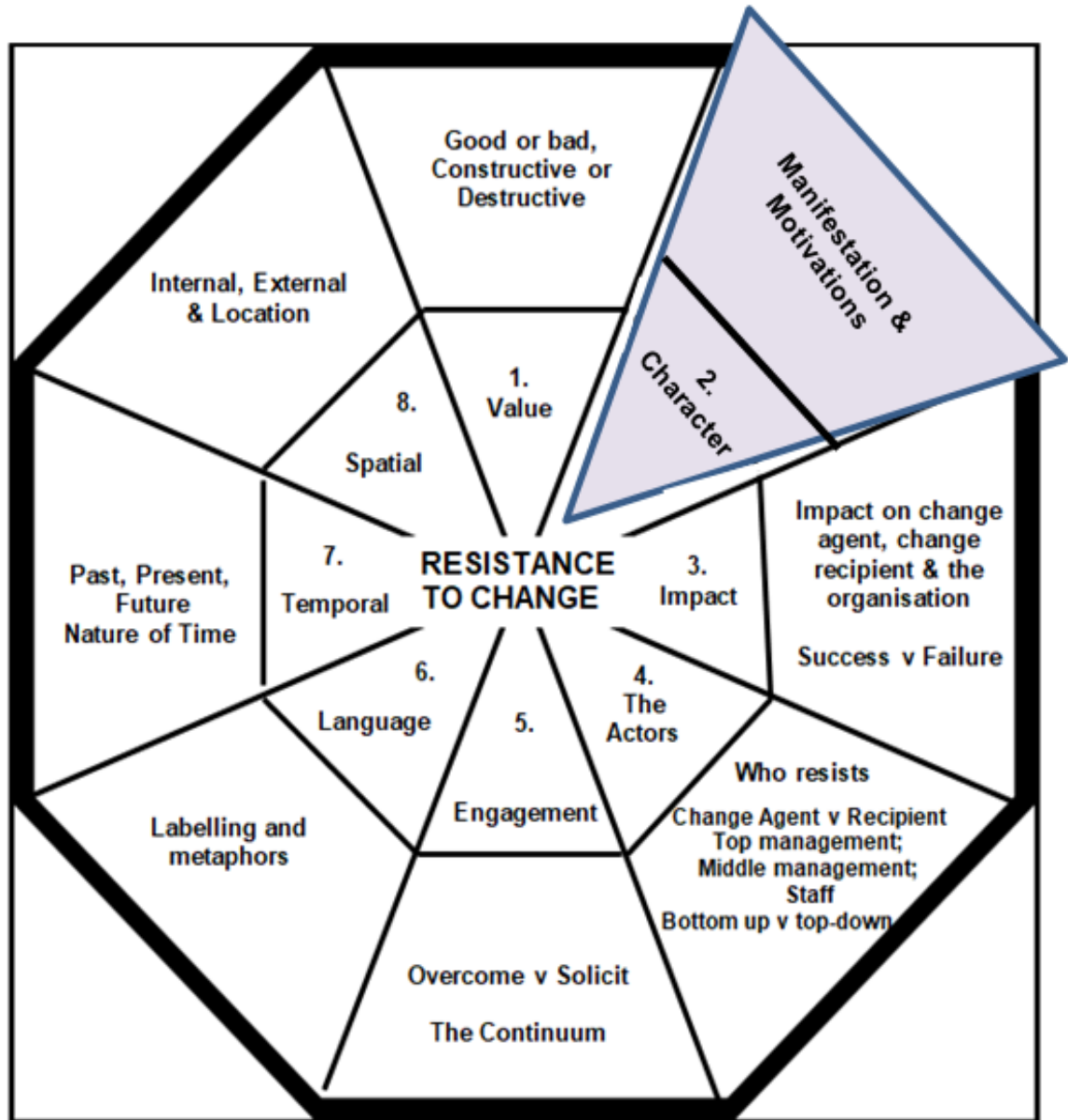


Figure 31

Through this chapter I also advance Objective 3 and Questions 5 and 6 through the discussion of my findings related to participants' experiences of *why* and *how* resistance to change occurs.

5.2: Why People Resist Change:

The reasons I find underpinning resistance support findings in the existing literature (see literature review related to: self-interest; protecting the status quo; politics; fear; resisting not the change but how it is managed). I therefore discuss this theme briefly as it is well covered in the literature and elements were

discussed in the previous chapter regarding resistance being constructive or destructive. My primary focus in this section is upon those motivations that are additional to those discussed earlier.

5.2.1 Self-Interest and Protection of the Status Quo

Resistance motivated by self-interest and a desire to protect the status quo are a key motivation of resistance. My findings related to this are discussed earlier within section 4.3 on Destructive Discontent.

5.2.2: Politics

Change is argued to be inextricably linked to power and politics (Buchanan & Badham, 1997) and political factors including favouritism, point-scoring and threats to powerful stakeholders are cited as motivations of resistance to change (Agocs, 1997; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Cummings & Worley, 2015; Waddell & Sohal, 1998). I found no evidence of these specific motivations, although P1 cited politics more generally as a cause: *"I think to a certain extent [...] it was internal politics as well."* However if, as Buchanan & Badham (1997) argue, protecting your turf is interpreted as a political act, then P6 specifies undertaking this form of political resistance: *"when I do it [...] you have that very view, "I'm trying to look after my bit," so a change that affects my bit negatively, particularly if you don't understand why."* Political resistance thus emerges as protecting one's turf.

Another political act that emerges is the recruitment of others to resist a change. P4 describes working to recruit the organisation's customers to help them resist a change:

we were sort of trying to arm our customers against the bank wasn't really being received particularly favourably by the company itself. And I'm not sure if they ever really knew the extent to which we were doing that, I don't think they did.

Recruiting others to resist is also referred to by P8 who proposes that peer group pressure increased resistance to a redundancy offer that otherwise might not have existed: *"And peer-group, "I'm not going to apply for it and I don't think you should apply for it either"*. I interpret such incitement of others to resist as a political act. People being persuaded to resist provides an example of politics *motivating* resistance, whilst the act of inciting people is to employ politics as a

tool of resistance. Politics is thus a *reason why* people resist change, and is also *how* people resist change.

Participants describe political behaviours which manifested as a form of resistance. P11 even refers to the arch-politician Machiavelli:

I was sort of selective about who I talked to! And if I didn't like them or didn't think they were the right sort of person, I just never ever got round to making an appointment to meet them! So it was quite – you could use words like disloyal to the role that I'd got, Machiavellian almost!

Whilst P11 conceptualises their political behaviour negatively, P5 describes a subtle use of politics by employing influence to support the change when a director

would regularly check in with me [...] and then I would tell (them) what had gone wrong on this particular day and (they) would say, "Oh, how interesting," and then walk away. And then [...] (they) would then go to the Finance Director and say, "Do you really think this is a good idea, do we really need this?"

P11 and P5's stories propose political behaviour to support change; two participants however, encountered political resistance to a change they were leading as a negative behaviour aimed at undermining them. P3 describes being told by members of staff that their line-manager had done this: "*what happened is [...] started to undermine me with one or two people intentionally, [...] people had said, actually, you know, [...] had been sowing a few seeds of discontent*". There are thus examples of politics both motivating resistance, and being an expression of it through inciting others to resist or undermining those leading the change. In addition, P8 describes political activity in the form of *disassociation*; managers resisting by disassociating themselves from a change they don't support: "*I think they were very clear about the fact that the decision wasn't theirs.*"

Subtle forms of resistance as *covert* forms of political activity also emerge. P7 describes ways in which a change was undermined and covertly resisted through "off-the-record" discussions: "*at the senior level there were a lot of discussions, offline, off the record discussions about what was going on, "This is a load of rubbish," sort of thing.*" P11 also describes covert resistance that they became

aware of and sought to address: *“if it was nonverbalised and it was behind my back and things like this, I used to try and get it out”*. I thus find that organisational politics operates both overtly and covertly to explain why and how people resist.

Resistance also occurs for reasons provoked by *National Politics*. P8 provides an example of resistance to a change prompted by national government, which led to a successful organisation being required to close *“because government policy has changed, funding structures have changed, a new government’s come in, this great idea and this great business model still exists, it’s just politically not the right thing to do.”* Politics were also cited by P11 as underpinning some of the resistance they encountered: *“Oh yes, the local authority was – let’s get political here – was Labour and the move was Conservative [...] so there was, large P, Political resistance to the entire thing”*. I thus find organisational politics and national politics underpinning resistance to change. Politics may thus *cause* resistance and also be a *behaviour*, how people resist. In Figure 32 I capture conceptually how the political dimension operates.

Politics: Method and Cause

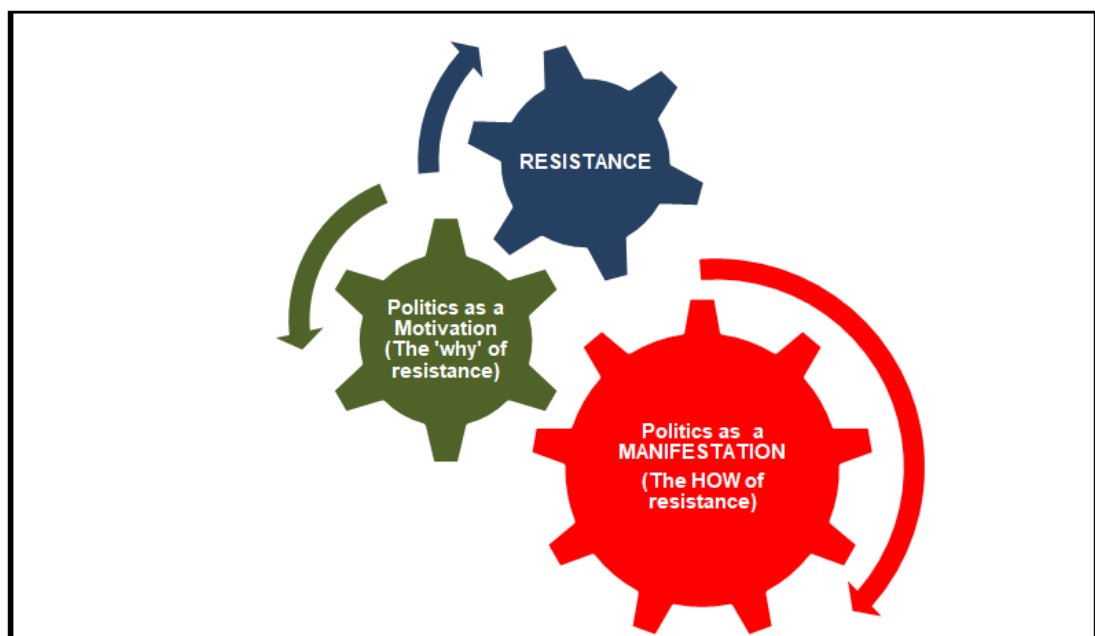


Figure 32

Figure 32 visually depicts how for the participants of this research, politics can be both a manifestation and a motivation of resistance. As a manifestation it is a *method* of resistance, fuelling the motivation to resist in others. These political findings of the Character Dimension *advance Objectives 1 and 3*.

5.2.3: Questioning the Need for Change

As discussed in section 4.5, questioning may be either a neutral activity indicating ambivalence, or the lack of understanding underpinning the questioning may be motivating resistance. Within this section I focus upon my findings related to resistance to changes that are considered to be a wrong intervention.

5.2.4: Resistance to Unnecessary and Ill-Conceived Change

Lack of understanding clearly underpins why some participants question the need for change, and four participants also specifically argue that people resist when they do not understand the need for a change because they believe it to be unnecessary or inappropriate: *“they felt that they didn’t need to [...] because it’s only a financial change and I’m sure we’ll find the money from somewhere”* (P13). Associated with this motivation of change not being needed, is the idea of “if it ain’t broke don’t fix it” which also emerges as a cause of resistance: *“those on the shop floor. I think they couldn’t imagine that it was going to be better than what we were doing before. And it’s the kind of ‘don’t fix it if it ain’t broke’, ‘Why would you want the change?’ (P5)”* In addition to resisting unneeded changes P7’s story suggests an unnecessary change that was pushed through with little impact, other than frustrating staff:

it took a long time to [...] try and implement this process. So I think after two years, it wasn’t working, the bottom line hadn’t improved, so [...] there were a lot of disgruntled staff, [...] senior staff as well as not so senior staff. It hadn’t improved the bottom line one penny. It possibly, maybe, made us a little bit more customer-focused, possibly.

Resistance to such unnecessary change is advocated by Huy and Mintzberg (2003) who propose that there are occasions, such as when an organisation already has a good strategy, that change should be resisted.

Three participants also discuss resistance to changes that were not properly thought through: *“maybe [...] they didn’t think things through [...] and I was*

another thing that they hadn't thought through. The consequences of their actions; they'd never considered really" (P3), and four participants describe resistance to proposed interventions that are considered to be wrong:

it was the people above, because they come from a different environment. They came from an environment of [...] you go in there and you sell once and then you disappear. What we had to do is relationship building, and relationship building takes time [...] But they're saying, "No, actually you just go in there and you get the business and you move on." [...] "Yeah, but if we do that, they won't see us again!" We're trying to tell them that and they wouldn't listen (P10).

These findings link to the Smith's (2012, p. 16) argument that: "Those who advocate change without considering the big picture deserve to have their ideas shot down, and they should learn from the experience rather than complain about resistance to change". Resistance can thus be rooted in care for the organisation through opposition to what is considered to be unnecessary or ill-conceived change.

I now progress the Character Dimension chapter, advancing Objectives 1 and 3, through a focus upon findings of resistance motivated by care or dislike of stakeholders.

5.2.5: Resistance Rooted in Care or Dislike of Stakeholders and Values

Resistance rooted in the care of others is discussed in section 4.2.4 as a form of constructive discontent. This care for others may link to a person's principles or values and Gianfranco (2002) highlights how those resisting may do so with positive intentions which may be linked to their values.

Values, or principles, are raised by P11 as a factor motivating resistance: "*There was a lot of concern in those days for the idea of business people running what, in effect, was a lot of public sector money.*" In addition to principles related to who should control public money, P11 also highlights concerns for employee rights: "*there were multiple layers of resistance and [...] mainly from similar angles, either on a matter of principle or in terms of protecting employees' rights*" and "*Some people objected in terms of principle and other people just resisted from the point of view of, "I can see this having a long-term damaging effect on my employment," and some people thought both those things.*" In relating their

story P11 thus highlights a number of issues: resistance can be both motivated by matters of principle, care for others, concern for oneself, or a mixture of these. P9 similarly describes a manager seeking to protect stakeholder interests and their own job. Resistance can therefore be both altruistic and self-interested, thereby touching opposite ends of this continuum simultaneously. It can also be related to matters of principle. These examples highlight that people can resist for more than one reason, sitting in a number of camps some of which may appear to be contradictory. I thereby highlight and challenge a rather simplistic assumption underpinning the literature that positions people as resisting out of negative self-interest (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Hughes, 2007; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Waddell & Sohal, 1998), or positively to help (Brooks, 2003; Ford, Ford & D'Amelio, 2008; Ford & Ford, 1995; Ford & Ford, 2009; Ford & Ford, 2009b; Huy & Mintzberg, 2003; Nevis, 1987; Waddell and Sohal, 1998; Senior & Swailes, 2010).

P5 and P8 highlight more negative reasons for resistance by colleagues. P5 argues that colleagues will resist just because they don't like you: *"If resistance is because they don't like my face then there's little I can do about that!"* When asked how they knew the resistance was of such a personal nature, they argued: *"Well, firstly, because they had resisted lots of things in the past, so it wasn't a new problem. And secondly, yes, the arguments weren't very good."* I would not necessarily interpret such behaviours as being personal in nature, but P5 experienced them as a personal attack. P6 also describes resistance rooted in personal dislike of a colleague:

I think whatever the change would have been [...] (they) may well have resisted it because it came from him and because there were personalities involved, it was the fact that it was the council telling (them). So it was much, much more complex than just [...] saying, "No, this contract doesn't work for me."

Resistance can thus be grounded in both altruistic motives and self-interest (section 4.3.1), or both positions may be held simultaneously. It may also be of a personal nature. I therefore propose the dualism of resistance for self-interest versus resistance based on altruism, is overly simplistic. Resistance may cover both ends of the motivational spectrum simultaneously. This also links to the

dualism identified earlier, of resistance as good/constructive or bad/destructive as it was found that resistance can be either. This challenge *advances Objective 4 and Question 7* regarding problematization.

5.2.6: Resistance Rooted in Uncertainty and Fear

The literature highlights that resistance can be rooted in uncertainty (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Canall, 2007) and different types of fear (Agocs, 1997; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Bradutanu, 2015; Cummings & Worley, 2015; Gunner, 2017; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Paton & McCalman, 2008). Six participants highlight resistance of this nature. *“So it was the uncertainty surrounding the change that I think created a lot of problems” (P4).*

Uncertainty thus emerges as a factor motivating resistance, and uncertainty might become conflated with fear. P8, however, is explicit that it is fear itself that acts as a motivation: *“fear of the future and fear what that might hold.”* P2 is similarly explicit: *“we didn’t really know what was happening; so it was more a case of not understanding it [...] fear really.”* P8 and P2 thus describe hypothetical fear of an unknown future state, whilst P7 describes current fear deriving from being placed in an alien environment as a result of the change process: *“and they were scared, I think. They were going back into the classroom and it was alien to them. They had perhaps left school at 15 with no qualifications.”* Uncertainty and fear thus emerge from my material as a cause of resistance, with the fear itself rooted in multiple causes, as also described in the literature review. The opposite of this is resistance due to feeling that it is safe to resist which P10 identifies: *“at that time the sales were still okay, so when the sales are okay you can get away with being a bit resistant.”*

When discussing destructive content earlier, fear emerged as a factor that *silenced* people. Here, I find examples of fear *motivating* resistance when people feel safe to do so. In Figure 33 I capture conceptually how resistance, fear and security interact.

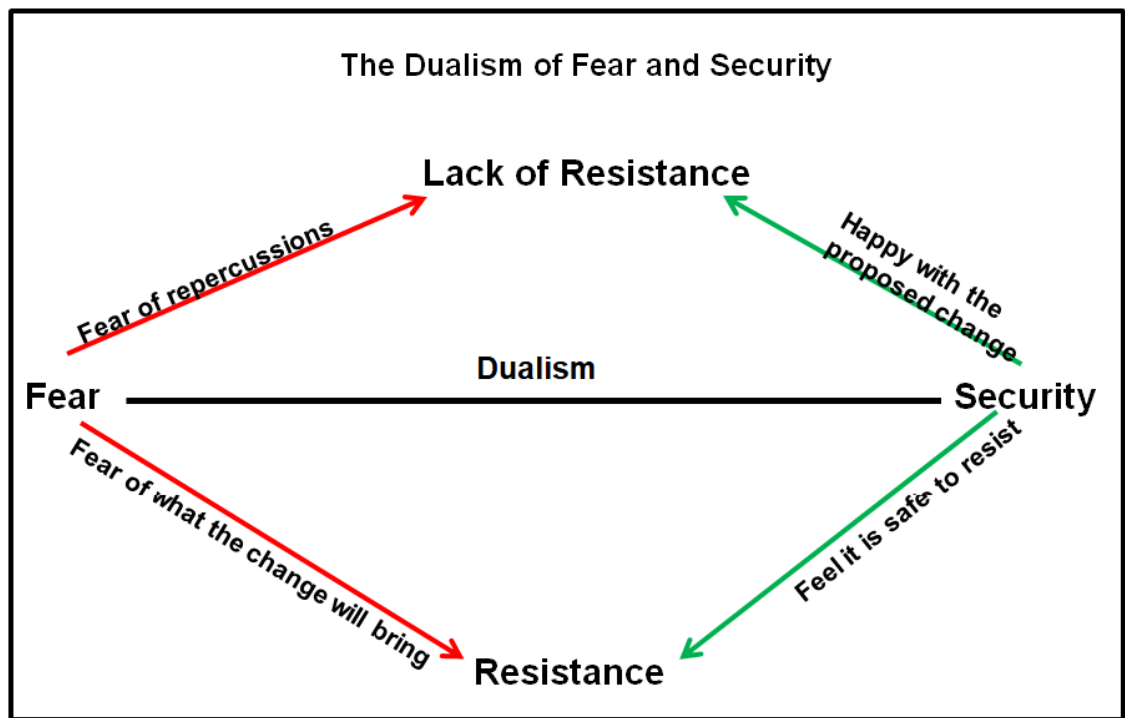


Figure 33

Figure 33 captures the nuances of resistance and the fear/security dualism, expressing how both can motivate resistance or organisational silence. The literature describing resistance through fear is plentiful, but is less so in terms of resistance because people feel safe to do so, but is implicit in the arguments proposing constructive discontent (Dann, 2008) as this requires a culture making it safe to speak out.

5.2.7 Resistance to how the Change is Managed

When discussing the “Neutral” dimensions of resistance I argue that resistance can be related not to the change itself but to how it is managed. The theme of mishandling change emerges in the literature (Greiner, 1992; Reichers, et al., 1997; Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996) and is discussed in the literature review. Participants shared a number of stories relating to resistance to how the change was managed, rather than to the change itself: *“it was [...] the way in which it was managed that caused a lot of resistance. I think people accepted the rationale behind why it was happening” (P4).*

Participants highlight a range of management behaviours that incited resistance. P10 describes the attitude of management to staff: *“I just think that hard-nosed*

way of doing it [...] just didn't work." In addition to attitude, P10 also highlights the speed of change linking to resistance: *"If you do it the right way, and perhaps it does take longer, but if you get everyone's buy-in, it will work"*. The sense here is that if a change is rushed and implemented too quickly there are problems as people may need time to understand and accept the change.

The importance of good communications when implementing change is a theme discussed extensively in the literature (Bradutanu, 2015; Carnall, 2007; Wachira & Anyieni, 2017; Wittig, 2012) and the problem of poor communications is raised as a factor of resistance by three participants: *"she copied us in, and we never heard anything back. Now because of that, it gets people's back up"* (P10).

nobody officially in management told us. It was more about rumours, the press, people who were more senior than us were telling us what they knew [...] but not in an official manner. It was more through rumour and gossip and whispering. (P2)

In common with the literature I thus identify communication as an important factor in successfully leading change, or alternatively provoking resistance to it.

I also identify lack of management training and poor leadership as sources of resistance. Lack of training suggests poor leadership of the change, an issue P5 encountered: *"It's what I would call weak leadership, not really having a plan [...] and then the French manager picked up on that and just threw it back at (them) all the time."* P1 suggests that there were problems due to the lack of training of those managing it: *"I think maybe, [...] there should have been more training given on managing change [...] I think a lot of people were learning on the job"* and P14 also relates issues caused by inexperienced managers seeking to impose changes on more experienced staff: *"they were starting to tell them how to sell [...] and they were thinking, well what do you know about [...] you know nothing. In fact, that's right, they actually came in with a textbook on selling"*. These examples highlight the problems caused not only by inexperienced or poorly trained managers leading change, but the problems caused by imposition of change.

Imposition is a management behaviour identified in the literature as a cause of resistance (Ford et al., 2008; Jones & Van de Venn, 2016) and the imposition of

change emerges from seven participants' stories as a problematic issue: "it was definitely, "Resistance is futile!" "No, we don't want resistance, you're just going to do what you're told" (P6). Participants also highlight how the imposition of change arriving in a top down manner caused problems:

I think they knew what they wanted to do and they just went ahead and just did it, not encouraging us to discuss [...] it was more of, "This is the way you're going to work and that's the way it is. If anyone doesn't, come and tell, tell us who's not changing and then we can deal with it. (P10)

In addition to highlighting the problematic nature of the imposition of change, P10's experience of being asked to report back on who is not changing so that "we can deal with it" could be interpreted as threatening. In such a climate it is understandable that fear would restrain people from expressing their resistance, thereby creating the destructive content discussed earlier, whereby compliance is achieved through fear. Therefore, a dualism emerges related to managing change through imposition: it can both provoke resistance and potentially kill it through fear. This is captured in Figure 34 below.

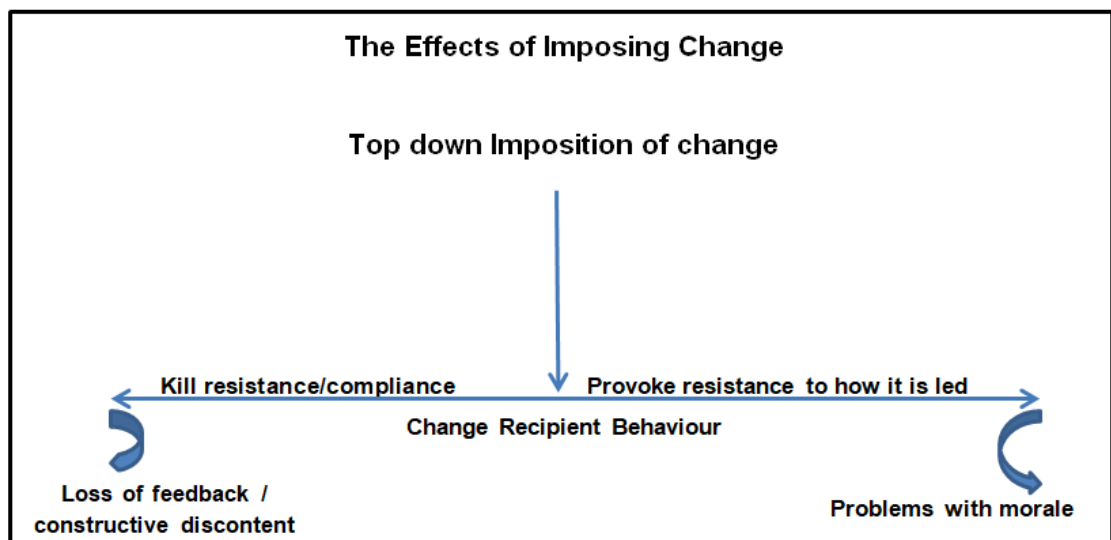


Figure 34

In Figure 34 I capture an element of destructive content as imposition through fear that quells resistance thereby leading to the loss of feedback, whilst imposition can also incite resistance and damage morale.

P14, however, recounts a different form of imposition of change, through ignoring resistant feedback: *“finance always decide on the computer system and so they’d put in one system [...], we wanted another system and I was on the resisting side [...] and they completely ignored us”*. The change is thus imposed by just going ahead with it and ignoring any resistance. Imposition of change is thus identified as an aspect of the Character Dimension, a cause of resistance, thereby *advancing Objective 3 and Question 5*.

Being measured or scrutinised as part of the change also emerges from the material as a source of resistance, with three participants mentioning this: *“Yeah, were very vocal; they may have felt threatened because they are going to be thrown into another round of team managers who manage things differently and they may be scrutinised” (P13)*. Unrealistic expectations of the change also emerge from P8 and P10 as a source of resistance:

it was, “I’m not sure I can deliver on this. If you’ve got expectations that I’m going to get 80% of the people I’m supporting placed, but I can only have three conversations with them in a one-day workshop, then that’s ridiculous. (P8)

Participants' stories thus provide significant evidence of resistance being directed not at the change but at how it was managed and unrealistic expectations. The impact of how change is led is thus an important factor contributing to resistance.

This is recognised by P5 who subsequently amended their approach:

Once I had changed my mind-set to “[...] I’m doing this all wrong. I need to use everybody’s energy and channel it somehow.” So, [...] I said, “Oh, by the way, I’ve just fed that back and everybody thought that was a really good point so we’re changing that now.” That buys in a lot of goodwill then, doesn’t it?

P5 thus amended their change management style which they believe generated goodwill.

Based on the empirical material, I contend that the way change is managed can be a factor motivating resistance. The imposition of change, poor leadership and communication and issues around the timing of change are causes. I thus support the literature and build upon it; Figure 34 captures this, detailing the effects of the imposition of change. Through the identification of motivations of resistance in this section I *advance Objective 3*.

5.2.8: Lack of Trust

The importance of trust to change management is strongly argued within the literature (Bradutanu, 2015; Mullins, 2010; Paton & McCalman, 2008). It is important to build “an environment of trust and shared commitment” (Mullins (2010, p. 760) because resistance to change declines when trust is an element of the organisational culture (Bradutanu, 2015). Based on the empirical material, I argue that lack of such trust underpins resistance.

P9 describes people lacking trust in what they were being told: *“there was a lack of trust in [...] Council, that it wasn’t as bad as it was and they could still fund it”*. They also describe encountering resistance themselves because people did not believe what they were telling them: *“we’d give this little PowerPoint [...] and we’d give the strengths and weaknesses of A, B, C model, and you’d still have some people kind of saying, “Yeah, but it won’t be like that, will it? I don’t believe you.””* P14 also describes resisting, in part, due to the reputation of those leading the change: *“because having heard conversations of their structure and how they operated I did not trust or understand their motives”*. People are thus resisting because they lack trust in those delivering the message and in the message itself.

P11 provides an example where the lack of trust ultimately proved to be well founded:

There was a transition period, rules and regulations coming out about TUPE, [...] but no one had faith in them, and [...] a lot of those concerns became true [...] So people were not stupid, they were not silly and they could see this happening.

I therefore argue lack of trust underpins resistance as people lack faith in what they are told. Associated with this, Senior and Swailes (2010) caution against the use of spin when communicating change, arguing that it leads to cynicism, and Paton and McCalman (2010, p. 150) decry spin as “the new cancer.” I thus find lack of trust to motivate resistance and provide empirical material in support of this argument.

5.2.9: Resistance Motivated by Not Liking or Wanting Change

Within the literature it is argued that it is inherent within people to resist change (Joussen & Scholl, 2016; Sklar, 2018) and I find that some participants believe

that there is resistance derived from people just not liking or wanting change: “I just don’t want to do it” (P7). P14 also suggests resistance can be inherent: “*Some people are just negative about change. Most people are resistant to change*”. Ford & Ford (2009) similarly argue that some people just do not want change.

P13, however, proposes a reason behind staff not wanting change; they were coping with too much change: “*there were lots of other changes going on in their working environment and that was just one of many and [...] something that they felt that they didn’t need to do*” P7 also describes a sense of being overloaded by the change: “*I was away a lot. One of the criticisms for me was I was punch-drunk with it, it was training, training, training for a period of about two years and it was just crazy.*” The problem of change overload provoking resistance is also identified by Joussem and Scholl (2018).

I therefore support the literature by arguing that some people may inherently dislike change, whilst for others excessive change is the issue. These arguments also *advance Objective 3 and question 4.*

5.2.10: Section Summary

There are multiple reasons motivating resistance to change. I find material supporting the conventional conceptualisation of resistance motivated by the negative reasons of protecting the status quo and self-interest. However there is also material through which I challenge this conceptualisation. Self-interest can also be rooted in a sense of self-preservation, and sometimes the status quo should be protected and the change resisted if it is an ill-conceived change potentially harmful to the organisation or stakeholders. Indeed, altruism emerges as a motivating factor, as people resist change to protect employees or other stakeholders, and resistance linked to people's principles is also found. There is also significant evidence of people not resisting the change, but resisting how it was being managed and implemented.

Based on my empirical material, I have developed three conceptual illustrations describing why people resist change: Figure 32 related to politics; Figure 33, “The Dualism of Fear and Security” and Figure 34, “The Effects of Imposing

Change. The findings and arguments advanced in this *section answer Question 5* “what motivations for resistance can be interpreted from the accounts of participants?” and *advance Objective 3* in relation to the motivations of resistance. Having addressed the why aspect of this objective, I now progress the Character Dimension chapter by considering my findings related to *how* resistance manifests, thereby further advancing Objective 3.

5.3: How Resistance Manifests

Just as I find multiple motivations underpinning resistance, I also find numerous ways through which people manifest it in terms of behaviours. This supports the literature which, from the earliest times, has frequently conceptualised resistance in terms of behaviour (Piderit, 2000).

I do not discuss here how people resist through political behaviour as it is discussed in section 5.2.2. I also do not discuss how people resist by withdrawal, resigning and through sabotage, as they are explored within section 4.3 on Destructive Discontent.

5.3.1: Non-engagement, Ignoring and Avoidance

A significant theme that emerges from participants stories is that of non-engagement as a form of resistance: “*others were like, “Phew, not engaging in that” (P13)*. P8 describes how staff would not engage with the workshops that were arranged to discuss redundancy offers: “*They wouldn’t engage in workshops. They wouldn’t apply for maybe a quote to see what the deal was. They ignored the process, really, and it was a case of, “This is happening but it’s got nothing to do with me.”*” P8 links non-engagement here with simply ignoring the change, a tactic P14 used themselves to resist a change: “*so I ignored it and carried on*” whilst P3 found it employed to resist changes they were seeking to introduce: “*And it came to that agenda item [...] and I was chairing the meeting and I just sat there looking at it waiting for somebody to pick up on it and nobody said anything.*” Based on the material I therefore propose that non-engagement manifests as non-participation or ignoring the change.

Non-engagement is also expressed through other behaviours including paying lip-service to the change: “*We therefore paid lip service to the US requirements*

by 'launching' but in a sufficiently low key way so as to ensure they failed [...] but looked like we were trying to the US parent" (P14). P12 states "It was surface participation" which I interpret as paying lip-service as the engagement referred to was clearly of a superficial nature, and P1 describes an employee using similar behaviour: "one particular chap would sometimes nod and then try and do it his own way" which is also equivalent to paying lip-service. This links to Ash's (2009) arguments that compliance does not generate successful change and that some people may express words of support but their behaviour will not match it.

P3 also describes in some detail how the non-engagement in the proposed change manifested as avoidance in several ways: "I mean avoidance in its many forms [...] (They) stopped coming to a lot of the meetings, (they) stopped responding to my e-mails about certain things."

And so we'd come to that agenda item and [...] would skip over it and I'd say, "Is there not another item on the agenda then?" And (they'd) say, "No, nothing we need to do with now." And just avoidance, total avoidance and that was how they dealt with me.

P3 interprets the non-engagement and avoidant behaviours as "passive-aggressive": "it was all very passive-aggressive, you know; [...] silence was the way things were dealt with". Similar behaviours are identified by other participants, but not labelled as such. P14 provides an example of this type of behaviour: "some people would sit there and they'd just look down their notes and not say anything".

In addition to the passive-aggressive behaviours highlighted by P3 and P14, other passive forms of resistance were encountered. P11 experienced a range of non-engagement behaviours directed at them, some of which were of a more personal nature:

Things like staff that used to sit each side of me in an open plan office, we used to have lunch, [...] and go to the pub on a Friday, and not only did it stop, but phone calls weren't put through to me and stuff like this.

P3 also describes how he interprets the resistant behaviours of one of the organisation's owners, who employed him to introduce change, as a form of cognitive dissonance, whereby they retrospectively adjust their perceptions or memory: "So there was cognitive dissonance really; what I was saying didn't fit

with what (they) wanted so (they'd) invented a new scenario in (their) head". The associations of resistance to cognition supports Piderit's (2000) description of the cognitive form resistance may take.

P1 and P14 describe a different form of non-engagement as people revert back to the status quo: *"Part of the problem was [...] that they'd reverted back to type and [...] were sub-optimising the situation" (P1), and "sometimes people changed or they slipped back into their old way of working" (P14)*. Such relapsing to old ways of working highlights the change management concept of refreezing a change to embed and institutionalise it, which Balogun and Hope Hailey (2008) highlight retains merit to prevent such backsliding.

P11 describes a lack of commitment to the change expressed as a lack of cooperation and support:

So you'd have some major leaders of industry coming into the regional office for a meeting [...] and room bookings, "Oh no, I don't think we have a room booked today," and, "Oh no, we haven't got anyone that help you with tea and coffee." [...] so if I wanted a room, I had to put things in writing and stick notices on [...] and I'd be the one pushing the tea trolley down!

P11 thus details an extreme form of resistance through non-co-operation, what amounted to the total withdrawal of any form of support from those whose role it was to assist. P14, however, highlights how their non-co-operation through sabotaging a proposed change resulted in benefits to the company; it is a form of constructive discontent.

he said, "Well how have we managed all this?" And I said, "Well basically we've done this, which I know is what you don't want." And he said, "So you didn't tell me and you've gone ahead and done it without telling me?" And I said, "Well yes." He said, "Well it's a bloody good job you did isn't it?"

Resistance can thus manifest in multiple forms of non-engagement. These include: avoidance; lack of participation; ignoring the change and reverting back to old behaviours; passive-aggressive acts and cognitive dissonance; non-cooperation, sabotage and working to contract.

5.3.2: Overt Resistance

Having advanced Objective 3 and Question 6 through identifying forms of non-engagement as acts of resistance, I advance them further by discussing how overt resistance manifests. Overt resistance is described by participants as manifesting in several forms. Three participants describe a direct refusal to engage: *“the Board members were against it, the staff members were against it. They even brought their volunteers along, saying, “We’re against it. [...] they were like a unified glob of, “We will never join!”, and they didn’t” (P9)*. Others describe overt resistance expressed through the use of body language: *“Yeah, it won’t work and that body language, yeah, you could see it” (P14)* and *“this gentleman certainly knew how to use his height to demonstrate his power, his physical power and in his stance as well he would be quite powerful” (P12)*. This suggests participants picking up on non-verbal cues and associating them with resistance.

Participants also highlight a particularly overt way of resisting by participating in Union activity, and such formal resistance is identified by four participants: *“so the union would have said to the individuals, “They can’t make you,” so they would have been very clear legally where everything’s at for the individuals” (P8)*, and *“the TUPE regulations [...] may have been watered down if it wasn’t for the unions fighting their corner as much as they could” (P11)*. These descriptions suggest that the Unions were seeking to protect their members from the results of change. P13, however, suggests that they were not impressed by their tactics: *“the unions were soliciting resistance [...] I was actually appalled at their behaviour. We had a series of consultations [...] and [...] they strategically placed strong vocal union reps within the audience to try and rev up the crowd.”* I therefore argue that Union involvement provides an overt form of resistance and P13’s comments suggest this was undertaken publically at a consultation. Public protest also emerges as an overt form of resistance: *“there were public protests and marches and speeches in front of the Town Hall” (P11)*. P6 also describes publicly expressed overt resistance in their description of a former colleague going to the press with their grievances about the change (described in section 4.4.2).

I thus find overt resistance manifesting through the individual via body language, direct refusal to cooperate and collectively through Union activity and public protests.

5.3.3: Power

Based on the empirical material I argue that resistance is manifested through the employment of power. P14 provides an example of legitimate power (Raven & French, 1958) derived from a position in the organisational hierarchy, to resist a change by refusing approval: *“just because I’ve said yes to this seven times doesn’t mean you’ve got approval to go ahead.”*

The use of power weaves itself into the fabric of a number of dimensions. Here it is employed as a manifestation, or tool, of resistance. It is also apparent in the motivation of resistance, as change leaders employ their power to impose change upon the recipient, thereby provoking resistance to how the change is led (section 5.2.7). Nevis (1987) also argues that the labelling of resistance is an act of power. *Power thus lubricates both the change and the resistance to it.*

5.3.4: Section Summary

I contend that there are a multiplicity of ways in which people resist change in organisations, some overt and others covert. Overt methods include directly verbalising concerns, publicly resisting, formalising resistance through the involvement of unions, and ultimately through resigning from the organisation. Other methods are more subtle or covert, including speaking off the record and denigrating a change privately, employing power or politics to resist, and undertaking acts of sabotage. Non-engagement with change is also found to be multi-faceted, including avoidance, ignoring the change and non-cooperation, whilst resistance can also be identified in psychological terms as passive-aggressive and cognitive dissonance.

5.4: The Character Chapter Conclusion

Within this chapter I have identified and discussed the elements that constitute the second dimension of resistance, the Character Dimension. I thereby *advance Objective 1 and Question 2* related to building a multidimensional conceptual framework of resistance and identifying dimensions that emerge empirically.

I discuss the sub-dimensions of why people resist change and how they manifest that resistance, identifying multiple motivations and manifestations of resistance. *I thereby advance Objective 3, answering Questions 5 and 6 related to why people resist change and how resistance manifests.*

Chapter Six: Findings and Discussion: The Impact Dimension

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Literature Review
Chapter Three	Methodology
Chapter Four	Findings & Discussion: The Value Dimension
Chapter Five	Findings & Discussion: The Character Dimension
Chapter Six	Findings & Discussion: The Impact Dimension
Chapter Seven	Findings & Discussion: The Actors Dimension
Chapter Eight	Findings & Discussion: The Engagement Dimension
Chapter Nine	Findings & Discussion: The Language Dimension
Chapter Ten	Findings & Discussion: The Temporal Dimension
Chapter Eleven	Findings & Discussion: The Spatial Dimension
Chapter Twelve	Conclusion and Contributions

6.1: Introduction

In this chapter I consider the third dimension of resistance, the Impact Dimension. I identify its position within my conceptual framework of resistance to change in Figure 35.

Dimension 3: The Impact Dimension

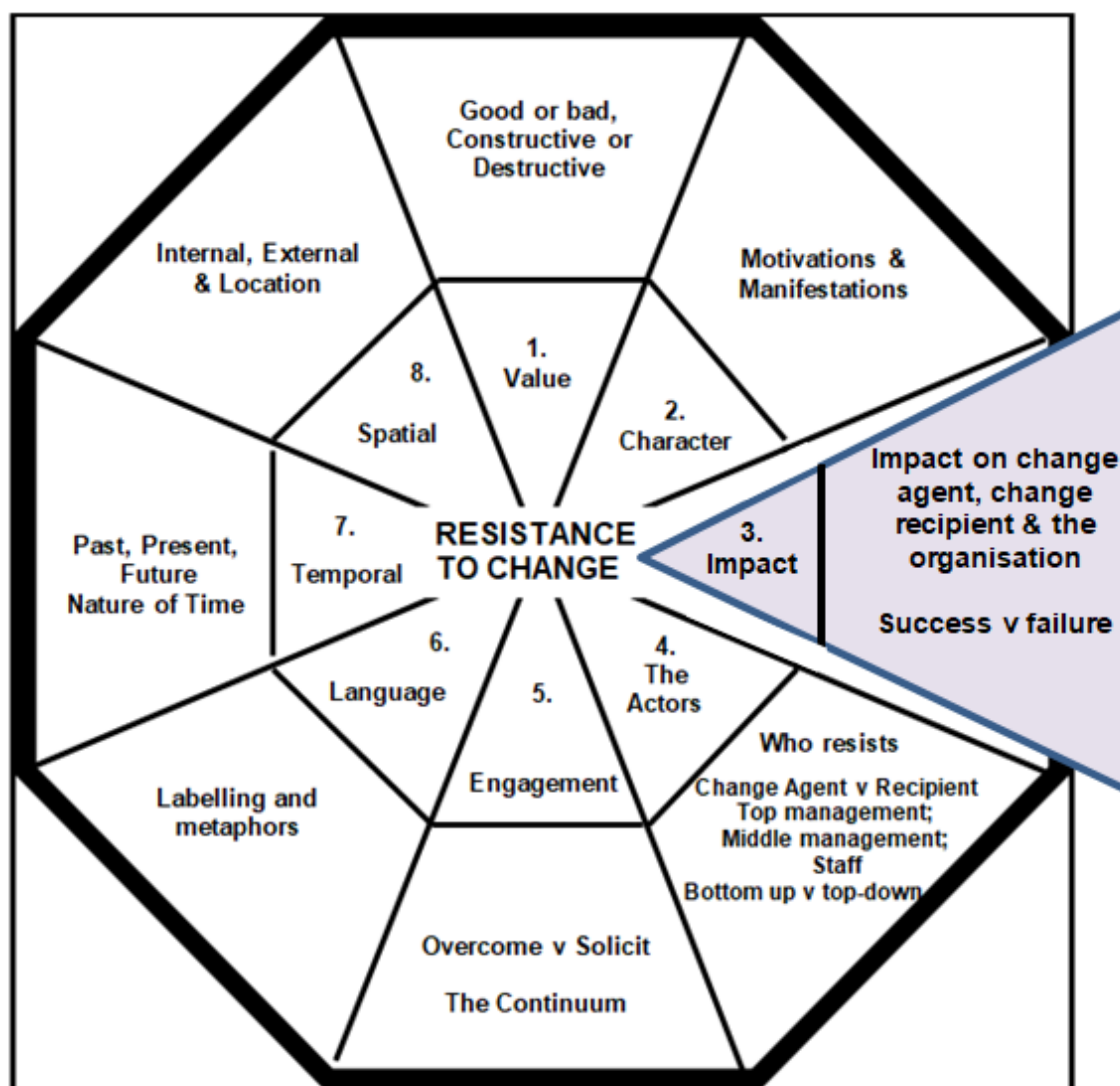


Figure 35

In this chapter I examine the findings related to the dualities of success and failure and the impact of change and resistance upon the change recipients and change leaders.

6.2: How Change is Managed: The Success Versus Failure Dualism

Regarding the success versus failure dualism, opinions are polarised in the literature regarding what causes the failure of change initiatives. One argument proposes the deficient skills of the change agent (Griffith, 2001) whilst another blames the resistance of change recipients (Dimitriadis, et al., 2016). Regarding successful change, the literature suggests that *communication* (Bradutanu, 2015; Carnall, 2007; Hughes, 2010; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Wachira & Anyieni,

2017; Wittig, 2012), *consultation* (Waddell & Sohal, 1998) and *participation* (Coch & French, 1948; Paton & McCalman, 2008) are key to creating it.

P9 describes efforts to create participatory change: *“we devised a process of consultation, which we carried out across the city, visiting different places and trying to engage with different stakeholders”*, whilst P15 strongly believes in the importance of communication: *“It doesn’t mean that everybody is going to be on the same boat but I think you can never over-communicate”*. P13, however, found the opposite to be true, suggesting that consideration needs to be given to the volume of communication:

during the implementation the communication had to increase. They all got a bit fed up of my e-mails of giving them an update of how the building work was going on and who was moving where and when, but I kept them all informed.

P15 and P13, thus both value communication but hold differing views about whether it is possible to over-communicate when leading change.

P13 also describes having communicated by email, a method P10 cautions against employing: *“I think sending emails, and especially when they’re quite harsh, gets people’s back up. I think if you’re going to make change, I think it’s good to discuss it with people”*. P10 thus highlights the important factor that it is not just communicating that is important, but the *method* of communicating. This supports Blount and Carroll’s (2017) argument that email, memos and webcasts are not appropriate methods of communicating change. There are thus disagreements about whether it is possible to over-communicate during change, but agreement with the literature that email is not a good method to employ.

Regarding more successful methods of communication, P9 discusses the positive impact of communication in building commitment to the change and the value of getting people together in focus groups: *“but I think it did eventually build commitment, [...] Because they’d had an opportunity all the way through to express their worries, their doubts, their discontents, had their questions answered.”* The change was semi-successful as it did facilitate the merger of a number of organisations into one larger body, but was not fully successful as a number of groups chose not to join. I therefore argue that a commitment to

communication and consultation does not necessarily deliver total success. It can, however, impact upon the recipient by keeping them content. P10 describes initially being happy with the level of communication and involvement in the change:

“What are the challenges, how can we overcome over these challenges? [...] wants us to go to another level and how are we going to do that? How are we going to motivate our teams to do that?” So that was the discussion we were having, [...] which is good, brilliant.

P10 was happy to be consulted, and P13 found that encouraging participation in the change led to the original ideas being improved: *“they could actually see that they were being listened to – they were being considered and their ideas were far better than mine.”* Regarding successful consultation, P1 and P5 also describe listening to the resistance and taking it back to those more senior so that it can be taken on board: *“I think by taking the resistance seriously. I was always respectful of their standpoint, I [...] used the information and influenced the situation for the good of the project” (P5).*

Based on these stories, I argue that resistance expressed through consultation and participation can improve a change. These are examples of effective change leadership through engagement with constructive discontent; an outcome proposed by Dmytriyev et al. (2016) who argue that constructive disagreement delivers benefits to the organisation. This is an example of the success versus failure dualism in the literature, evidencing participative change leadership and the input of resistance as constructive discontent leading not only to the successful implementation of change but also to improving the change.

Efforts to communicate are not always successful however. P11's story illustrates that change can only succeed through discussion and consultation if the change recipients are willing to engage. Change recipients have the power to block such efforts to communicate, thereby providing an example of destructive discontent:

Occasionally I simply tried to articulate it [...] by saying, “Look, I understand your position and I may even share some of your opinions. [...]” but whenever I said, “This is an opportunity ...” even before I could finish the sentence, “[...] of doing the best we can with this,” [...] I was automatically put into the, “(They are) a supporter of it,” camp.

Thus, leading change with the best of intentions and seeking to communicate and engage does not automatically lead to successful outcomes.

It also emerges that there are degrees of participation, and P14 provides an example of allowing participation at only a superficial level:

we got people [...] on the shop floor [...] we let them pick the chairs and tables in the canteen and where that would go and where the First Aid is going and got them involved in designing their part of the [...]

Indeed whilst ostensibly proposing participation, P14 is actually primarily recommending imposition:

Also I believe that when I've been changing something, even though I might know what we want to do, my rule of thumb is only 70-80% fixed. Think with the principles but then allow other people 20-30% because then people feel part of the change and therefore less threatened.

The reference to knowing what they want to do prior to discussion, and the minor amount of contribution permitted, suggests that P14 is actually only paying lip-service to engagement. The suggestion that people will feel less threatened as a result may derive from good intentions however it could be interpreted as a cynical approach that is effectively the manipulation of people.

Based on this material, I propose that just as resistance can take the form of non-engagement with change recipients only paying lip-service to the change, so change agents may only pay lip-service to engagement and participation; they are effectively imposing the change. The impact of change agents' and recipients' paying lip-service to engagement is captured in Figure 36.

The Ghost of Engagement

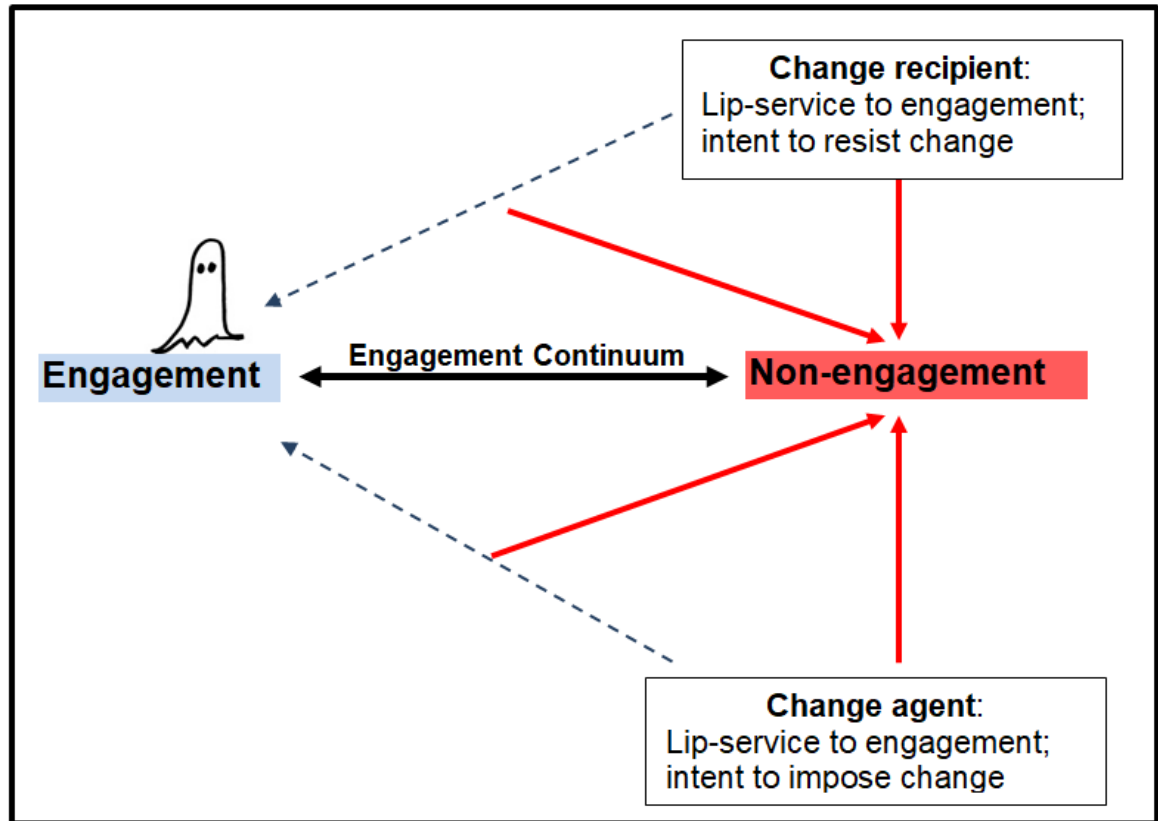


Figure 36

The arrows indicate meaning (not cause) and so in practice, both change agent and change recipient are pretending to engage hence the dotted rather than solid line to engagement, and the solid line to non-engagement depicting the reality of the situation. Engagement is thus only superficially present as in reality both parties are actually participating in non-engagement. Lip-service is thus a tool of the change agent to impose change, and of the recipient to resist change. *It makes a ghost of engagement which appears to be present but in reality is not.*

6.2.1: Communication Style and Trust

Communication style and trust emerge as important to the success and failure dualism. P13 and P15 raise the importance of the *style* of communications: *“but in order to do it right I took down all barriers and just spoke to people as people”* (P13). P13 thus highlights the need to communicate in a natural, human way, whilst P9 and P15 identify the importance of transparency in communications: *“being open; if you can’t disclose something tell them why. If you’ve got bad news, tell them, don’t hide it”* (P15). The issue of transparency also links to

issues of trust, honesty and values which are raised by four participants: *“I just tried to play the straight bat throughout” (P11).*

they need to get a really clear sense, [...] of you, your values. Do you do what you say? Can they trust you? Because in a sense their livelihoods are in your hands so building up trust is important. (P15)

P15 thus highlights the importance of trust when you have power over people's livelihoods, and P4 also alludes to it but from a different perspective. P4 used their trusted personal assistant to communicate because their position of power made people reluctant to open up to them:

she was actually somebody [...] who people trusted to communicate because she wasn't a gasser [...] She didn't [...] betray people's secrets to me or the other way but [...] was a bridge. So whilst sometimes you can say, I'm the Chief Exec talk to me [...] very often people don't feel they can because at the end of it all you're the one that's putting the food in their mouth aren't you?

There are thus examples of where senior positions may, or may not be a hindrance to communicating and building trust. P13 also highlights the importance of trust from those in more senior positions:

We had [...] an honest relationship [...] if I didn't like something I was safe by saying I didn't like something; I wasn't threatening and he knew that I wasn't [...]. So [...] if something was wrong that it was an honest wrong; it wasn't me being manipulative or trying to get myself a promotion or anything like that. He knew that there was something genuinely wrong.

Here we see the issue of trust inverted; the more senior person needs to be able to trust the subordinate person providing the challenge.

Thus trust may be built, but P5 and P14 provide examples of the antithesis of working with trust. They describe methods of imposition based on deceit by blaming IT: *“I had sussed out quite quickly that if you bring in IT you can change a lot of processes, which the staff might resist to, by saying, “Sorry, that's not optional on computer,” and then you force staff to change” (P5).* Technology is thus used as a tool of imposition, masking the true intent.

P14 describes a different form of deceit, that of introducing change as an act of theatre:

part of it is a bit of theatre isn't it? [...] sometimes you have to think [...] what am I trying to portray here? Am I trying to portray relaxed? Is it tense? Is it anger? [...] so it was all a prepared script, [...]. It was all

scripted and prepared, because obviously we don't want to finish up with any tribunals either.

Such theatrical behaviour, working from a script and deciding in advance what emotion to employ, suggests deception; employing the smoke and mirrors of the stage to introduce change. These descriptions of the imposition of change through deceit link to trust and people may resist when trust is lacking (discussed in section 5.2.8). It is the antithesis of managing change through transparency. I therefore argue that methods of leading change are employed that are at opposite ends of the trust continuum. Trust is a key factor in successfully leading change and lack of trust leads to resistance. Trust emerges from participants' stories as being gained through honesty, not breaking confidences and communicating with people as people. Lack of trust in those in senior positions is a motivation of resistance, and to facilitate change trust is needed in those in both senior and subordinate positions. I capture this in Figure 37.

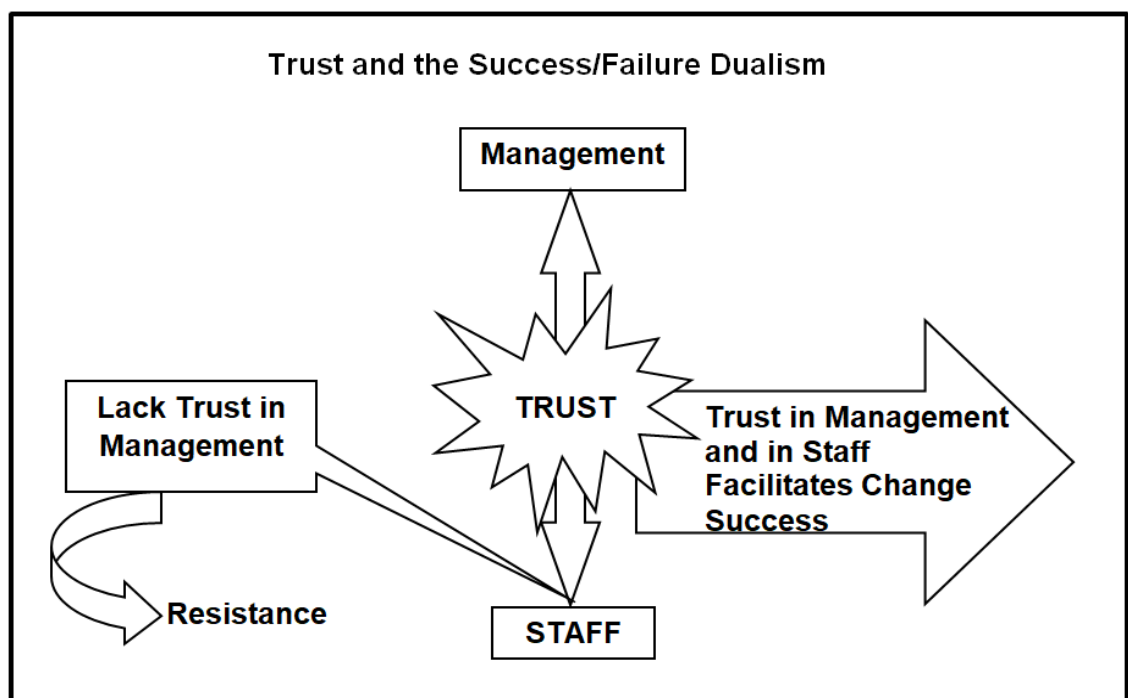


Figure 37

Trust thus acts as a lubricant which can oil the success or failure of change; facilitating its introduction or motivating resistance to it.

6.2.2: Leading Change Negatively

Rather than leading transparently and with trust, four participants' stories share a less positive approach suggesting a direct, authoritarian form of imposition: *“their directives were coming from higher up to say, “No, this is how we have to do things now.” And the perspective of the people on the ground was, “But this is not an adequate solution””* (P2). P6 also describes having personally imposed change in the past, and subsequently learning that such behaviour is not the best way:

I'd be far more participative. We told people what was going to happen. [...] HR dictated a process, which meant that we told people [...] we didn't engage people and we just assumed [...] they would do what we told them. And I think I would be far more [...] discursive, both individually and in small groups

Imposition is the antithesis of consultation and engagement, and causes resistance (discussed in section 5.2.7) and destructive content (discussed in section 4.4.2 – 4.4.2.1) and three participants discuss this occurring. P10 tells of a concern that was emailed to management and received no response leading them to remain silent, whilst P6 and P11 describe actually ignoring the resistance themselves: *“at the time I didn't listen enough, I wasn't empathetic enough to what people were doing”* (P6), and *“I ignored some of the smaller, low-level incidents of resistance, because they were small and petty and didn't really matter. And they did matter”* (P11). Both participants express regret at the way they managed the resistance and suggest that on reflection they would manage things differently. Indeed, P11 explicitly cautions against ignoring resistance:

I did ignore some of the little bits of resistance, which actually indicated something more [...] I'm sure moving a normally professional person to a position where they're doing these little things of resistance [...] It meant something major to them and I should have acknowledged that and done something about it

P6 raises the issue of not having been empathetic enough, and lack of empathy is also raised by P4 who experienced some from a manager but none from HR colleagues: *“I think he did try to empathise with us, which helped [...] Whereas [...] the HR function they didn't – their [...] perspective was, “Well you're getting paid for this so why is there a problem, deal with it.””* In addition to lack of empathy, lack of support from participants those leading change also emerges from three participants: *“if I'd supported them better they might have got there*

quicker, they might have got there less painfully. [...] we didn't support people properly" (P6).

Participants stories of change being imposed without listening, empathy or support, suggests people being told to get on with it and then being cast adrift. In addition to this, three participants describe change being managed in a nasty, unpleasant manner and life being made difficult for employees: *"It was just really matter-of-fact; I think it was [...] (they weren't) treating people like humans." (P2)*

organisations get quite canny after a while and say, "Well, actually yeah, we can find you something, but do you fancy working 200 miles away from where you are now, in a job that isn't quite as comfortable as you have?" and things like that, and so they make it very difficult for someone to continue to resist the deal (P8).

(Senior Management) were just trying to piss me off [...] They used to phone me up every day [...] and say, "What's your new initiative for today?" But it was let's really bone [...] off here, it was ridiculous (P14).

Some of participants' stories thus suggest bullying and allude to change being managed by forcing people out. P15 describes a similar method but suggests a more humane approach to losing people:

if you get road blocks you have to be prepared to tackle them. Now the last resort is you ask them to move on but you do try to counsel them, coach them, to get them to change their behaviours.

Four Participants also describe resistance from people at the very top resisting change they effectively initiated, and in the cases of P3 and P7 effectively killing that change:

I was a good idea, bringing me in, but the reality was I was challenging them to change and do things differently and I was restructuring the office and the responsibilities of people in the office as well and they didn't like it even though it was entirely their (idea)

Resistance from top management killing change is discussed in section 7.5 and I argue is a key factor in the success/failure dualism.

6.2.3: Section Summary

The way change is managed thus feeds into the success/failure dualism. I find examples of participative leadership engaging with constructive discontent and delivering improved, successful change. I also find examples of draconian leadership whereby change is imposed and fear instilled in employees, of

resistance being ignored and of getting rid of people which loses the organisation the benefits of their feedback, constructive discontent. Instances of change failures are shared by three participants and P3 describes leading a change that was resisted by those above which killed it. P7 similarly observed a change resisted and killed by the most senior executive.

The literature is fractured on the subject of change success and failure, laying blame for change failure either at the feet of those who resist (Bradutanu, 2015; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016) or with those that lead it poorly (Griffith, 2001; Thomas et al, 2011). Based on the empirical material, I argue that change success comes from leading transparently with honesty to build trust, and with full engagement to benefit from the feedback of resistance to improve the change. Change failure may result from imposing changes, lack of engagement and when resistance comes from the very top of the organisation. Resistance from below may delay a change but resistance from the top is what kills it as they have the legitimate power (French & Coch, 1948) to pull the plug (discussed further in section 7.5). This discussion of how change is led and the success versus failure dualism *advances Objective 1 and Question 2* regarding the multidimensionality of resistance.

6.3: The Impact of Change and Resistance

Within this section of the Impact Chapter, I consider the impact of change and resistance upon change agents and change recipients. I consider first the impact of change upon the recipient.

6.3.1: Impact upon Change Recipients

Change can generate strong emotions in people which can fuel resistance (discussed in section 5.2). The literature generally focusses upon the impact of change upon change recipients and provides examples of the emotions people experience when dealing with change, such as those identified in Balogun & Hope Hailey's (2008, p. 165) "Transition Curve," or the cycles described by Carnall (2007) and Castillo et al. (2018). P12 mentions emotions that link to these emotional curves: *"but in terms of the resistance to change, all of the emotions, the range of emotions that you could possibly go through – anger, frustration, what's the point in this?"* P6 also makes explicit reference to

experiencing the change curve themselves but suggests: *“I went through quite quickly, because I was a manager and I had a position of authority within that move”*. P6 thus suggests they experienced the emotions quickly because of their management role and leading the change, and suggests staff experienced it more difficultly: *“But now I can see them going through the curve [...] but if I’d supported them better they might have got there quicker, they might have got there less painfully.”*

I interpret from this that P6 believes that how the change is led impacts upon how the change is experienced. Indeed, change can impact negatively upon recipients in terms of the emotions experienced. P2 and P7 describe feelings of disbelief, and shock to the point of disgust: *“there was just disbelief that it was happening”* (P2), and *“People are just disgusted and that creates resistance [...] He’s just sacked so and so. When I see him I’m not going to speak to him.”* (P7). Such emotions are closely related to those identified in the change curves (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Carnall, 2007; Castillo, et al., 2018). Emotional responses can thus be intense, indeed Maitlis and Sonenshein (2010) and Smollan and Sayers (2009) describe it as an emotional event. Regarding powerful emotions, P2 describes strong feelings of distress and observing upset in others: *“The next day I went to the job centre and just sobbed [...] because I wanted someone to listen to me.”*

the General Manager was upset by the whole thing as well; it was everybody, it wasn’t as if it was management’s decision to do these things, it was the Receiver’s [...]. Oh yes, (they were) upset. (They were) really upset.

P2 thus highlights the significant upset caused to both staff and managers when a change brings redundancies. P8, a consultant, was employed to facilitate changes that required redundancies and describes witnessing the impact upon the recipients of hearing the news of such change: *“the ones that were going to throw the union at me all the time, or break down in tears, or be red and shaking about it, or whatever it happened to be”*. They thus detail the impact on staff that they have witnessed which appear to be extreme manifestations of stress. Indeed P2 suggests effectively having a long term psychological scar: *“that affected me for quite a long time [...] I still don’t like engaging in industrial action [...] I don’t like it at all because I just remember what it feels like not to have a*

job." P2 thus highlights the distress impacting upon those made redundant as part of a change. This suggests high levels of stress, an emotion identified in the literature (Kiefer, 2002; Maitliss & Sonnenshein, 2010; Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011) and observed by P5: *"I think for the French manager it was [...] the way the change was managed was too stressful for his staff and created complete chaos."*

Stress is highlighted in the literature as an impact of change (Kiefer, 2002; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010; Oreg et al, 2011). Just as redundancies impact on the staff and the organisation, three participants felt impacted to the point that they chose to leave and such resistance through quitting is also identified in the literature (Oreg et al., 2011; Castillo et al., 2018). This is the ultimate act of withdrawal or resistance (discussed in section 4.3.3). Change can thus generate significant stress and lead to people leaving the organisation. P14, however, discusses the impact on those who remain; the issue of looking after the survivors following such changes: *"if people are going as part of a change, very often management focuses on the people who are going and doesn't spend enough time on the people who stay."* The requirement to focus on those who remain indicates the challenges that manifest through "survivor guilt" (Brockner, Davy & Carter, 1985, p. 229).

In addition to shock and disbelief, the literature (Barner, 2008; Castillo, et al., 2008; Ford & Ford, 2010; Huy, 1999; Smollan, 2006) also identifies *anger* as an emotion affecting those experiencing change. This emotion was also identified by three participants: *"it was more angry for me rather than resistance"* (P2), and *"the knock on effect was any problem with the building they would report in anger [...]. And everything was exaggerated because [...] they were having to make a big change [...] So it had that knock on effect"* (P13). P13 thus highlights how change provoked anger in the recipients and also how it led to increased tension within the organisation. P5 experienced a similar phenomenon: *"there are more spikes, because the stress levels are slightly higher [...] Then whatever is underlying, it's going to spike higher."*

P6 also refers to tension, but in this case it is caused by a colleague's resistance.

it was creating lots of tensions for the others, because they were having to work harder because she wasn't prepared to do what they were doing, so there were all sorts of dynamics going on that continued for quite some time.

There is thus evidence of change creating tension or increasing pre-existing tensions within the organisation. Tension within the individual is also present and manifests in different ways. P4 and P6 relate stories of witnessing increased assertiveness or aggression during times of change. P6 describes it as: “*stronger than assertive but not aggressive*” whilst P4 experienced increased aggression: “*I think that aggression was kind of amplified because of their own uncertainty about working practices*”. Uncertainty is identified by Carnall (2007) and Terry et al. (1996) as an impact of change, and it appears here linked to increased aggression. Uncertainty is generated by change (Carnal, 2007; Terry et al., 1996) and thus has repercussions.

An emotion at the opposite end of the spectrum to aggression is that of being overwhelmed. For P7: “*One of the criticisms for me was I was punch-drunk with it, it was training, training, training for a period of about two years and it was just crazy.*” This equates to Carnall's (2007) description of people feeling overwhelmed by change, even to the point of paralysis. *Fear* is also a strong emotion identified in the literature (Ford & Ford, 2010; Huy, 1999; Kiefer, 2002; Smollan, 2006) as impacting upon people. P7 and P14 provide evidence of this occurring: “*I think I can only assume that people were scared [...] or very wary. In fact [...] my boss at the time [...] described the Managing Director as ‘menacing’*” (P7). P7 speaks from the position of the change recipient, P14 however, is aware that as a change agent in a senior position they can inadvertently evoke fear:

So you have to make people feel not frightened of speaking their mind. [...] but as they used to keep putting in my ear, you're like God to a lot of people [...] So I just think I'm [...] speaking to them but [...] apparently I would put the fear of God into people [...].

Such fear may thus be witnessed by the change agent themselves and may motivate resistance (section 5.2.6) or create organisational silence or destructive content (sections 4.4.2-4.4.2.1).

Change can thus impact on the change recipient by generating a range of emotions. These can be linked to how the change is managed and participants'

examples of forced redundancies and being asked to impose redundancies can be experienced as traumatic. Uncertainty, being overwhelmed, tensions, aggression and fear are also impacts of change upon the recipient. Indeed change or its management can be experienced so intensely that some people would rather resign than stay within the organisation. It is thus not surprising that change is described as an emotional event (Maitliss & Sonnenshein, 2010; Smollan & Sayers, 2009).

The impact upon the change recipient is generally described in the literature and by my participants in negative terms regarding *the impact of the change*. There is little discussion of *the impact of resisting* the change upon the recipient, beyond being fired (or otherwise got rid of). Three Participants describe such occurrences: *“and the reason why (they) got rid of him, first, he was resisting”* (P10). Diefenbach (2007) similarly found senior management who resisted had to leave and both Bradutanu (2015) and Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) recommend, as a last resort, firing those that do not accept the change. P15 offers similar guidance: *“Now the last resort is you ask them to move on”*.

However, there is a significant difference between doing this as a last resort, and the behaviour P14 describes of “pushing people out” as a means of leading the change:

(they were) pushing out people who knew how they worked. [...] And I remember sitting at a board meeting once and (they) said, “[...] I want to see people getting fired [...] because I don’t want people to see what’s going on (P14).

P7 also witnessed similar behaviour: *“the current guy, came in, he did the same thing. He made redundant a very Senior [...] Director.”* Leading change through the tactic of immediately firing people is not an approach I have found discussed within the literature. In contrast, however, P6 mentions being impressed by the leadership qualities exhibited by two resisters which subsequently led to P6 promoting them: *“And out of some [...] resistance, it’s seeing who demonstrated sort of individual leaderships in there, [...] and I ended up promoting them.”*

Based on participants’ stories it is clear that change has a multiplicity of emotional impacts upon the change recipient and change does indeed emerge

as an emotional event (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010; Smollan & Sayers, 2009). Regarding the impact of *resistance* upon the individual, participants discussed this in terms of being fired, a practice also identified in the literature, and P6 describes it as leading to promotions.

Having discussed the impact of change and resistance upon the change recipients, the chapter progresses through a discussion of the impact upon those leading the change, a neglected area of the literature (Kiefer, 2002).

6.3.2: The Impact upon Change Agents

Carnall (2002) suggests that those managing change can experience similar feelings to change recipients. Participants disclosed emotional responses to leading change, but whereas the change recipients' responses were linked to the change itself, or how it was managed, change agents responses were primarily associated with dealing with those resisting the change.

Feelings of frustration emerge in the stories of three Participants. The sense of frustration P8 initially experienced is quite strong: *"I think the first time somebody did something, I think, "Oh, you git!" So I think my first natural reaction is, "Oh for f**k's sake! Not again. Here we go," or something like that."* P13 shares a similar story of frustration, but in this instance it is not with the change recipients but with their line-manager who resisted the change solution they had agreed with staff: *"it was a huge people task and then to have the resistance at the end, of my line manager, was just, oh frustrating and really frustrating."* Frustration can thus impact upon those leading change and the source comes from both above and below.

In terms of managing such frustration, P15 proposes that maturity enables someone to deal with it better:

in the early days [...] when you are not that experienced (you) get frustrated [...] I guess as you get older and greyer you just become a bit more sensitive and experienced in handling people [...] and really I think understanding where they're coming from.

A similar emotion to frustration is irritation or annoyance, feelings experienced by P14 when encountering negativity towards a change: *"But whilst it was irritating*

and annoying, it was actually really quite helpful [...] because you had the opposite point of view". Anger or annoyance thus impact both change agents and recipients. P5 describes finding such negativity tiring: *"The problem with moan, moan, moan is it wears you out, but they always have a point "*. Thus both P14 and P5 find dealing with the negativity of resistance impacts negatively upon them in different ways, but both recognise the benefit such resistance also delivers. The tiredness P5 experiences is highlighted in the literature by Mathews and Linski (2016) who argue that dealing with resisters can be exhausting. P3 also highlights a negative impact upon their self-confidence of dealing with resistance from their line-managers: *"But I was even like doubting myself to be honest because I was thinking, this is just too weird, you know."* Managing resistance is thus seen to cause frustration, anger, fatigue and self-doubt.

P11 also finds the experience of managing resistance painful: *"it was painful on occasion because personal relationships within the workplace were altered as a result of the work I was doing."* P11 describes a personal pain, but they recognise leading change also impacts painfully upon others: *"I think it caused quite a lot of pain for the HR people and for others, line managers, others for whom the decision wasn't theirs but they had to enforce that change."* Here, P11 implies that the change was imposed and that it impacted negatively upon those implementing it. The imposition of change thus emerges from this research as having a negative impact upon the change agent, recipient, and the organisation as it can lead to destructive content.

P11 also describes the personal tension they experienced:

it comes back to personal honesty, because the bit where I did feel real tension was towards the end when we had a date in mind, and I thought, "I think I'll try the private sector," and so was actively job searching. And I did feel like some form of traitor at that point, to both sides!

Tension was described earlier as emerging amongst change recipients in response to the change heightening stress levels; here P11 describes it as emerging as a result of leading a change they did not believe in and so planned to resign. They felt treacherous to the change they are leading and to the staff who resist it as they are planning to depart on its implementation.

Other impacts of managing resistance are to be excluded or made to feel separate: *“And I was a relatively young manager at the time and in my previous role I was definitely ‘one of them’ [...] rather than the distance, and so I found that quite difficult” (P6).*

Yes, and the levels of resistance [...] everything from the tea lady to the Leader of the Council [...] I ended up [...] on a transatlantic plane trip with the Leader of the Council [...] and didn’t exchange a word! (P11).

Having experienced exclusion P11 also describes feeling alone as colleagues with similar roles did not make contact: *“there were other people [...] asked to take it forward across England [...] and one thing we didn’t do [...] (was) get ourselves organised and talk to each other [...] So I felt on my own”* An impact of leading change thus emerges as a sense of feeling excluded or isolated. Loneliness is identified by Obholzer (2003) as impacting upon managers, and suggests that they are also in need of support and P11’s regret at not talking to others in a similar position suggests that they believe they would have benefitted from support.

Dealing with resistance can be a difficult task (De Cremer et al., 2016; Ford & Ford, 2009). Ford & Ford (2009) argue that it takes a strong leader to deal with the strong emotions that those resisting might exhibit, whilst De Cremer et al. (2016) posit that such situations can generate emotions in the change agent that also need to be regulated to avoid escalating conflict. P11 alludes to the challenge of dealing with such resistance: *“but managing the change, as it unfolded, with my colleagues was very difficult, because I became, not quite the figurehead, but I was viewed [...] as a key player leading something which they didn’t want.”* There is thus material supporting the literature’s argument that managing those resisting is challenging. However participants also identify that the challenge can also be created by the organisation: *“and it’s getting people engaged, and especially when you’ve got commercial pressures as well, that makes it hard as well” (P10).* P10 thus identifies the difficulty of leading change when also experiencing commercial pressures, whilst P13 highlights the organisational challenge of financial pressures driving change: *“And getting through to them that actually we’re doing this as a collective change so we can actually save money so we can actually save jobs was difficult”.*

The organisation itself can thus impact the change agent through commercial pressures and P6 describes how it has a personal impact through the loss of colleagues: *“we had to strip out the cost and we went from a management team of four to a management team of two, which was very hard because I got to know the two quite well!”* P2 also expresses upset to the point of trauma when being required to deliver a change resulting in significant redundancies: *“So I must have told about [...] hundreds of people that day not to bother coming back. So that was really traumatic for me.”*

Participants thus describe experiencing intense emotions as a consequence of change. Some participants however describe suppressing their emotions. P11 was leading a change they didn't believe in and describes: *“But it did mean that I was almost pretending to be something I wasn't, which gave me a certain degree of internal tension.”* P14 is more explicit about pretending, they describe giving what was effectively a theatrical performance: *“what am I trying to portray here? Am I trying to portray relaxed? Is it tense? Is it anger? [...] so it was all a prepared script”*. Turnbull (1999, p. 127) describes such inauthentic behaviour as being “dangerous” to the individual, as “it can cause the boundaries between their own identities and that of the organisation to begin to ‘blur’”, but also highlights that it is a requirement of those holding a managerial role. P14 also highlights seeking to hide their feelings: *“I tried not to express any outward feeling if I could [...] because I didn't trust them. I didn't feel I wanted them to see what I was thinking”*. I interpret such behaviours as a form of emotional labour (Brotheridge & Gandey, 2002; Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006; Turnbull, 1999) whereby people suppress their true feelings within the workplace. P11 describes emotional labour from the perspective of a change, whilst P14 holds a senior position but in this instance is a change recipient. Emotional labour can thus impact both. Indeed, De Cremer et al. (2016) advise change agents to regulate their emotions to avoid conflict with change recipients, either oblivious or uncaring of the impact such internal strain may cause in terms of “stress and forms of alienation” (Turnbull, 1999, p. 126) and burnout (Brotheridge & Gandey, 2002)

Based on the empirical material I argue that managing change and dealing with resistance is a challenging experience for change agents, a topic briefly covered

within the literature. What is lacking within the literature is the positive impact it can also have, beyond Carnall's (2007) argument that the stress it causes can be a motivating force as long as it is not excessive. Indeed, according to the Yerkes-Dodson Law high stress levels hinder performance on challenging, but not on simple, tasks (Diamond, Campbell, Park, Halonen, Zalodz, 2007). Emerging from this research is a more balanced picture of how leading change and managing resistance impacts the change agent, as a clear picture of positive impacts also emerge.

In terms of impacting positively change agent participants tell of finding the experience fascinating and enjoyable (P5), and an interesting challenge (P8, P9): *"I found that resistance actually a really engaging thing to deal with because it made my job more interesting" (P8)*. P13 appreciated the learning experience it brought: *"I'm really grateful that I've had the privilege to work in that kind of environment because [...] it forces you to develop your skills in communication"*. P8 also intimates that managing change benefitted them professionally: *"it becomes a really interesting challenge to rise to, and so [...] then, I'll excel."* Professional benefits thus emerge as a positive impact of dealing with resistance.

Another positive impact is that it can be pleasurable. P5 and P11 suggest that leading change can be fun: *"I think a sense of humour used positively is enormously powerful (P5)"* and *"I mean sometimes we had some hilarious times, possibly because of my poor explanation of what we were trying to do" (P11)*. The difference between the fun described by P5 and P11 relates to intention. P5 tells of deliberately injecting humour into how they led change, whilst for P11 it appears to have occurred accidentally. However, P11's leadership style meant that their poor communications could be interpreted in a humorous way, rather than leading to the negative impact of poor communications discussed earlier. Humour is also proposed by P14 as a useful tool to employ when leading change and managing resistance:

I've always tried to [...] lighten things up by seeing the funny side of something because otherwise it can get overly serious. And sometimes by saying something funny you can either deflate a difficult situation if you've had an argument about change, and it's sometimes

a way of adjourning a conversation [...] And giving people time to think about it.

P14 thus describes humour as a valuable tool at times of challenging conversations and humour is also highlighted by Kets de Vries (1990) in terms of the sage fool. However, the humour described by P5 and P11 is of an entirely different nature, as they are the ones in positions of power, they are not the change recipient acting the sage fool to use humour as a shield when speaking truth to power.

Leading change and dealing with the resistance to it can thus impact both positively and negatively upon the change agent. There is minimal literature covering this topic, and it is particularly neglected in the area of the positive impact upon the change agent which I find to occur. Change and resistance also impact upon the organisation and the chapter progresses through a discussion of the findings related to this.

6.3.3: The Impact on the Organisation: Success and Failure

In terms of the impact upon the organisation, the dualism emerges in the literature of resistance leading to either success or failure. The benefits resistance brings are discussed in sections 4.2-4.2.6 regarding constructive discontent and the arguments regarding the impact of how the change agent leads the change upon the success or failure of change are discussed in sections 5.2.7 and 6.2. What remains to consider is the impact of top management.

Based on the empirical material I argue that it is resistance by top management that kills change. Participants P3 and P7 tell of senior level resistance halting change. P3 describes the owners of the organisation resisting their proposed changes to professionalise it: *“I tried to establish the business as a more viable entity that could be grown through systems, processes, practice, even culture and leadership approach and all that kind of thing and they weren’t having it.”* P7 similarly tells the story of an Executive Chairman resisting changes being introduced by the Managing Director which led to the latter’s departure and the change being halted: *“the Managing Director had [...] an Executive Chairman*

who he reported to [...] I can imagine he wouldn't really have been in favour of it!"

Based on empirical material I challenge the underlying assumption in the literature that in top-down change initiatives it is resistance by subordinates that lead to its failure (Bradutanu, 2015; Dimitriadis, et al., 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016). Within the literature it is suggested that a blame game is played between the change agent and change recipients (Piderit, 2000) and that subordinate resistance is blamed to cover management inadequacies (Bradutanu, 2015). Burrow and Toney-Butler (2018) are more even-handed, arguing that both sides are responsible for success and failure. However, based on the findings of this research, I challenge the assumptions in the literature that it is subordinate resistance that leads to the failure of change. Recipients' resistance might be damaging but, for my participants, it does not halt the change. Regarding deleterious impacts, three Participants propose that it can affect productivity: *"Resistance to change can disrupt the change process and severely damage productivity during the change and beyond (P2)."* P5 and P8 suggest it may also incur costs: *"And disengagement, and again that comes back to time and cost and energy resources, personal resilience, all of those sorts of things"* (P8). However, I find no examples of subordinate resistance causing *total* failure of top-down change, such failure is caused by those at the top.

6.3.4: Section Summary

Within this section I have discussed the impact of change and resistance upon the change agent, recipient and the organisation. In support of the literature I argue that change can be a stressful experience for both those leading and resisting it. However there is little literature about the positive impact upon the change agent of leading change and managing resistance which, based on findings, I argue can be interesting, fascinating and enjoyable and provide the opportunity to enhance professional skills. The impact of resistance upon the resistor, however, may be loss of employment or promotion. Regarding the organisation, resistance from staff may impact positively or negatively upon change, but it is top-management that kills it.

6.4: The Impact Dimension Chapter Conclusion

The impact of change and resistance emerges from my research as a multidimensional phenomenon. There are positive and negative impacts upon the organisation, the change agent and the change recipient. I capture the multidimensional nature of the Impact Dimension in Figure 38.

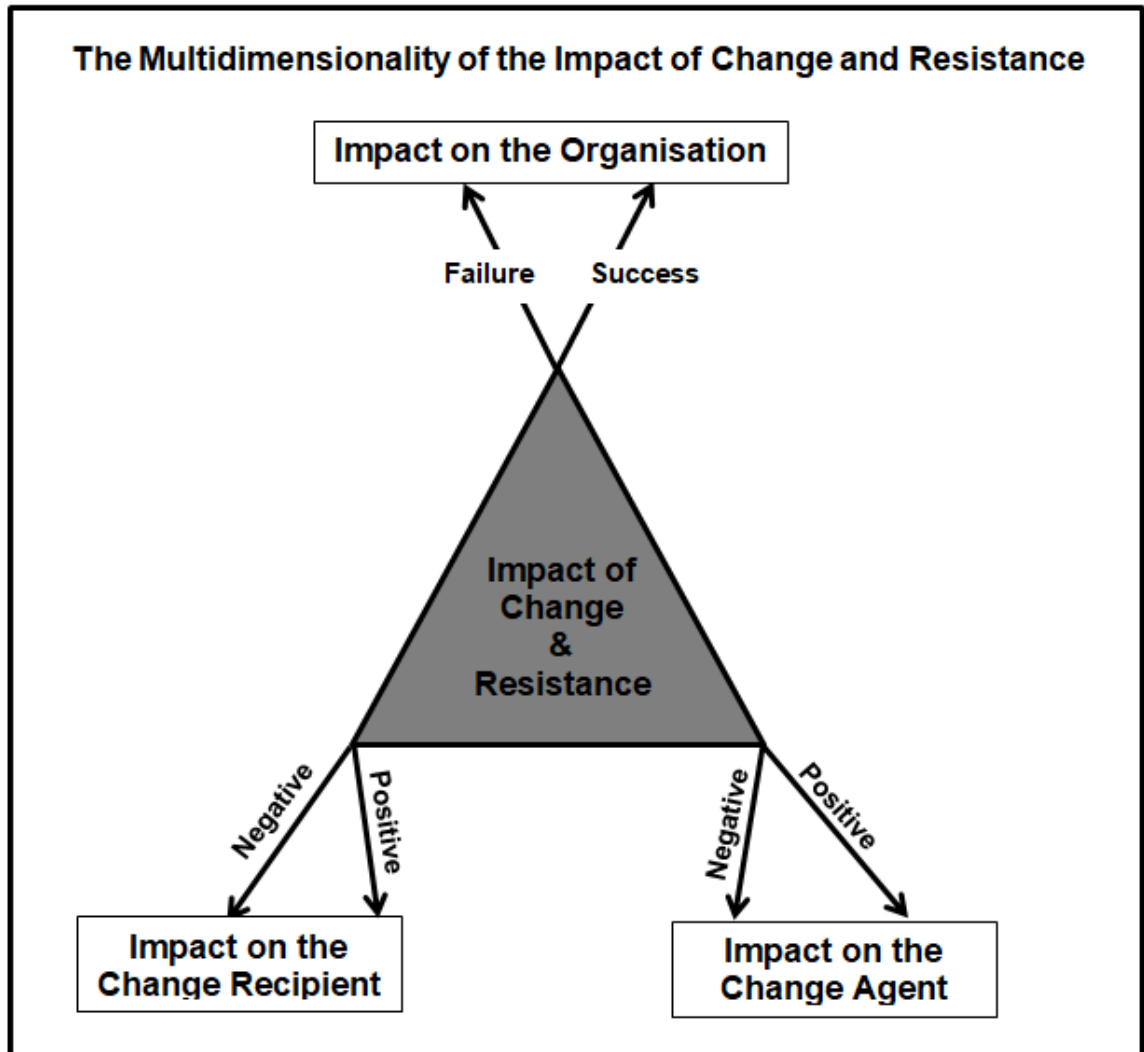


Figure 38

In terms of the organisation, the impact of resistance and how change is managed can deliver both positive and negative outcomes and positive and negative impacts upon the change recipient also emerge. The impact upon change agents can also be either a positive or negative experience and it is suggested that age and experience assist in better managing such occurrences.

In support of the literature I find that change has an emotional impact upon change recipients, but the impact upon change agents is a neglected area of academic discussion. I contend that leading change and managing the resistance to it, impacts both positively and negatively upon the change agent, with the potential to be stressful or enjoyable and also providing the opportunity for professional development. Similarly, the impact of emotional labour during change is a neglected area within the literature (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006) and I find that it impacts both the change agent who engages in inauthentic behaviour, and change recipients who suppress their feelings.

I also challenge the assumption in the literature that in top-down change, resistance by change recipients lead to failure. Such resistance might be costly or impact productivity, but it is resistance by senior management that kills change. I hereby *advance Objective 4 and Question 7* related to problematizing the literature.

Through this chapter I also *advance Objective 1 and Question 2* related to developing a multidimensional conceptual framework as I discuss in detail my findings related the third dimension regarding the impact of change and resistance.

Chapter Seven: Findings and Discussion: The Actors Dimension

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Literature Review
Chapter Three	Methodology
Chapter Four	Findings & Discussion: The Value Dimension
Chapter Five	Findings & Discussion: The Character Dimension
Chapter Six	Findings & Discussion: The Impact Dimension
Chapter Seven	Findings & Discussion: The Actors Dimension
Chapter Eight	Findings & Discussion: The Engagement Dimension
Chapter Nine	Findings & Discussion: The Language Dimension
Chapter Ten	Findings & Discussion: The Temporal Dimension
Chapter Eleven	Findings & Discussion: The Spatial Dimension
Chapter Twelve	Conclusion and Contributions

7.1: Introduction

Having discussed the *why* and *how* of resistance and its *impact*, I progress the thesis through a discussion of the Actors Dimension, regarding those *who* resist change. I capture the position of this fourth dimension of my conceptual framework in Figure 39.

Dimension 4: The Actors Dimension

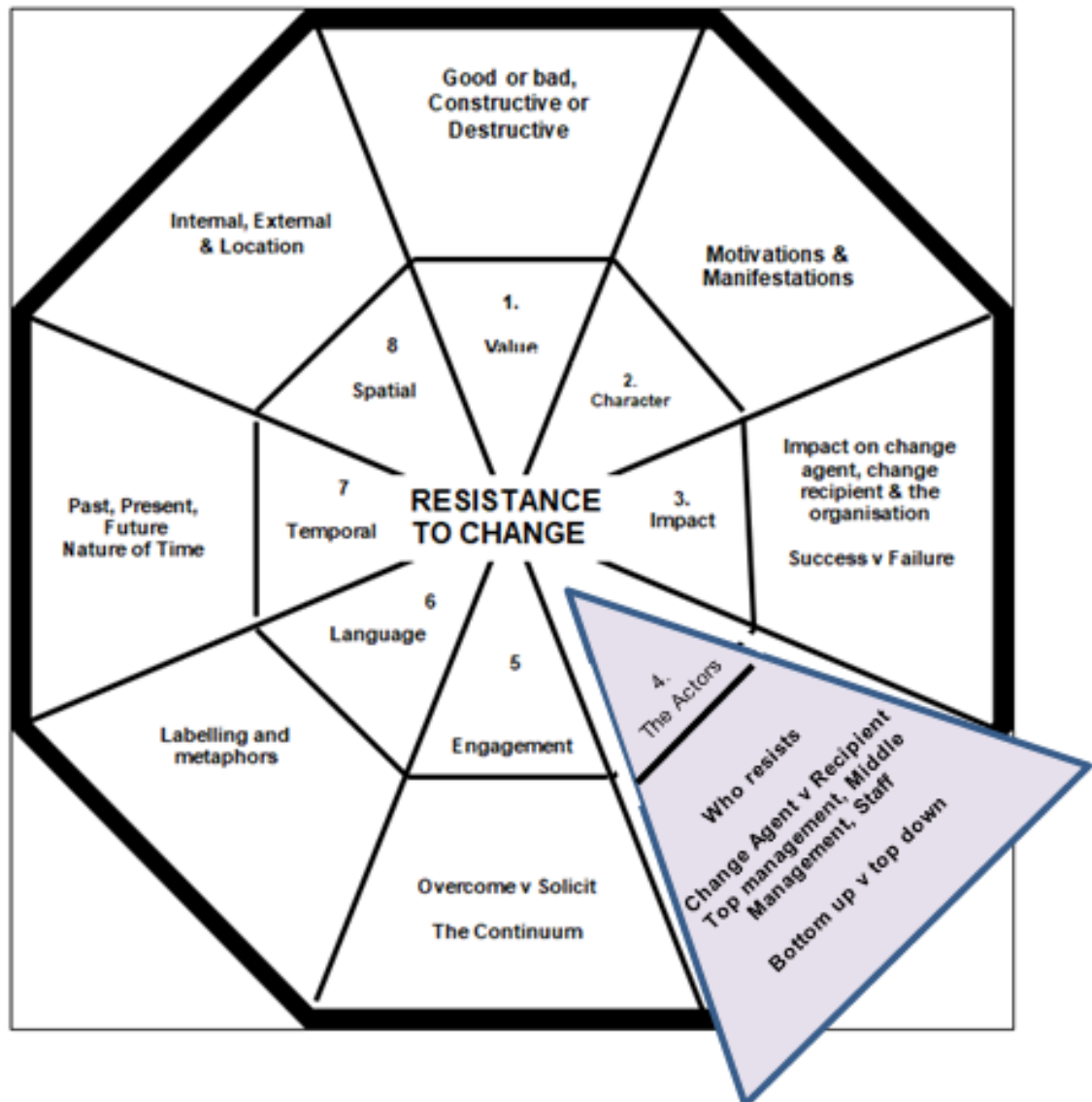


Figure 39

Regarding top-down change, the literature predominantly focuses on resistance coming from below in reaction to the change being imposed from above, providing prescriptive strategies for leading change (Beer, et al., 1990; Kotter, 2012) and guidance on how to overcome resistance (Bradutanu, 2015; Kotter, 1995; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2015). However, I argue that whilst resistance can indeed be bottom-up, it can also come from senior managers: managers resist change being imposed from higher up the hierarchy; change leaders can be ambivalent about or resistant to the changes that they are leading, and those in the most senior positions can resist the very

changes they initiated. I discuss the findings related to these areas within this chapter.

7.2: Bottom-up Resistance

Participants share stories of the typical bottom up resistance to top-down change, which is portrayed in the literature and which I discuss in the discussion of why people resist change (section 5.2) and how it is manifests (section 5.3). P4 describes vocal bottom-up resistance emerging in meetings: *“I can really only think about the complaints, [...] the really loud meetings and [...] management were under no disillusionment about how employees felt”*. P13 also encountered resistance from below and is explicit in differentiating the source within their hierarchical context: *“I was senior manager and all above, all understood that the change had to happen, so there was no resistance there. From team managers downwards, [...] that’s where the resistance came in.”*

Regarding hierarchical context, P1, however, shared the opposite experience that it was *“the people on the shop floor were the ones that wanted the improvements”* and *“some of the more difficult instances possibly [...] came more from higher management than lower management and the shop floor”*. P1’s story thus provides an example of top-down change being resisted more by those in the middle of the organisational hierarchy than by those at the bottom. Based on this evidence I challenge the assumption linking resistance to hierarchical levels in the organisation and thereby *advance objective 4 and Question 7* related to problematization.

7.3: Management Resistance

There is little academic literature about management resistance to change, especially senior management resistance and the resistance of managers to the change they are leading. Emerging from my research however, are multiple stories of management resistance.

P1 and P13 respectively, describe middle-management resistance to being measured and scrutiny: *“they may have felt threatened because [...] they may be scrutinised”* (P13). P5 also describes outspoken middle-management opposition to a change: *“neither of them took the party line. They were very outspoken*

about the shortcomings; it was open opposition and resentment.” Based on the empirical material I therefore propose that this overt resistance counters Giangreco and Peccei’s (2005) argument that middle-management generally just resist by not being pro-change.

P13 also describes senior management resistance from their own line-manager: *“(They) resisted the changes that I’d negotiated [...] I ended up standing up against (them) [...] And we ended up putting through the [...] (change) that the staff designed”*. This provides an example of senior management resistance to a solution, devised with staff, which met the change objectives, thereby inverting the concept of resistance to top-down change coming from below (Bradutanu, 2015; Jousen & Scholl, 2016). Indeed, several participants provide stories of management resistance from those in senior positions whilst P14, as CEO, describes resisting alongside the Managing Director: *“he got into loggerheads with them [...] he actually told them to their face, “[...] You add no value at all, you just waste my time.” [...] And then that finished up as a negotiation over an agreement to go.”* P14 thus describes senior managers resigning as they disagreed with changes being introduced and how they were led.

I thus find multiple examples of resistance to change at various management levels, and based on this material I counter the assumption identified by By et al. (2016) that management do not resist change.

7.4: Management Resistance or Lack of Commitment to Change They are Leading

The literature regarding management resisting or lacking commitment to changes they are leading is a neglected area. I progress this chapter through a discussion of my findings related to this phenomenon.

P11 describes leading a change they did not fully believe in: *“But that was one level where I was resisting change whilst actually bringing change about, so I think that was the tension that I had personally.”* They state: *“I couldn’t have defended it because I was having my own personal major misgivings and questions about the entire thing!”* Michael (2013) relates how change agents may struggle when the change is counter to their values, and this is effectively what

happens with P11 who describes their concern for colleagues' jobs and their future. Their struggle with emotional labour suggests they were seeking to behave professionally, i.e. in accordance with their understanding of the organisation's expectations of behaviour, and lead the change as required. Baker (2014), Gupta-Sunderji (2016) and Stark (2016) all argue that change agents should put aside their concerns and emotions and get on with leading the change, which is effectively what P11 did to the point of their resignation.

P11 also describes 'resisting' by being selective about who they communicated with, in order to avoid people they considered to be inappropriate gaining board positions.

I took an entirely personal opinion of one individual and I thought, "This person shouldn't be in charge of a teapot, let alone public sector money." Basically it was just the one that I thought was not trustworthy, didn't have an iota of public civil duty in (them), it was, "What can I get out of this for my company?"

They describe this as 'resistant behaviour' but I interpret it as seeking to gain the best change possible by taking action to avoid potential personnel problems and thereby negative outcomes for the change. P11 also had to manage resistance of colleagues and ultimately resisted the change they had been leading by resigning: *"I put in my resignation and I left [...] on the Friday that it stopped being the regional office and it became an agency."* Resigning is the ultimate form of resistance, as the person not only rejects the change but the whole organisation.

P11 thus describes the experience of leading a change they did not believe in whilst P5 describes witnessing a senior manager struggle to lead an I.T. change: *"The problem with that guy was [...] It was resistance to change and leading the change, so it was mixed messages every single day"*. P5 describes what might be either resistance or ambivalence (Piderit, 2000) by the Finance Director to a change they were leading, causing chaos as they regularly changed the change: *"Changing it on the daily basis [...] (They) saw the necessity to get the change, but (they) really couldn't understand why all the add-ons (they) wanted would cost so much money"*. P5's story is thus one of a top director not providing fulsome support to the change they led.

Thomas and Hardy (2011) suggest that middle-management can be a change agent or a resistor but based on participants' stories I challenge this. They reveal P11, a middle-manager, holding both positions simultaneously and the colleague described by P5 doing the same but as a senior manager. It is therefore not an either or question; a middle-manager might be a change agent or a resistor, or indeed both simultaneously. The same also holds true for senior management. I thereby challenge the dominant assumption in the literature that top-down change is supported by those at the top and by those leading it thereby problematizing the literature and *advancing Objective 4 and question 7*.

7.5: Top Management Resistance to Changes They Initiated

Braduscanu (2015) proposes that top management might resist the changes of subordinates or shareholders but that they will not resist their own changes. I challenge this assumption as it emerges from participants' stories that top management will resist changes they initiated.

P3 describes being employed as Managing Director to lead a change to professionalise and grow an organisation and the change failing when the organisation's owners, who had employed them to do this, resisted.

they hired me to grow the firm [...] And I tried to do it through development of an infrastructure, through the establishment of process procedure [...] standard stuff you would have in a business really so that it was sustainable. Because what they'd done thus far [...] was random decision-making made on an ad hoc basis as you'd do in a very small business like corner shop owner. [...] I knew that you can't grow a firm like that [...] so I tried to establish the business as a more viable entity [...] and they weren't having it.

Their resistance placed P3 in such a difficult position P3 ultimately left: *"they were very friendly and affable and okay we got on but it was clear that they were not for changing."* Their story is one of top management resisting and ultimately killing the change they initiated. Indeed P3 is explicit that the change they were employed to lead, failed describing themselves as *"the champion of change who failed, I guess would be the way to put it."*

P3 describes the resistance from the chairperson starting almost immediately as they realised that they would need to change:

in the early days everybody was nodding and making the right noises [...] in agreement but then they weren't following through and then slowly even the nods of agreement stopped. [...] So there was [...] an acceptance ostensibly but not in reality; so a bit of lip service really to sort of welcome me on board.

The lip-service they describe is an example of the “ghost of engagement” (Figure 36) and P3 also describes how the chairperson and their business partner never explained the reason they resisted, but expressed their resistance through ignoring or avoiding them: *“avoidance in its many forms I think; [...] stop attending meetings [...] stopped responding to my e-mails about certain things.”*

They also explain how this form of resistance via avoidance worked:

it was very subtle, passive [...] what that didn't do is pushed me to push harder. Because if somebody says, “No,” then you're into debate aren't you, so you start to champion your cause, but if nobody says anything then you've got nothing to debate so you're kind of left without anywhere to go really. And that was their approach. It's quite a clever one

P3 describes top managements' manner as: *“passively aggressive [...] in their actions or lack of action, their inaction, just to maintain the status quo”* which supports Dent and Goldberg's (1999) argument that top management will resist to protect the status quo. Another tactic employed by the chairperson was to covertly undermine P3 by *“sowing a few seeds of discontent”* as discussed in section 5.2.2 on politics. These tactics were successful due to their senior position and legitimate power (Raven & French, 1958):

fundamentally they were technically more senior than I was, they owned the firms and they'd been around a lot longer so staff, although they reported in to me, would probably defer if there was a split decision, to those two.

P3 also proposes that the chairperson justified their behaviour to themselves by realigning their memories:

(they) cognitively reframed [...] my role as MD [...] So there was cognitive dissonance really. What I was saying didn't fit with what (they) wanted so (they'd) invented a new scenario in (their) head, in this kind of bodge it and leg it approach to business that fitted (their) desires for the time being.

P3 describes their resistance as a form of “cognitive dissonance”, a description also employed by P12 who encountered a similar situation whereby a top manager resisted a change they had initiated: *“(They were) resisting (their) own*

change; cognitive dissonance and things like that just flood into all of this.” The impact of such behaviour can be bewildering to those witnessing it: “And it was quite surreal actually” (P3).

P7 also shares a story of top level resistance to a change that ultimately killed it. The organisation was a former nationalised business that was privatised and a new Managing Director was recruited and sought to introduce a branded change programme led by consultants and resistance to this change came from all levels. Staff resistance was based on it being an inappropriate change and the need for it was questioned: *“the company financially was ship-shape, there was not a lot wrong with it. So I think people thought, “Why are we going this?” (P7).*

one of the criticisms was that the training, in our view, was aimed more at a manufacturing industry [...] whereas the company [...] was a service industry, service provision. So a lot of the things they were talking about we felt didn't really relate to the company.

The resistance was covert with senior management reporting the discontent discretely to the Board: *“I think it was very much off the record”.*

P7 describes the primary resistance coming from the very top of the organisational hierarchy, the Chairman:

in those days, the Chairman was the highest ranking employee. [...] only a rumour, but what we heard was, the Chairman picked up all this bad hearsay [...] and [...] brought one of the old managing directors out of retirement and asked him to do some sniffing around. [...] and he reported back, and then obviously the Managing Director who introduced this programme was sacked.

This guy, who'd we'd heard had come out of retirement to do the sniffing around, he was made an Interim Managing Director [...] for six months to run the company while they headhunted a new Managing Director

The change was subsequently quickly halted: *“literally, and I mean literally overnight. I went to see my boss and he said [...] It's finished.” And everybody went, “Yeah!” [...] literally overnight it was scrapped” (P7).*

P7's story provides a further example of top management resisting changes they had triggered by employing a new Managing Director, and then subsequently killing the change, and both stories result in the departure of the new Managing

Director. P7's Chairman's resistance may have been constructive discontent to a bad change and the methods of top level resistance may have differed, but the outcome was the same: when top management resisted, change died.

P12 also describes a senior director resisting elements of a change they were involved in introducing. They wanted to grow the business internationally but recognised that some of the less senior managers required training and so sought funding to support vocational training for them. However to access the funds senior managers, including themselves, were required to participate in 360 degree appraisals. The top person resisted this:

The route to getting vocationally related qualifications support funds was first to do the 360 appraisals for the senior managers [...] So there was this intense resistance; there was two resistances, one for the (person) to participate and then there was another resistance [...] "Why should we do it if he's not going to do it?"

P12's story highlights not only senior management resistance to their own change but also how resistant behaviours can spread to others. However, in this example the change succeeded as the reticent director did ultimately engage and as a result amended their management style which ultimately impacted throughout the organisation: *"so overall in terms of the group holding company there was a significant increase in its profit."*

P14 also describes top level management changing their attitude, but whereas P12 described a switch from resistance to support for the change, P14 encountered a switch in the opposite direction:

We'd negotiated £0.25 million grant from the EU for relocating to this area of [...] and [...] the Chief Exec said, "Well I haven't approved this." I said "What?" and (they) said, "We haven't approved it." [...] me and the MD [...] we were sitting there, we were looking at one another and I said, "But we've talked about this," and then (they) suddenly said, to (their) credit [...] "I can understand the confusion now, just because I've said yes to this seven times doesn't mean you've got approval to go ahead."

The top-level resistant behaviour P14 encountered clearly caused confusion: *"So seven yeses doesn't mean you've got the go ahead"*. I thus find significant empirical material from which to advance the argument that top management resist change and can kill change they initiated.

7.6: The Actors Dimension Chapter Conclusion

Based on participants' stories, I challenge underlying assumptions in the literature that in top-down change, change is led and supported by the change agent and resisted by the change recipient. I argue those at the bottom of the organisational hierarchy may support change that those above them resist. Indeed resistance can come from middle and senior management, and top management can resist and even kill the changes they initiated. I also challenge the assumption that those leading change support it. The literature covering these areas of resistance is limited, and I found to be non-existent regarding top management resisting changes they initiated. Based on these findings I *advance Objective 4 and Question 7* related to problematization.

Based on the empirical findings, I adapt the Forcefield Analysis models that appear in the literature (Burnes, 2009; Hughes, 2010; Senior & Swailes, 2010) derived from Kurt Lewin's (1947) field theory (Hughes, 2010), to create Figure 40. Figure 40 illustrates the forces change agents and management, and change recipients and staff might employ during change. The Forcefield Analysis of the literature proposes that change occurs when the driving forces promoting a change are strong enough to overcome the resisting forces opposing the change, and within this context Figure 40 illustrates the dynamics of the organisational hierarchy in top-down change.

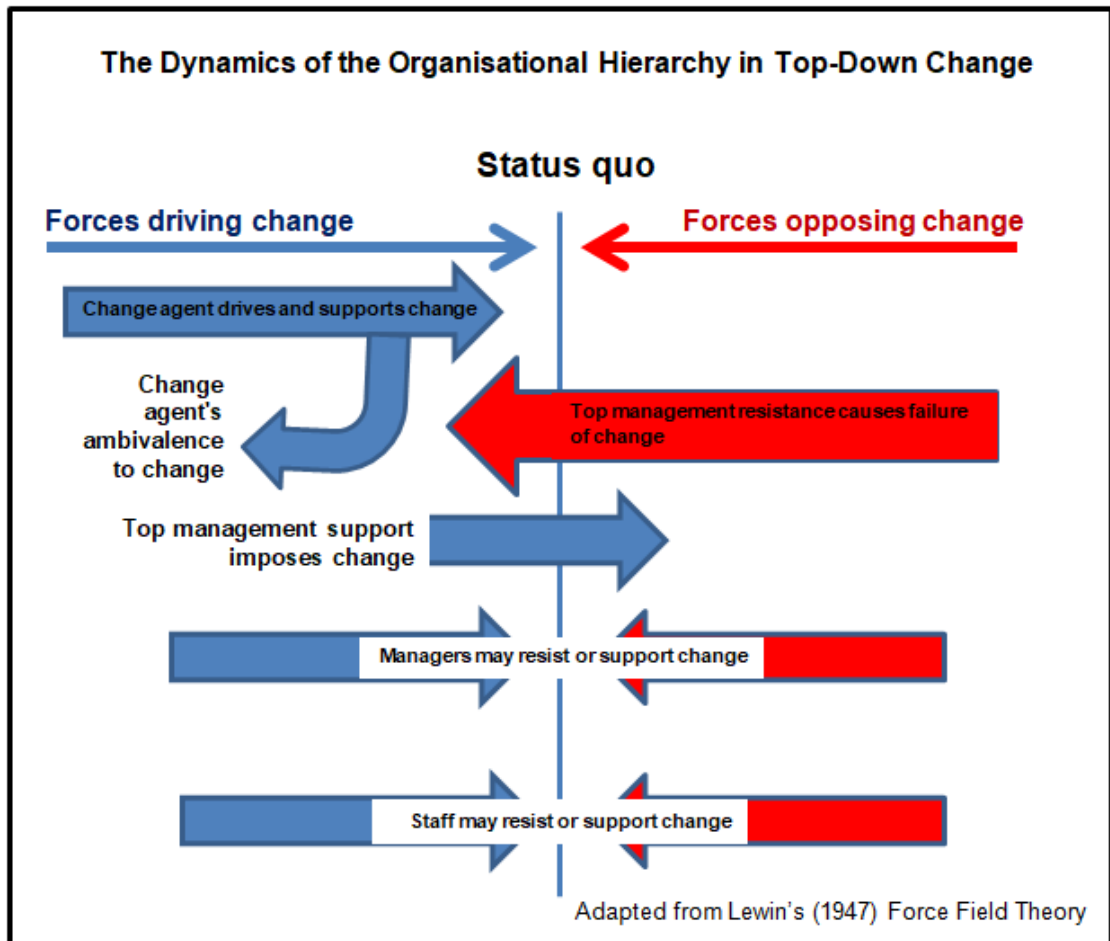


Figure 40

Within Figure 40 I capture how, in top-down change, support or resistance for the change can come from all levels of the organisational hierarchy, thereby challenging the assumption that in top-down change senior management support change and the recipients below challenge it. I illustrate how top management resistance can lead to change failure and that no assumption should be made regarding the support of the change agent for the change they are leading.

Through discussion in this chapter regarding *who* resist change I advance Objective 3 and answer Question 4: “Who within the organisational hierarchy resists change?” My identification of the Actors Dimension of Resistance and discussion of its various facets advances Objective 1 and Question 2 to identify dimensions of resistance and develop a multidimensional conceptual framework.

Chapter Eight: Findings and Discussion: The Engagement Dimension

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8.1: Introduction

I progress the chapter through a consideration of the Engagement Dimension which appears as the fifth dimension within my conceptualisation of the multidimensionality of resistance (Figure 41).

Dimension 5: The Engagement Dimension

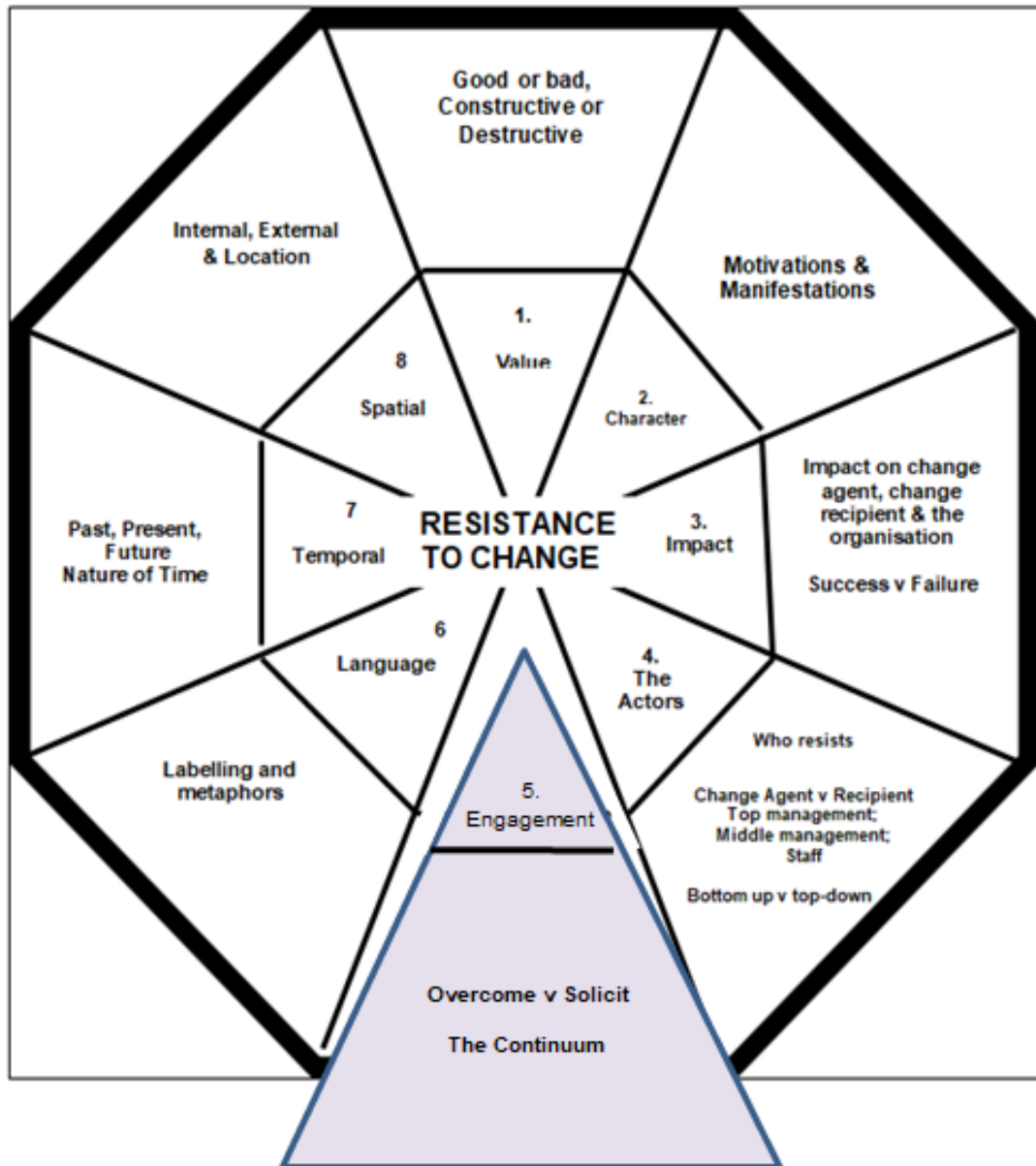


Figure 41

I begin my discussion of the Engagement Dimension by first considering the empirical findings related to how participants have solicited and engaged with resistance. I then consider the antithesis of solicitation and engagement, overcoming resistance, which includes a brief discussion of participants' experiences of how change was managed as this is discussed in section 5.2.7. I conclude the section with a discussion of the continuum of engagement with resistance which emerges.

8.2: Soliciting Resistance

Participants were asked if in their experience resistance to change had been solicited (Nevis, 1987) by those leading change, or encouraged by methods such as using a devil's advocate (George & Stern, 2002; Reissner et al., 2011; Schwenk & Cosier, 1980). P13 was clear that this hasn't happened: *"I don't think I've been on any teams that have been that intelligent to do that because that takes intelligence."* P13 refers to the need for "intelligence". Regarding the nature of the intelligence required, seeking constructive discontent is discussed in the emotional intelligence literature (Abraham, 1999; Dann, 2008) suggesting that it is E.Q that is required. It perhaps requires IQ to recognise the value of soliciting resistance and EQ to then solicit challenge.

Other participants shared stories of seeking resistance or opposing views in a number of ways. The most formal way was legal and associated with the consultation process required when an organisation seeks to make redundancies. P4, however, suggests that beyond the legal process resistance was not sought and did not make much difference, as the decision had effectively been made:

we went through the legal process of the consultation and the letters saying that we're exploring options, if you have any ideas please let us know and so on and so forth; but there wasn't any other option realistically and they were closing the site and decentralising the operations (P4).

Their reference to their being no other option, suggests that the change was a *fait accompli* and the consultation was a façade. P8 shares a similar story of a decision being made and so consultation would make little difference: *"it would have been formalised through this consultation process [...] but at the end of the day, the organisation said, "This is the target, 25% cost saving and it's got to happen."* I therefore argue that rather than seeking and engaging with resistance through the legal consultation process only lip-service is paid to the process in order to meet the legal requirement; it is effectively a *fait accompli*. Legal consultation is reduced to a veneer, a minor detour in the road to imposing a pre-decided change, thereby making a ghost of engagement (Figure 36).

P2 also describes opposing views not being sought when they were made redundant; the redundancies were enforced. However, they consider this to be appropriate behaviour: *“And it wouldn’t have been appropriate in the situation [...] when a change is very sudden and forced it possibly wouldn’t have been the right”*. P2 suggests here that soliciting resistance through consultation prior to suddenly making people redundant is not appropriate. However, if the Receivers had solicited or engaged with resistance at an earlier stage, they might have discovered other opportunities to address the required change. P2 does, however, consider that such engagement would be beneficial in rebuilding the organisation afterwards, thereby making a distinction between the type of change for which resistance should be solicited.

Three participants explain how they facilitated the emergence of resistance informally, through encouraging dialogue. Two participants suggest that the small nature of their organisations facilitate this: *“It was a small company, so I didn’t have to set up formal meetings to get people’s views, they would tell me that anyway”* (P5).

It was an SME really [...] so within the team we were very small. So there was a lot more open dialogue [...] It wasn’t necessarily solicited in such a formal way but it was made clear that you could raise and suggest these issues without it being a formal process (P4).

The small size of an organisation can thus encourage open discussion without formalised activities to seek out opposing views being required. However P6 and P14 describe actively seeking them:

it was my way of trying to get engagement with it [...] “Right guys, we need to achieve this, I’ve got an idea. What do you think? [...] And people would go, “Oh, that’s bloody stupid, let’s try this” (P6).

Whilst P6 put forward ideas for colleagues to challenge, P14 solicited resistance by 'pushing against' a trusted colleague in order to gain their perspective and resistance: *“I knew I could always push against (them) [...] I either had to sell it to (them) or where I was coming from was the wrong place.”* P14 valued the resistance as a means of identifying if something was wrong with their proposal which supports Armenakis and Harris’ (2002, p. 170) argument that *“If a change message cannot convince others of the appropriateness of the change, then efforts should be made to reconsider whether it really is appropriate”* and, similar

to P6, is encouraging challenge to their ideas. P5, however, describes engaging with resistance by sharing opposing views:

the technique I used was [...] to always tell one person the opposing view. So, if I spoke to the directors, I would tell them what the staff told me, and if I talked to the staff, I would tell them what the directors' view was.

Participants are thus seeking resistance as a form of feedback by seeking or sharing opposing views (Gregersen, 2016) or working within a culture that facilitates multiple advocacy (De Cremer et al., 2016; George & Stern, 2002). I therefore argue that there is evidence that the call of Nevis (1987) to solicit resistance and of Ford et al., (2008) and Ford & Ford (2010) to engage with it as a potentially beneficial phenomenon, has been answered in some quarters. P14 and P15 claim to have used the devil's advocate method to generate feedback: *"occasionally either I would do that or others in the team would do that"* (P15), but generally resistance is informally sought. P9 and P15, however, propose that soliciting resistance is unnecessary in their experience, as the resistance emerges without the need to solicit it: *"they usually come"* (P15), and *"I don't think that was needed at all! I think just the announcement that "This is what's happening" was the devil's advocate, it was just like lighting a match* (P9). This idea that resistance is immediate and comes naturally is associated with the argument that people have an inherent proclivity to resist (Blount & Carroll, 2017; Gunnar, 2017; Sklar, 2018).

In contrast to the informal practices employed, P12 describes using contingency planning as a form of soliciting resistance in a more formal manner:

I said, "Think about the things that actually could harm the change. Identify them [...] Then think about if harm had occurred [...] as a result of that, what would be the impact? Is it severe? [...] Medium or whatever?" [...] You can calculate it all and then not only do you know the balls that's going to be thrown back at you but you know which are the most important ones [...] you've got to deal with. So you learn the responses, you have your action plans based on those

Although P12 describes this as a method of *soliciting* resistance, I interpret their actions as preparing management to counter the resistance they may encounter. It is a means of *overcoming* resistance, rather than soliciting it.

Having discussed the solicitation of resistance, I progress this section by first considering the findings related to engaging with resistance and then non-engagement and overcoming resistance.

8.3: Engagement with Resistance

Four participants share stories of the importance of engagement in change situations through listening, consulting and involving people. P15 and P9 describe the importance of listening skills in change situations: *“I firmly believe that you do have to listen, because you need buy-in” (P9)*. Three participants are clear about the importance of involving people and the consultations they describe take the form of group meetings: *“we had general focus groups [...] So as well as having the joint ones where everybody was together, they did separate focus groups with different groups of people to try and get the different opinions” (P9)*. A sense of engagement through communicating to groups emerges, with P15 suggesting a similarity to being team coach: *“If you’ve got bad news, tell them, don’t hide it. At the same time be encouraging, [...] be supportive [...] it’s a bit like being a good coach”*.

Such engagement meets with the guidance provided by Waddell and Sohal (1998) to provide employees with the opportunity to be involved in all areas of the change and give feedback as regular communications and consultations are a key critical success factor when implementing change. Indeed, good quality communications are identified as crucial to successfully leading change (Bradutanu, 2015; Carnall, 2007; Wachira & Anyieni, 2017; Wittig, 2012) and the importance of participation identified within some of the earliest literature (Coch and French, 1948).

Four Participants also describe engagement through the employment of consultants to facilitate change within the organisation: *“sometimes with outside help because people don’t listen to the prophet in their own land” (P14)*. This appears to be a detached form of engagement with those who may resist as it to some extent removes those responsible for initiating the change from the day to day management of it. P14 thus suggests employing consultants is useful because people do not listen to their own managers, and P8 highlights the benefit of the skillsets consultants bring:

engaged by throwing consultants at it, so it was engaged with by throwing me at it, or me and my team at it. It was engaged with perhaps a little bit more looser by line managers, who would try and have dialogues, but they weren't particularly skilled in these dialogues.

However, consultants can also effectively distance those at the top from full engagement with the change they have instigated, acting as a shield to the challenges. Employing consultants is thus a limited form of engagement.

8.4: Overcoming Resistance

Having explored active and more passive aspects of engagement, I now consider the opposite, overcoming resistance. A body of literature prescribes actions to overcome resistance (Appendix 3) which include listening, communication and education. Such activities, by their very nature, involve engagement with resistance and so might equally be associated with actions involved in soliciting resistance to benefit from constructive discontent. It is therefore unsurprising that there are blurred lines within the literature related to engagement and overcoming resistance, which I highlight in section 2.3 of the literature review. The behaviours appear to be the same but it is the intention underpinning them that differs; i.e. is the engagement intended to nullify the resistance, or is it intended to engage with it to facilitate the best change possible?

Three participants describe change being imposed, suggesting minimal engagement: *"I would say that I wasn't listened to. I was just shut down"* (P2). P2 thus describes being shut down, whilst P6 did the shutting down: *"We've got to get on and do it and break the resistance."* These examples provide evidence of non-engagement and straightforward imposition as a means of overcoming resistance. P2's description of being shut down provides an example of the silencing of dissenting voices (Reisner, et al., 2011) and both examples evidence the type of imposition that fuels either resistance or the organisational silence, destructive content, discussed in section 4.4.2.

P1, however, describes the imposition of change occurring in a 'friendly manner', based on a close, amicable relationship with colleagues that permitted imposition to be undertaken in what might otherwise appear to be an aggressive style: *"we*

just banged the table and told them to get on with it.” P1 also provides an example of limited engagement with resistance: *“on the shop floor there were slight changes made [...] to the generic processes when people turned round and say, “Well we can’t really do it that way,” and that was then taken on board.”* P10, however, describes a situation that moves from limited engagement to non-engagement, when concerns about the organisation were raised through their leadership courses, this training was cancelled and the resistance was ignored: *“I could see the culture shift there from the senior management and instead of the encouragement, it’s more telling you, “This is what needs to be done now.”* Training is a method of overcoming resistance (Bradutanu, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979) however, in P10’s example it was withdrawn when negative feedback was encountered, resulting in a culture shift from encouragement to imposition. The amount of engagement encountered during a change is therefore not fixed during the change.

Regarding the imposition of change, there are within the literature arguments supporting the use of implicit or explicit coercion (Bradutanu, 2015; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2015) which suggest imposition through threats. P10 describes such coercion: *“the General Managers brought up some concerns about the changes they wanted to make. And what that director did [...] he basically said, “If you don’t tow the company line and follow the strategy, there’s the f-ing door.”* This form of overcoming resistance provides an extreme example of a lack of engagement. As change agent, P11 is similarly extreme in their non-engagement but they achieve this, not through threats but by ignoring people they considered difficult: *“if they’re not going to be helpful then I won’t ask them a second time and I’ll go somewhere else [...] I was doing a certain degree of sifting who I spoke to internally as well.”* Such selectivity suggests a limited form of engagement; a point somewhere between the two extremes of soliciting resistance and non-engagement to the point of overcoming it.

8.4.1: Overcoming Resistance by Removing People

A most extreme form of non-engagement is removing those that resist from the organisation. P2 tells of challenging the change agent and subsequently being selected for redundancy, and P10 describes ‘Assessment Centres’ being held

and those who had resisted the change subsequently being made redundant. P15, however, is more measured in their approach to removing people: *“there’s a limit to the tolerance and if you find that that change is going to be impeded then you have to take decisive action [...] but do it properly [...] do all you can to help them”*.

Strebel (1997) also recommends removing resistant staff as a way of implementing change by starting at the top and giving people the opportunity to sign up to the change or leave. P15’s story supports Strebel’s (1997) approach and P10 witnessed an example of this occurring: *“He was resisting the changes to the UK business [...] he said, “It’s running fine,” [...] “I’ve run businesses, so I know.” [...] So he went. He probably got paid off, but he went.”* P14’s story, however, goes beyond this. They describe witnessing new management losing people not because they resist, but as a method of controlling knowledge; this is about power:

that was the heart of what [...] they do. If you come in, you get rid of the incumbent management, you are then the only person with knowledge about what goes on and theoretically you have brought in people who are loyal to you.

Here, the removal of senior people is interpreted as being a method of facilitating the change process, not for the benefit of the organisation but to meet the agenda of the newcomers instigating and driving the change. P7 provides a similar example: *“he came in, he sacked a high-profile [...] Manager for no reason, so that of course gets everybody’s backs up [...] it made people think, “Bloody hell, he’s sacked this guy and it could be me next.”* P7’s account differs from P14’s as it appears to be less about removing people with knowledge and more about creating a culture of fear to secure compliance. As discussed in section 5.2.6, fear can both provoke and kill resistance and here it is interpreted as being employed to quell it. Both examples go beyond Strebel’s (1997) suggestion that senior resisters be fired, as they describe senior executives apparently being removed for reasons unrelated to resistance. It is also counter to Bradutanu (2015) and Kotter and Schlesinger’s (1979) guidance to fire those who resist as a last resort. Senior people are also described as being removed, or encouraged to leave, not because they were resistant but because they were actually driving a change that those at the very top did not want (sections 6.3.3;

6.3.4; 7.5). Removing people is thus a means of both overcoming resistance, and a tool of resistance employed by those at the very top of the organisation.

8.5: The Engagement Chapter Conclusion

As discussed in the literature review, authors take polarised positions when it comes to engagement with resistance advocating either overcoming resistance to change or engaging and even soliciting it to access the value it delivers. This simple dualism is captured below in Figure 42.

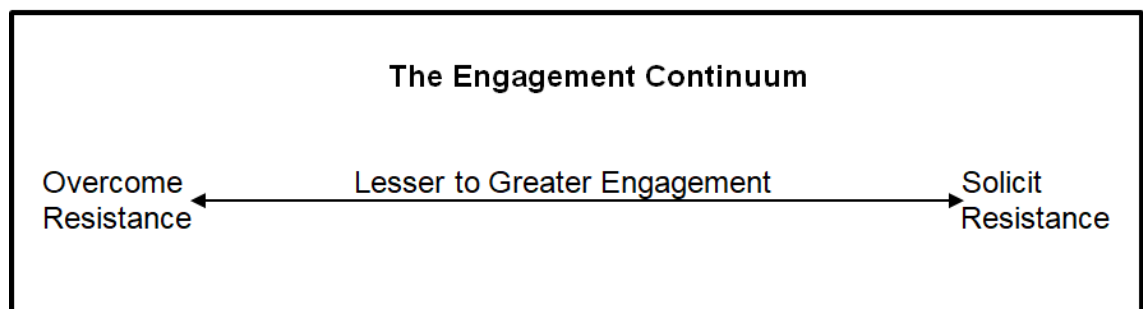


Figure 42

The lines between the two extremes can become blurred as those writing about overcoming resistance, can also be arguing for engagement with it (Blount & Carroll, 2017; Coch & French, 1948) leaving little to differentiate between the two extremes beyond the authors' labelling of their intent. Between the two positions is a spectrum of engagement from minimal to significant which is also divided by the underlying intent.

Emerging from this research is a nuanced conceptualisation of engagement. Evidence emerges of engagement at the two extremes of the continuum and also along the continuum in between. In addition, positions along this continuum are not fixed, with an organisation both seeking to impose change whilst also reaping benefits from engaging with it (P1). Additionally, organisations may change their position on engagement during a change. Removing people as a means of non-engagement also emerges from the material as being multi-faceted; people are removed because they resist change in order to implement change, and people at the top of the organisation remove people as a means of resisting a change the person is leading.

Through this chapter I thereby *advance Objective 1 and Question 2* related to identifying dimensions of resistance and building a multidimensional conceptual framework of resistance.

Chapter Nine: Findings and Discussion: The Language Dimension

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9.1: Introduction

Within this chapter I discuss my findings related to the language of resistance which forms my sixth dimension of resistance, captured in Figure 43.

Dimension 6: The Language Dimension

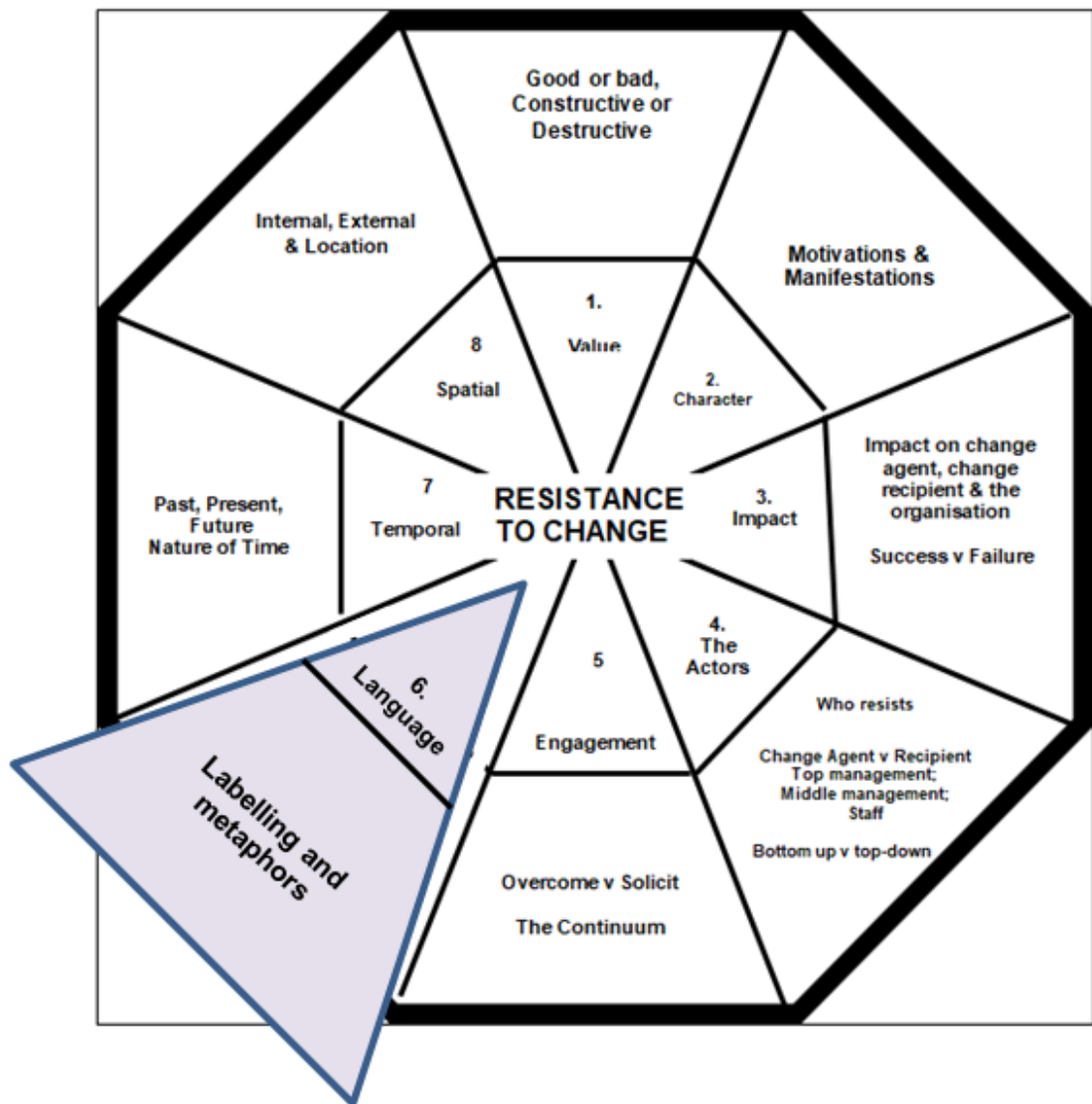


Figure 43

It is through the use of language that resistance is labelled as such, and it is by employing figurative language including, analogies, metaphors and similes, that participants make sense of their experiences and explain them. I progress this chapter through an examination of these findings and thereby *advance Objective 1 and Question 2* regarding the dimensions of resistance.

9.2: The Labelling of Resistance

Resistance is identified by being labelled as such (Ford & Ford, 2010). The labelling of resistance is an act of power by those in senior positions (Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Ford et al., 2008; Nevis, 1987) directed at subordinates, and the label might not be the experience of those labelled as resisting (Ford & Ford,

2009; Ford & Ford, 2010; Nevis, 1987). I progress this section through a consideration of my findings related to how resistance is labelled.

Participants were asked if they, or anyone else, had labelled people as a "resistor". P12 and P13 suggest they did: *"Yeah, I will have done" (P13)* but generally participants suggested this actual label was not employed: *"No, nobody was being called that" (P2)*, and *"I don't think they were given a label as such" (P8)*. However, although other participants might not have used this specific term, people were still identified as being resistant in a range of different ways: *"So I wouldn't necessarily say I've had that label but I guess in a way you do get a sense of is this person going to be amenable to a change" (P15)*. Other participants go further than P15, by proposing that alternative labels were applied to identify resistant individuals: *"They didn't specifically use the term 'they're resisters,' but they said something, just words to that effect." (P5)*.

Regarding the terms employed, P6 and P8 suggest that "difficult" was a word associated with those resisting:

I don't think we ever used the phrase 'a resistor' but they were difficult people. There was a lot of phraseology used around that, but rather than being called a resistor, they resisted or they were opposed to the changes (P6).

P6 thus implies that those resisting were difficult people and that derivatives of the word resistance were employed to identify them. P8, however, is more explicit about the nature of the "difficult" labels used: *"they became known as the 'difficult ones' or the 'hard cases' or something like that, so it wasn't necessarily labelled as a resistance label, but they became known as the ones that perhaps didn't embrace the message."* P8 also describes how this label was employed informally: *"it was more of an informal [...] 'Oh, a few hard cases we'll have to crack now,' that sort of thing."* The label of being "difficult" or a "hard case" carries the negative connotations of a problem to be resolved or overcome. In keeping with this negative conceptualisation of those who resist, P5 describes one senior member of staff who led a change they were not entirely committed to, as a *"baddie."* P6 also recalls a rather pejorative label being applied: *"certainly things I would now describe as perhaps people being in a resistive position, but at the time, 'Oh, they're just whinging!'"* It is clear from these

participants' comments that it was they as the change agents and others involved in leading the change, who were labelling their change recipient colleagues in this way. This is in keeping with the literature that links power to the labelling of resistance (Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Ford et al., 2008; Nevis, 1987).

I also propose that the labels provide a negative conceptualisation of resistance, which supports Piderit's (2000) argument that the language of resistance tempts managers to consider subordinate resistance as an obstacle. P14's story provides an example of the pejorative labelling of a resistant staff member:

So we used to have a deputy managing director [...] the nickname for (them) was the drip [...] because (they were) a negative drip all the time. "Oh you can't, oh well, you know, in 1964 we did that and it didn't work [...] But whilst it was irritating and annoying, it was actually really quite helpful because [...] you had the opposite point of view [...] and you might think, well actually they've got a point there. And it might change the direction of change, it might change how you tackled it, or you might sometimes say, "Let's not do it because it is a bad idea."

If the negative label had led "The Drip" to be ignored then their valuable feedback would have been lost. However, the pejorative label did ultimately have a negative impact, when a change was later proposed to P14 which had not worked in the past.

I said, "But it failed, you know, we did it like four or five years ago and it just didn't work. [...] And (they) argued with me and I thought, I am becoming what I don't want to become, you know that drip character. So I said, "Okay, go ahead and do it." We halved the sales of Christmas packs [...]"

P14's story thus evidences the power of a negative label and how it can lead to the loss of valuable resistance or constructive discontent, and so prove damaging to the organisation. If P14 had concentrated upon the value of The Drip's feedback rather than the negative label, the outcome might have been different.

P5's story illustrates how labels of resistance can change. They describe a resistant director and as part of my questioning to understand how they were resistant, P5 changed their mind:

I'm just reflecting on why I put (them) in the resistance group at the beginning, and I think it's because when you're the project manager and everybody's shooting at you all day, that's your perception at the

end of the day, isn't it? [...] And you've just clarified that for me, that it's actually more complex, yeah.

The labelling of resistance is thus a social construction as through conversation the label, and therefore P5's understanding of reality, changes. The new reality is that the director was supportive rather than resistant.

The power to label resistance can also be appropriated to label oneself. I contend that Dent and Goldberg (1999), Nevis (1987) and Thomas and Hardy (2011), take a too narrow view of who has the power to label resistance as they fail to consider that individuals may make an active, mindful decision to resist a change, and may choose to label themselves as resisters. Several participants identify themselves as resisting change (Appendix 10). There were, however, no participants' stories of being labelled a resister when that was not how they perceived themselves (Ford & Ford, 2009; Ford & Ford, 2010; Nevis, 1987). However, participants did describe colleagues, or themselves, not understanding the need for change and P5 provides examples of both: *"those on the shop floor. I think they couldn't imagine that it was going to be better than what we were doing before"* and *"when I resist change, it's because I don't understand why this would be positive."* This may have led to them being considered resistant, as it is an act of interpretation to decide whether questioning to gain understanding is an act of resistance or not (Bradutanu, 2015; Ford & Ford, 2009). Nevis (1987) suggests that applying it to those who question, is an inappropriate use of the label, as people might not see themselves as resisters but as just trying to find out more.

P6, however, labels themselves as *resisting*, rather than seeking information, when they do not understand the need to change: *"I think my resistance is when I don't get why."* P6's comments reclaim the power to label resistant behaviour; it provides an alternative view to Nevis' (1987) regarding the labelling of those who don't understand. P11 however, labels themselves as resisting by not engaging with someone they identify would be problematic for the future of the change. I interpret their behaviour as *supporting*, not resisting, the change by protecting it from individuals who might be harmful to it. The reader may hold a different view. I thereby identify how nuanced the phenomenon of labelling is. I agree with the

argument that the labelling of resistance is about power (Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Nevis, 1987; Thomas & Hardy, 2011) and resistance may therefore indeed be a label applied to others by a change agent, but I maintain that the power may also be claimed by the individual to label themselves, and also by other stakeholders who interpret events. Indeed the labelling of resistance is a subjective act, not an objective, unbiased assessment (Ford & Ford, 2010) and as such it has a social constructionist nature. Within Figure 44 I capture the nuanced nature of the labelling of resistance.

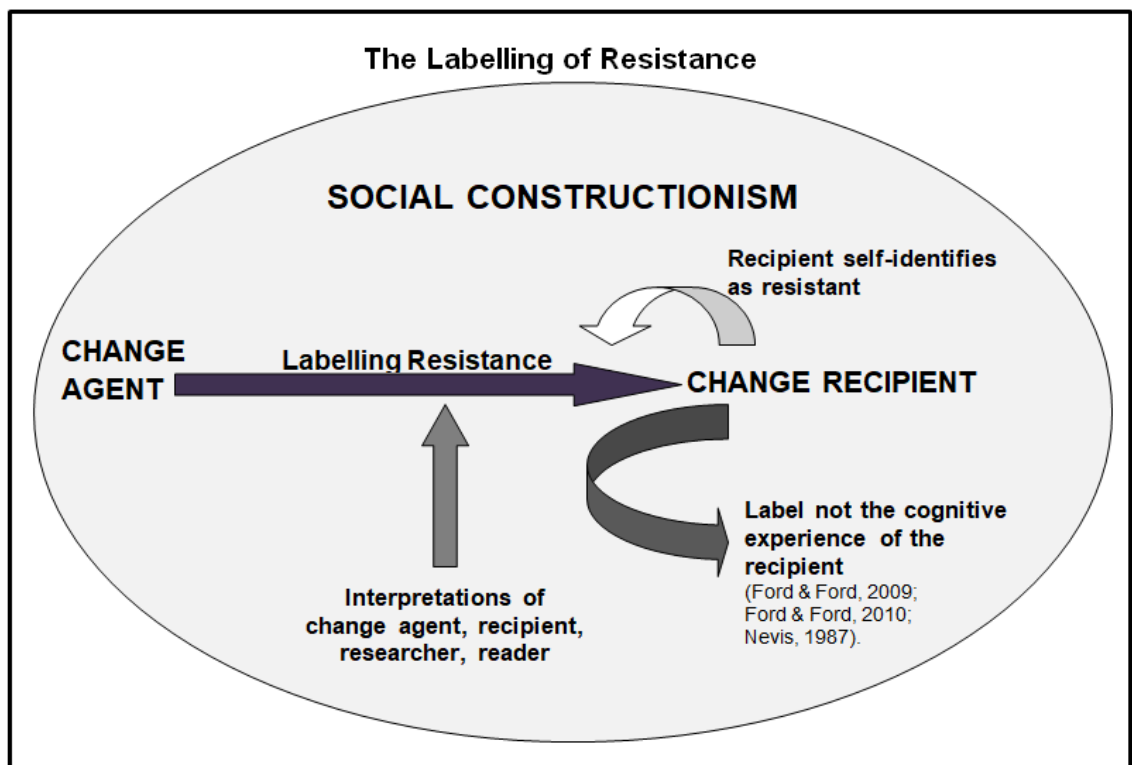


Figure 44

I enhance the literature's conceptualisation of the labelling of resistance by providing empirical material to not only support the literature, but also to challenge it as being too confined as people may claim the label for themselves. I also assert labelling's social constructionist underpinnings and so depict the labelling of resistance as being encapsulated within social constructionism. I hereby *advance Objective 1 and Question 2 related to the multidimensionality of resistance, and Objective 4 and Question 7 regarding the problematization of the literature.*

9.3: Making Sense of Resistance: The Use of Figurative Language

Participants employed figurative language including a range of metaphors to explain their experiences of change and resistance to it. This fits with Smollan's (2014, p. 374) argument that:

Participants in organizational change use metaphors in discourse as a means of sense making, since they provide insight into ways of thinking and feeling about organizational change that are not as easily or as graphically captured by more conventional language.

Indeed as Argaman (2007) posits, during times of change reality is fluid and people may struggle to describe an unfamiliar reality and therefore employ metaphors to provide insights. I find this in the language of my participants.

I progress this chapter concerning the language dimension of resistance through a discussion of my findings regarding the figurative language employed by my participants. For the sake of expediency, whilst recognising that figurative language appears in many forms, for the purposes of this thesis I will collectively refer to them as metaphors.

9.3.1: Metaphors of Resistance

Whilst there is a body of literature considering the metaphors of change, the literature focussing upon *resistance* to change is a neglected area. In his work on metaphors of change, Marshak (1993, p.44) highlights the machine metaphor of "if it ain't broke don't fix it" as a well-known symbol of resistance, and I find a number of variations of this metaphor being employed by my participants: "*And it's the kind of 'don't fix it if it ain't broke'*" (P5); "*I always say, 'If it ain't broke, why try and fix it?'*" (P7); "*it's not broken so we don't need to fix it*" (P11). Participants thus, metaphorically speaking, wave this flag of resistance through their use of language.

Discussing the use of metaphors more generally, Cleary et al. (1992) posit that many metaphors employed in organizations are derived from the military and sports. P7 sets the context of change describing their organisation in military terms:

It was very staid [...] almost military really [...] only certain people could go in the canteen [...] of a certain rank, and it was actually referred to as Headquarters for many years, as opposed to Head

Office. So it kind of had that kind of culture, quite dictatorial and military-ish

P11 also employs militaristic language when describing how they feel when leading a change they were not committed to: *“And I did feel like some form of traitor at that point, to both sides!”* Other participants, whilst not directly using military metaphors, use language associated with the military, that of fighting and conflict. In recalling their resistance, P2 states: *“I was the one that fought back in the meeting”* and when describing the support needed by change agents, P11 suggests someone who understands *“the nature of the beast that you’re fighting with.”* P5 also employs a battle metaphor to describe the challenges of leading change and dealing with resistance: *“because when you’re the project manager and everybody’s shooting at you all day, that’s your perception”*. Military and battle metaphors are thus employed by participants to describe both the experience of leading change, managing resistance, and being resistant to a change.

Regarding battles P7, however, states: *“I felt punch drunk with it all”* when describing all the training associated with a change. To be “punch drunk”, effectively links the metaphor of battle with that of sport, whereby boxers become punch drunk after receiving too many blows to the head in their fights. This statement thereby links the two metaphors of the military and sport that Cleary et al. (1992) identify as being used in organisations. Other sporting metaphors emerge, but these are from the perspective of leading change or losing people due to change, rather than from the position of the resistor. P11 employs a cricketing metaphor, *“I just tried to play the straight bat throughout”* to describe their change leadership style, whilst P14 describes methods of leading change in football terms:

I use a footballing analogy [...] So what you need to do is [...] find a way of refreshing things but not throwing away everything you’ve got. So what you don’t do is you come in and say, “Right, well I’ll get rid of all eleven players and I’ll put a new eleven out.” You try and build something [...] but you might need another two; and it’s knowing when to get rid of (people).

P12 also describes the need for different types of people in footballing terms: *“it’s a bit like a football manager. You know sometimes you need two different types*

of manager and it's the same with organisations as well; one to build, another to develop." Sporting metaphors are thus employed to describe leading change, rather than resistance to it. Other metaphors also emerge related to change. Wolfram Cox (2001) describes their interviewees employing language based on family dynamics, and a family metaphor is employed by P7 to describe the organisational context during a change: *"so a lot of people know a lot of people, it's like a massive family."*

"God's corridor" is a metaphor Brown and Humphrey (2006, pp. 9-10) found employed to describe the area where senior management worked. I also found examples of metaphors linked to religious imagery emerging from P14's story: *"Because very often the devil could be in the detail"* and *"people don't listen to the prophet in their own land."* P14 also employs a religious metaphor to describe the impact the power of their role had: *"you're like God to a lot of people [...] apparently I would put the fear of God into people but I didn't know [...] I thought I was fairly human"*. P12 also uses a deity metaphor when describing what leading change and encountering resistance feels like:

the times that I've led change you feel like you're on a pedestal sometimes. People are looking at you all the time, which can be disconcerting but most likely people are just looking at the first opportunity to knock you off.

I thus found religious, family, military and sporting metaphors, as identified in the literature, used by my participants. Also emerging are metaphors linked to resistance that go beyond the types the literature mentions.

Metaphors associated with wildlife emerge. P5 describes a manager who resisted through non-engagement: *"And he used the ostrich technique a lot."* P9 also draws on an avian metaphors: *"You'll never get turkeys voting for Christmas," i.e., you'll never get managers voting to get rid of their own jobs.*" and *"Yeah, some of them are a little bit in cuckoo land"* are used to describe why some people resisted. Participants thus employ a range of avian metaphors to make sense of resistance, to explain how and why people resisted. Further examples of metaphors based on other creatures include a dinosaur: *"Many people used to describe this gentleman as a dinosaur"* (P12). This term was used by staff to describe a person who was resistant to change, and carries the

connotation of being antiquated. P13 employs a monster metaphor to describe a change that encountered significant resistance from middle management: *“senior managers had created a monster”*. P8 also draws on a matador fighting a bull metaphor, to describe their experience of managing resisting: *“it’s almost like you show me the red rag and I’m in there then, I’m going to find a way around it.”* I thus find metaphors associated with birds or beasts employed to describe the experience of resistance.

I also find participants draw on popular culture, films and television programmes, to describe resistance. P5 made a specific reference to a film to describe the nature of one colleague’s resistance:

The German manager [...] was against it [...] and it was like, have you ever seen 84 Charing Cross Road? [...] about one of those quaint little bookshops [...] and the German manager had been with the company, going back to those days, and the idea of computerising something was completely against (their) identity [...]

P5 thus uses a specific film to describe the nature of a manager’s resistance to a change. They also employ a film reference to describe the problem caused by a manager who was both leading and resisting certain changes, thereby causing chaos: *“You see the problem is with that guy [...] he’s the baddie in the film?”* P5 was not alone in employing metaphors linked to film; P14 describes the difficulty of introducing change to salespeople through reference to the James Bond films:

So if you tried to sort of change something in sales, it’s a lot more difficult because they are the most poachable of your employees; [...] and they’re a bit like, the James Bond is the wrong word, but it’s a bit like an agent, you’re never quite sure who they’re working for. [...] But what it means is that change is really quite difficult then because if you do something [...] even if you change the car policy they can bugger off because they don’t like what they’re given.

Film metaphors are thus used to describe *how* and *why* people resist. P3 employs one to describe how their experience of encountering top-management resistance made them *feel* by drawing on the literary and film character of Alice in Wonderland: *“this is just too weird, you know. It was looking-glass kind of country I guess.”* P12, however, employs film imagery to describe their role in leading change rather than managing resistance: *“my role was [...] nicknamed the disseminator, a bit like Arnold Schwarzenegger.”* Film and literary metaphors

are thus employed to make sense of how and why people resist and the feelings resistance can create in others.

I also find emerging a range of metaphors linked to resistance that carry negative connotations. P11 describes the need to take immediate action when encountering resistance through a metaphor of theft:

It's like if someone nicks a sweet from a sweet shop and they get away with it long enough, then the next thing will be a bar of chocolate or something bigger, until something strikes them, and so these little bits of resistance to me personally started to escalate and I should have nipped it in the bud [...]

P11 thus conceptualises resistance negatively in terms of increasing criminal activity, whilst P15 depicts it as an obstacle: *"if you get road blocks you have to be prepared to tackle them."* P14 also describes a resistant deputy managing director pejoratively: *"the nickname for him was The Drip. [...] because he was a negative drip all the time."* Just as those leading change depict those resisting through negative metaphors, I find it also works vice versa. P14 describes those instigating changes he resisted through a negative metaphor: *"the Head Office was at [X] and they were all down there but I wasn't, I was based in [Y] and I regarded them as the [X] Mafia."*

In addition to negative metaphors being employed, P7 refers to sayings emerging during a time of change, by those uncomfortable with it. Diefenbach, (2007, p.134) refers to: "The old adage, 'if you can't change the people you have to change the people'" and P7 highlights similar sayings being circulated by people in reaction to a branded change: *"There was, "Change the people or change the people," or "Fit in or F-off."* Negative metaphors are thus used to describe those resisting, and by those resisting to describe those leading change. In addition negative sayings emerge amongst those resisting to describe a new change.

The metaphors used by participants in this research appear to be *transformational* as they relate to altered states of being (Marshak, 1993) or *structural* (Morgan, 2001) as they are giving meaning through associating one phenomenon with another.

9.4: The Language Dimension Chapter Conclusion

Within the language dimension I illustrate how resistance is labelled and who undertakes the labelling. I challenge the assumption in the literature that it is those with power that label subordinates as resistant, by providing empirical material to evidence people assuming the power to label themselves. Labelling is a social constructionist act, labels may change further to discussion, and the researcher and reader may interpret behaviours in different ways. Through this chapter I thereby *advance Objective 4 and Question 7 associated with problematization*. I also have findings related to the actual labels themselves; the words employed to identify those that are resistant.

There are a range of metaphors employed to make sense of leading change, encountering resistance and to explain the experience from the position of those resisting. Some of my findings include metaphors used in common parlance and to become so generally used suggests their power to communicate understanding. Metaphors of resistance are, however, a neglected area of the literature and I find metaphors that go beyond the military, sporting and religious ones generally identified in relation to organisations and change. I also identify examples of bird and beast metaphors, others related to popular culture, plus negative metaphors and sayings emerging from this research. I *thereby advance Objective 1 and Question 2 regarding the multidimensionality of resistance* that emerges empirically.

Chapter Ten: Findings and Discussion: The Temporal Dimension

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10.1: Introduction

The thesis progresses through a consideration of my findings related to the Temporal Dimension which is the seventh dimension with my conceptual framework of the multidimensionality of resistance. I capture this in Figure 45.

Dimension 7: The Temporal Dimension

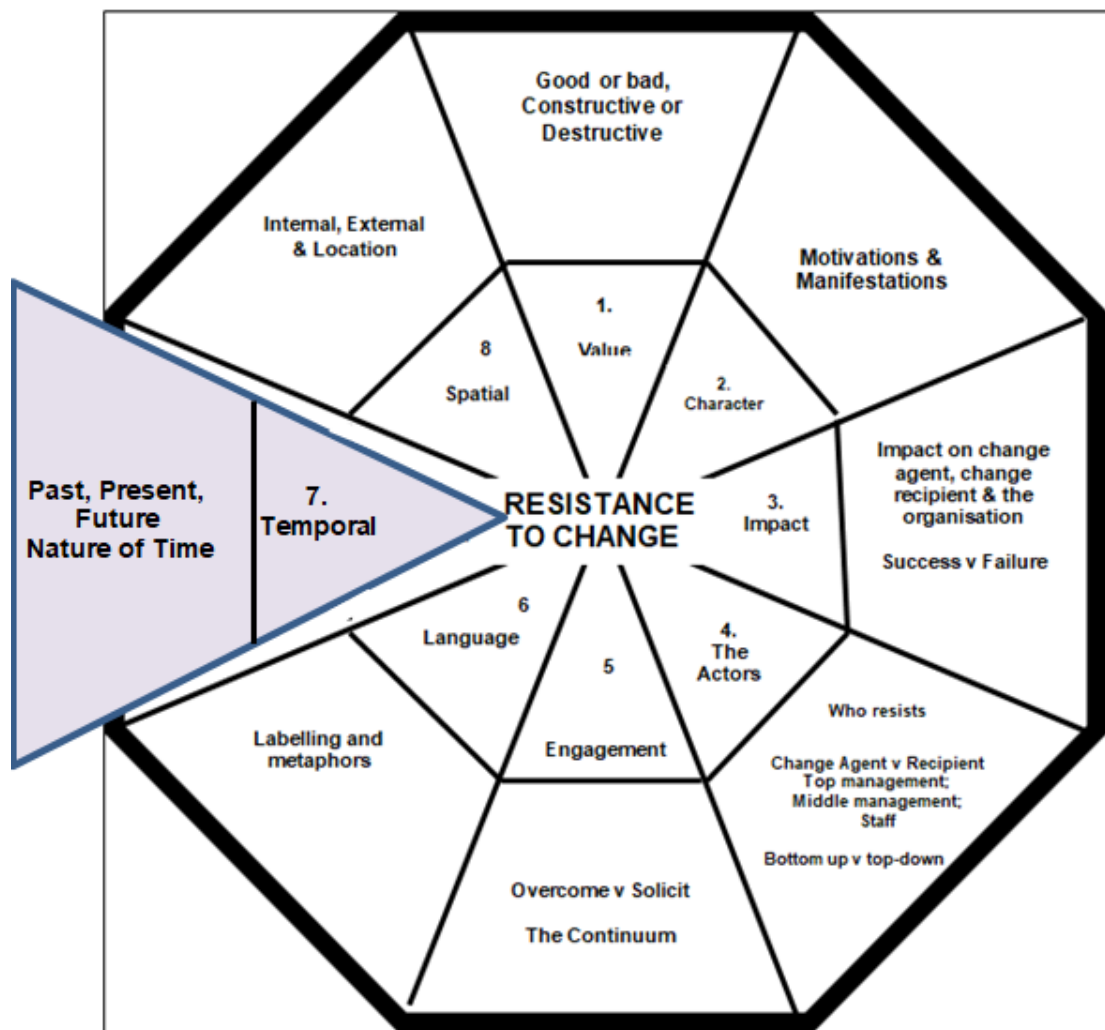


Figure 45

The temporal dimension comprises of the sub-dimensions, past, present and future and additional dimensions related to the temporal problems associated with the nature of time including: lack of time; speed of time and timeliness. The chapter progresses through an examination of these findings and thereby *advances Objective 1 and Question 2* regarding the dimensions of resistance that can be identified empirically.

10.2: The Past Impacting Present and Future Resistance

Based on empirical material, I argue that what has happened in the past impacts on resistance in the present and in the future which is also proposed by Huy (2001). One way the past impacts on the present is through the recollection of past failures.

I describe in section 9.2 how P14's colleague was known as "The Drip" due to their resistance of change based on past experiences of failure. P14 subsequently found themselves resisting for similar reasons, but gave up their resistance as they recalled the "Drip" and did not wish to behave in a similar manner. The irony is that in resisting their own resistance, the outcome was to impact negatively on sales, whilst the 'The Drip' had helped the business as their feedback led to amendments, or poor changes being stopped. The importance of the temporal dimension emerges in this story, as the pejorative labelling of a colleague in the past, led to the participant's behaviour in the present of withdrawing their resistance. The result was their lack of resistance led to a failure, the halving of Christmas sales, in the present. Recollection of past negative labelling of resistance can thus impact negatively on the present through resistance being withdrawn. Ford and Ford (2009) argue that the recollection of past failures motivates resistance in the present and I find that such resistance helps avert harmful change and when ignored leads to organisational losses.

P8 also highlights how the past impacts on current resistance. Stories and myths rooted in the past of redundancy terms improving over time, affects people's behaviour in the present as they resist redundancy offers believing that they will improve:

these kind of stories and myths made it very difficult, because [...] you'd say, "Actually the terms aren't going to get any better this time," and they'd say, "Actually, for the last four or five times they have got better, so why would I decide to jump this time? [...]" And so that became quite a challenge, the myth-busting.

P8 depicts stories of past changes as problematic "myths." This links to the stories and myths element of the cultural web (Johnson, Scholes & Whittington, 2010) which proposes that people share stories of past experiences to reinforce the existing culture.

Jones and Van de Ven (2016) highlight how people who have had negative past experiences of change are more likely to resist change than those whose past experiences have been viewed positively. P2's story illustrates their argument as it provides an example of a bad past experience of resisting and subsequently being selected for redundancy, affecting their present and future behaviour:

that affected me for quite a long time actually and after that when I was involved in my next job with resistance I wouldn't [...] I just was happy to have a job and I refused point blank to get involved in any industrial action or any complaints [...] I still don't like engaging in industrial action [...] because I just remember what it feels like not to have a job.

P2's present and future behaviour are thus impacted by a past experience. I therefore argue that the temporal dimension impacts on resistance through the past influencing present and future behaviour. The present therefore also influences the future, as what happens today will impact upon future behaviours: tomorrow turns today into the past, which influences the present and future. Hughes (2010, p. 282) draws similar conclusions, arguing that "The remembered past, perceived present and the imagined future [...] are interrelated." Building further on Hughes' (2010) argument, I also find that the present can also impact on the past.

10.3: The Impact of the Present upon the Past

When describing the resistance they encountered from a director, P5 subsequently reconceptualised the behaviour as supportive (section 9.2). Thus, having reflected upon what happened in the past, P5 subsequently changed their labelling of their colleague's past behaviour from resistance to support, thereby illustrating how current thinking can impact on past experiences of resistance and reframe them. They were not alone in their present day reframing of the past: P3 also reflected upon what provoked the resistance they encountered and gained a present day understanding of past behaviours: "*reflecting on it as we talk now, maybe [...] it is that they didn't think things through [...] and I was another thing that they hadn't thought through. The consequences of their actions; they'd never considered really*". By reflecting back on the past, P3 gained a present day insight into the past resistance they encountered. P11 had a similar experience: "*So I'd not thought of it before, but there were multiple layers of resistance and all [...] mainly from similar angles, either on a matter of principle or in terms of protecting employees' rights.*" Present day reflections can thus alter perceptions of past events or provide new understandings. P6's reflections led them to entirely reconceptualise how they perceived those that resisted:

Now I would personally engage with it. Then, no, just, "That's resistance and we've got to break it [...]" I think there were certainly things I would now describe as perhaps people being in a resistive position, but at the time, "Oh, they're just whinging!"

P6 no longer labels past resistance so negatively and in the present would engage with it differently. Present day reflections can thus impact the past, through changing the interpretation of whether it was resistance or support, removing the negative label and conceptualisation of resistance and by providing insights into why the resistance occurred.

Based on this empirical material of participants reconceptualising the past and thereby their truth, I contend that this provides evidence of the socially constructed nature of reality. Brown and Humphreys (2006, p.5) argue that organisations are socially constructed through language. They are created through discourse and as such are not the static independently existing entities of the functionalist perspective, but are "extremely fluid discursive constructions constantly being made and re-made". My findings of participants amending their understanding of their experiences of resistance, and in the case of P5 reconceptualising resistance as support for change, provide support for the socially constructed nature of social reality and my choice of a social constructionist methodology for this research.

10.4: The Impact of the Anticipation of Future Resistance

Huy (2001) argues that people attempt to conceptualise the future by pre-living it. Based on the empirical material I find that future resistance is influenced not only by past events, but also by the anticipation of future resistance rooted in the present. P5 planned how they would overcome anticipated future resistance: *"I had sussed out quite quickly that if you bring in IT you can change a lot of processes, which the staff might resist to, by saying, "Sorry, there's no option on computer," and then you force staff to change."* Anticipation of the future resistance, thus impacts present behaviour resulting in the resistance that materialises in the future being overcome.

P15 however, when discussing mergers and acquisitions, spoke not of the anticipation of resistance, but anticipating a readiness for change that might dissipate in the future if it is not acted upon in a timely manner:

if people are [...] anticipating a change then that's a positive that you need to act upon. And [...] don't prevaricate because the longer you leave a situation, which they know is going to be subject to change, the more entrenched they get.

The implication of this is that if the anticipated future change is not acted upon in a timely manner it might metamorphose into future resistance. This issue of timeliness, the speed of change and the lack of time are raised by several participants and I progress this chapter through a discussion of these sub-dimensions, thereby *advancing Objective 1*.

10.5: Timeliness, Speed and Time as a Commodity

P15's observation, discussed above, relates to managing time in the present as it has the potential to impact upon future resistance. They describe the importance of managing the change in a timely way: *"it's not all soft and fluffy but actually to get things done in a timely way"*. Timeliness is thus a key factor which may avert or contribute to resistance.

The problems associated with not managing the timings of changes appropriately were described by P4:

the systems were changed before they were ready and we had horrendous times with that; to the extent that customers literally could not draw their money out of their accounts and the money got lost and we didn't know which accounts it had gone into. Really serious problems [...]

P4 highlights the problems and thereby the resistance that mismanaging time can cause, in this case introducing a change too soon. This is aligned to Smollan's (2006) argument that many employees will negatively perceive the introduction of change at the busiest time, or announcing a new executive bonus scheme following cut-backs. Smollan (2006) thus highlights the importance of *timing* to the success of change. P5 also describes resistance rooted in the timeliness of change: "the Finance Director would resist [...] the IT company wanting to go live [...] he would say, "No, let's not, because if it goes wrong these three weeks are not good weeks to have everything go wrong in the company".

This example of resistance highlights not only the importance of change being introduced at the right time, but also proposes present day resistance grounded in the anticipation of future problems. This phenomenon is identified by Jones and Van de Ven (2016, p. 486) who describe resistance and negative emotions associated with “anticipated adverse consequences.”

I also find that resistance occurs linked to the speed of change when insufficient time is allocated to it: *“(their) resistance was to a timeline which wasn’t achievable” (P5)*. The resistance was thus not to the change itself, but to the lack of time allocated to it. P15 also cautions against rushing change *“I think you have to be careful that you’re not rushing headlong into a change process so a degree of caution is actually a good thing”* whilst P10 is explicit about the need to give change the time it needs: *“why I think [...] people are reluctant to change [...] is the way they go round doing it. [...] and perhaps it does take longer, but if you get everyone’s buy-in, it will work”*. These examples propose that time is commoditised, perceived as a resource that is lacking, and this leads to resistance. These findings link to the concept of quantitative time in the literature, whereby time is conceptualised as a valuable resource (Halford & Leonard, 2006; Huy 2001). Insufficient time also impacts on how resistant behaviours are managed. When asked if there was anything that might have prevented them from engaging positively with resistance, P5 commented: *“the only thing I can think of is time. At some stage you just can’t listen to it anymore.”* However P5 subsequently explains that they haven’t ignored the resistance just the repetition: *“moaning to me is [...] where you just go over and over and over the same ground again. But that I tried to ignore [...] I wouldn’t see (that) as anything negative because I still got the points”*.

Based on these findings I contend that within the temporal dimension are multiple sub-dimensions. Beyond the dimensions of past, present and future, and how they interconnect, there are the temporal dimensions in which time is commoditised as a resource that is lacking, or being used too speedily or sparingly. Additionally, there is the dimension of the timeliness of change, directed at a specific point in time, which can cause resistance when the timing is inappropriately selected.

10.6: The Temporal Dimension Chapter Conclusion

I find the temporal dimension to be itself multidimensional and capture this in Figure 46.

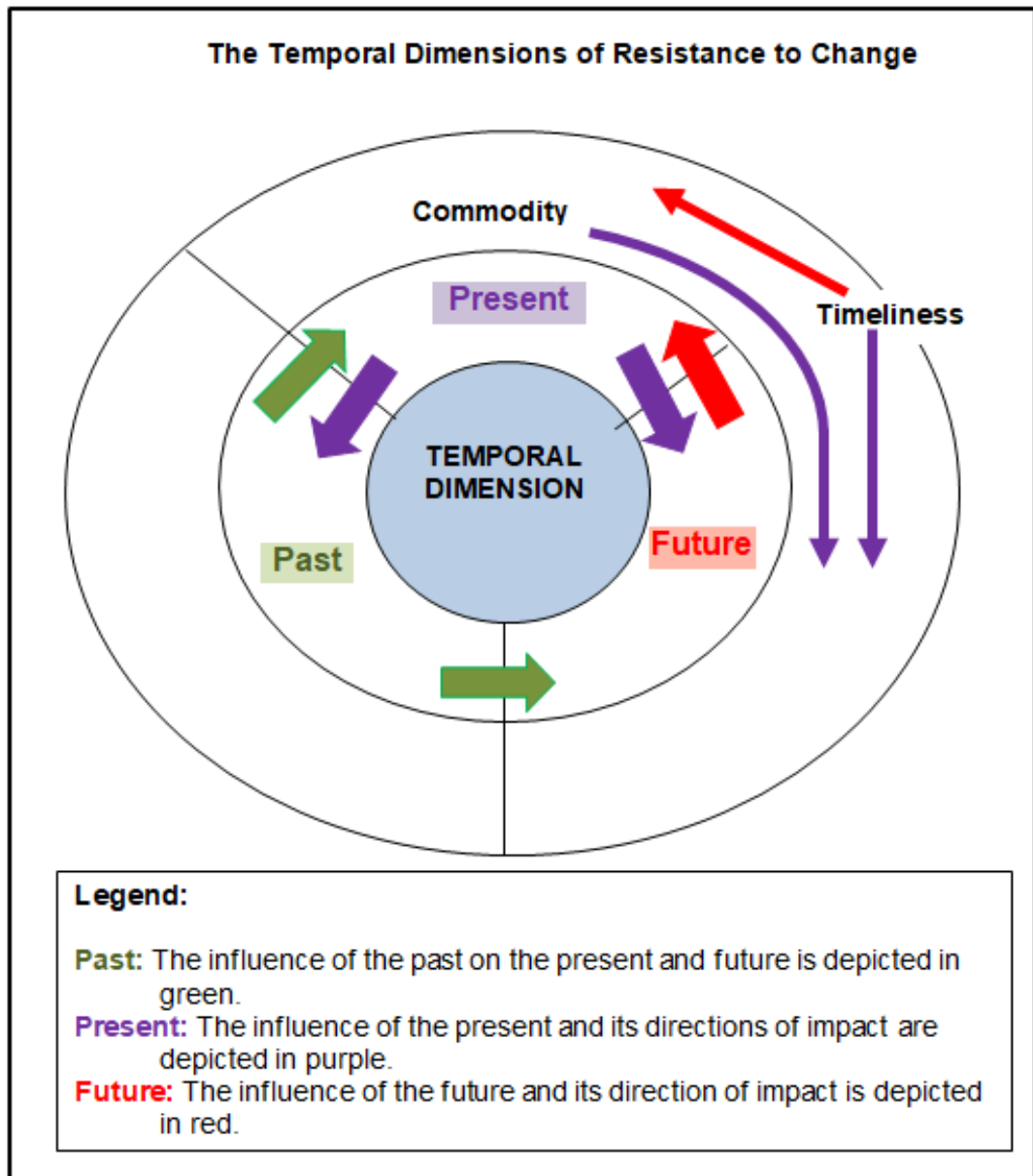


Figure 46

Through Figure 46 I articulate how time is not a linear phenomenon when applied to resistance to change. I encapsulate the temporal dimension's multidimensionality and inter-connectedness by visually depicting the directions of influence between the different dimensions and highlighting that these extend beyond the commonly accepted dimensions of past present and future, to the commoditisation of time, specific points in future time and the timeliness of

activities. I therefore find the past influencing the present and future, and the present influencing the past. Based on these findings, I also argue that the present influences the future, because what happens today influences our future behaviour.

Through this chapter I have *advanced Objective 1 and Question 2 regarding empirically identifying dimensions of resistance to create a multidimensional conceptual framework.*

Chapter Eleven: Findings and Discussion: The Spatial Dimension

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11.1: Introduction

Within this chapter I discuss the Spatial Dimension of resistance. As the eighth dimension of my Octagon of Resistance (Figure 1), the Spatial Dimension completes my multidimensional conceptual framework of resistance to change (Figure 47), and thereby *completes the fulfilment of Objective 1 and the answer to Question 2, regarding the multidimensionality of resistance that emerges from my empirical material.*

Dimension 8: The Spatial Dimension

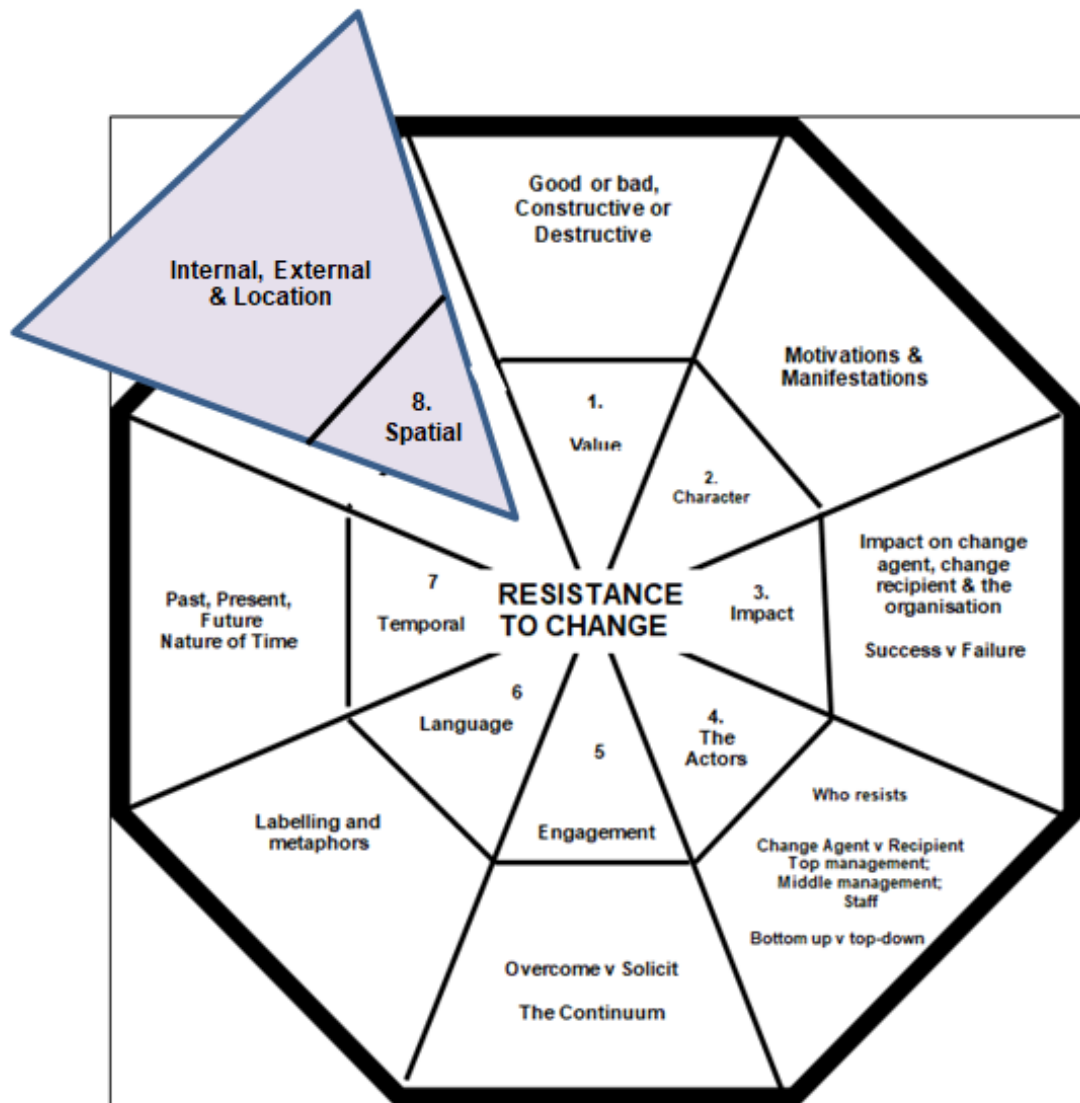


Figure 47

The spatial dimension of resistance is multi-faceted and includes resistance internal or external to the organisation and associated with a physical location. I progress the chapter through a consideration of these sub-dimensions of spatial resistance.

11.2: The Internal and External Sub-Dimensions

Cutcher (2009) argues that resistance can be located spatially in terms of coming from either within or outside the organisation; i.e. internal or external resistance. I find evidence of both emerging from participants' stories. Resistance from within the organisation is provided by employees and I offer multiple examples of staff, middle-management and senior management resisting change in sections 7.2-

7.6 which are examples of internal resistance. Employees resist change within the organisation for a range of reasons and I contend that resistance can be spread internally through pressure from colleagues: *"And peer-group, "I'm not going to apply for it and I don't think you should apply for it either"* P8. I thus find evidence of internal resistance and of it being spread internally.

Brown and Humphreys (2006) identify an *intangible form* of internal resistance which is the space created for oppositional activities. I describe a range of oppositional activities emerging from this research in sections 5.3-5.3.4 regarding how people resist, including: rumours: *"Well, that's only rumour, but I think it must have been true"* (P7); scepticism: *"there was a lack of trust in the City Council, that it wasn't as bad as it was and they could still fund it"*; and the ironic sayings discussed in section 9.3.1:

there were a lot of sayings that came from people. [...] "If you're not on the bus you get off and go," but there was something like, "Change the people or change the people," that was the polite one!" (P7).

Space for internal resistance might also be interpreted as creating the time for oppositional activities or soliciting resistance (discussed in section 8.2) thereby conflating space and time as Nevis (1987, p. 157) does when he speaks of "making room for the "opposition"". I therefore propose that from my research emerges material supporting both tangible and intangible internal resistance and space being associated with time.

Regarding external resistance, Cutcher (2009) argues that it is rooted in people outside the organisation applying pressure to employees who subsequently resist. P8 highlights such an occurrence when describing resistance to a voluntary redundancy offer: *"there was potentially pressure from family members and things like that."* P8 hereby identifies the influence of people external to the organisation and also provides a specific example of the type of external pressures that fuel resistance within the organisation:

because you'd get the partner saying, "Oh, you're at a really good job there, really well paid, and in this part of the world you're never going to something that's as possible," so there were those influences on it as well.

P8 describes external pressures motivating internal resistance from employees. P9, however, describes direct external resistance in the form of advice agencies who were external stakeholders impacted by the proposed change: “*when we had a meeting with all the advice agencies in the city, there was uproar. “No, we’re not doing that!”*” External resistance thereby manifests both directly and indirectly.

The spatial dimension thus includes the location of resistance in terms of its source, coming from people within the organisation, outside the organisation or is motivated by individuals external to it and expressed by those within it.

11.3: The Physical Location Sub-Dimension of Resistance

Space, manifesting as a *physical* space, also provides a dimension of resistance to change (Brown & Humphreys, 2006; Ford & Ford, 2009). P13 highlights this spatial dimension to resistance based on physical location. Their story is of resistance to a change designed to make cost savings by changing their office layout, thereby requiring people to change the location of their desks to reduce the amount of office space rented.

I was working with a workforce that had worked in their desks in their positions for a long time [...] And getting through to them that actually we’re doing this as a collective change so we can actually save money, so we can actually save jobs was difficult [...] because they saw that as their space, their environment, that’s what they’re used to, that’s how they work.

This example of a change of location engendering resistance highlights the importance of physical location to the spatial dimension of resistance. In contrast, P11 explains how a change of location made *leading* a change more comfortable as it removed them from the resistance and the behaviours associated with it:

we just needed to find other premises and we moved off. And to be honest, I was relieved then, and that physical distance meant that I was no longer aware of, potentially real or potentially imagined [...] nastiness and negative opinions and stuff like that [...]

Location thus impacts upon resistance as it can fuel resistance or mitigate the effects of resistance upon the change agent.

11.4: The Spatial Dimension Chapter Conclusion

The spatial dimension of resistance is itself multidimensional which I capture in Figure 48.

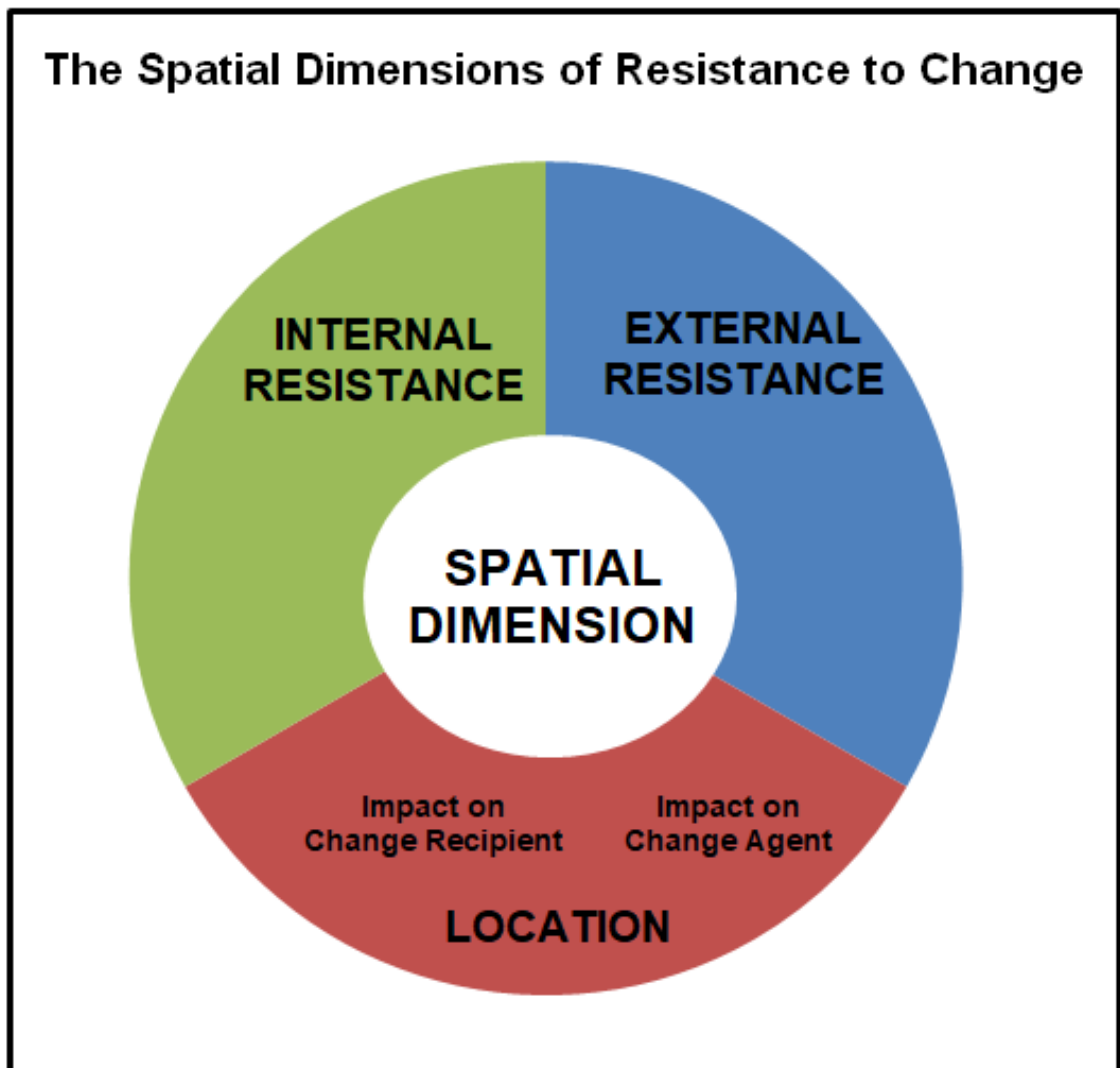


Figure 48

Within Figure 48 I depict the internal, external and locational dimensions of resistance. I illustrate how the location can impact upon both the change agent and recipient, providing both a barrier to protect the change agent against resistant behaviours and also create a source of resistance. Resistance can also be spatially located as both internal and external to the organisation. Internally, spatial resistance may manifest directly from employees or intangibly as the space for resistant behaviours (Cutcher, 2009).

External spatial resistance may also manifest directly from the organisation's external stakeholders or indirectly by fuelling internal resistance. Whilst the literature identifies external sources of resistance (Cutcher, 2009) it does not explicitly distinguish between the direct or indirect nature that it might take. Authors discuss *some* facets of the spatial dimension to resistance but no author discusses all. Through the single conceptualisation of the spatial dimension contained in Figure 48, I unite and develop this fractured literature.

Within this chapter I have completed *the fulfilment of Objective 1* by identifying the eighth and final dimension of the Octagon of Resistance (Figure 1) thereby developing a multidimensional framework of resistance to change. I also add the final dimension to *complete the answer to Question 2* regarding the dimensions of resistance that emerge empirically from my research.

Chapter Twelve: Conclusions and Contributions

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Literature Review
Chapter Three	Methodology
Chapter Four	Findings & Discussion: The Value Dimension
Chapter Five	Findings & Discussion: The Character Dimension
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Chapter Twelve	Conclusion and Contributions

12.1: Introduction

In this chapter I discuss the key conclusions and contributions to knowledge and practice that I make through this research. I explain how I have met the research objectives, identify its limitations and make recommendations for future research.

I make the nature of my contributions to knowledge and practice explicit by underpinning them with reference to the models of Corley and Gioia (2011) and Nicholson et al. (2018) and the chapter begins with a discussion of how this literature describes the nature of different types of contributions. A discussion of the contribution to knowledge made by my literature review follows. I then structure this chapter by focussing in turn upon the contributions I make related to each of the eight dimensions of resistance identified in the Findings Chapters and depicted in the multidimensional conceptual framework (Figure 1). I explain my problematization of the literature and the key conclusions and contributions related to each dimension. I conclude this section by identifying the extant contributions already made by this research to knowledge and practice.

I conclude this chapter and the thesis by discussing how it meets the research objectives, identifying its limitations and by recommending areas for future research.

12.2: Evidencing Contributions

Evidencing contributions is challenging, being “a fluid term, its semantic implications often casting a shadow over doctoral examinations” (Nicholson et al., 2018, p.1). Clear guidance regarding what constitutes a contribution to knowledge and practice is generally lacking or is at best fragmented within the literature (Nicholson et al., 2018), however, the work of Corley and Gioia (2011) and Nicholson et al. (2018) fill this omission. Therefore to be explicit about the nature of the contributions I make through this research, I underpin them with reference to Corley and Gioia's (2011) (Figure 3) and Nicholson et al.'s (2018) (Figure 4) models.

Both models describe contributions to knowledge. Corley and Gioia (2011, p. 15) posit that contributions primarily reside in providing “*original* insight into a phenomenon by advancing knowledge in such a way that it is deemed to have *utility* or usefulness for some purpose.” They argue that the work offering revelatory insights often achieved this “**by offering a novel approach to integrating prior thought and research into some model or framework that constituted a different way of understanding some phenomenon**” (2011, p. 19; I add bold text for emphasis) **rather than by introducing new concepts**. Within this research I deliver both. I develop new concepts *and* I integrate existing knowledge into diagrams that visually depict a new way of understanding phenomena. Throughout this chapter I make specific reference to *this* published definition of a revelatory contribution where it applies to this research.

Both models propose that contributions to knowledge can be made by adding incrementally to the existing literature or by contributing in a revelatory manner. Nicholson et al.'s (2018) work is more detailed regarding the nature of these contributions, as it identifies not only dimensions of incremental and revelatory contributions, but also replicatory, consolidatory and differentiated context contributions to knowledge, each of which are subdivided into different aspects (Figure 4). I therefore identify the contributions of this research with reference to

Corley and Gioia's (2011) model and to the subdivision of the specific type of knowledge identified by Nicholson et al., (2018).

Corley and Gioia's (2011) work (Figure 3) is also valuable as it also provides a means of identifying the utility, or practical nature, of the contribution. They argue that the contribution of practical utility has been relatively neglected by the literature, proposing that "we should be offering not just original or revelatory insights but new ideas that are valuable for advancing ideas with a praxis dimension" (2011, p. 26). As I contribute through this PhD thesis to both knowledge and professional practice, I employ Corley and Gioia's (2011) model to underpin the practical nature of the contributions I make, thereby supporting their credibility through reference to this peer reviewed academic literature.

Alvesson and Sandberg (2011) argue that challenging our assumptions in a significant way is what makes a theory interesting and influential, and I contribute through this research by problematizing (Alvesson & Karreman, 2007; Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011) the literature. I adopt the approach to problematizing identified by Alvesson and Karreman (2007), whereby a challenge to assumptions or theories in the literature *emerges from the empirical material*. According to Alvesson and Sandberg (2011) there five types of assumption open to problematization: in-house, root metaphor, paradigm, ideology and field. I identify the nature of the assumptions I challenge with reference to this work and capture my problematization conclusions and their nature within Figure 2. The problematizing contributions are "In-House" (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011, p.260) as they pertain to the change management literature with the exception of the problematizing contribution regarding the positive/negative dualism of resistance. This is "Field" as the assumptions exist across various theoretical schools (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011, p.260).

Alvesson and Sandberg (2011) identify gap-filling as a form of contribution to the literature, which adds to existing literature rather than pinpointing and challenging assumptions underpinning it (2011, p. 247). Through this research I problematize the literature (Alvesson & Karreman, 2007; Alvesson and Sandberg 2011), and in doing so I also contribute by gap-filling some areas of literature identified as neglected by other authors.

This chapter now proceeds through a discussion of the conclusions and contributions I make through my literature review.

12.3: The History of the Literature

Within Chapter 2 I review the resistance to change literature, arguing that the early literature is depicted as conceptualising resistance to change negatively, with a more critical body of literature depicting resistance in a more positive light, emerging later. I conclude, however, that whilst the titles of early work relate to overcoming resistance, this literature is actually more positive in its depiction of resistance than portrayed in the reviews. Indeed it is overly superficial to characterise the early literature as conceptualising resistance negatively.

Following the emergence of a more critical body of literature depicting resistance more positively and as possessing utility, there was not a sudden reconceptualisation of resistance to change and a move away from the traditional paradigm. Instead the two conceptualisations moved forward together. In terms of time, therefore, the history of the resistance to change literature is not neatly linear. Literature from the conventional negative paradigm continues to be published concurrently with literature from a critical paradigm, often with little differentiating the content of the two except the intent of the author. I thus identify a *source of confusion* within the literature as authors position their work within the traditional paradigm, by associating it with overcoming resistance to change, and yet provide similar guidance regarding listening to opposing views and engaging with resistance that the critical literature advocates. I therefore argue that the difference can be just the intention of the author in terms of where they position their work, rather than any significant difference in what they propose.

Through my literature review I make an *Incremental Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011), as I build on existing literature by repositioning the history of the resistance to change literature. This is an *Incremental, Confusion-Spotting* contribution to knowledge (Nicholson et al., 2018) as I identify both a source of confusion, whereby authors position themselves within the conventional or critical literature and yet both offer similar guidance regarding resistance, and through my interpretation of the early

literature being erroneously identified as taking a managerialist negative position against resistance.

12.4: The Value Dimension

Within the Value Dimension of resistance, I make contributions relating to how resistance links to the concept of constructive discontent, and to the good versus bad dualism of resistance. The contributions of the Value Dimension therefore *meet Objective 2 regarding constructive discontent*.

The initial purpose of this research was to explore the dimensions of resistance to change and whether its nature is considered constructive or destructive to the organisation, by linking it to the concept of constructive discontent (Abraham, 1999; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Dann, 2008; De Cremer, 2016; Dmytrieyev et al., 2016; Lowitt, 2013; Suchy, 2004). To gain an insight into this phenomenon, I developed a theoretical framework based on the literature (Figure 8) which I subsequently populated with empirical data to create a conceptual framework (Figure 18). My empirical findings built on the original framework to include positions incorporating aspects of neutrality: neutral discontent, interpreted as reluctant compliance and opposition not to the change but to how it is managed, and the entirely neutral position interpreted as ambivalence or ambiguity (Piderit, 2000).

Corley & Gioia (2011) suggest that contributions through *practical utility* are relatively neglected. Through this research I explicitly deliver practical utility as I specifically explore how managers have found resistance to be useful and beneficial to the organisation. A primary contribution of this research is to offer the theoretical and conceptual multidimensional frameworks (Figures 8 and 17). These frameworks provide lenses through which change agents can view the multiple dimensions of resistance and its antithesis, content, to gain a deeper understanding of what is occurring in their organisation. This encourages change agents to consider resistance in a more nuanced way. The implication is that they may avoid adopting the "classical adversarial approach" (Waddell & Sohal, p. 547) and thereby improve their engagement with resistance "if the adversarial approach is replaced with one that retains the possibility of benefiting through the utilisation of resistance" (Waddell & Sohal, p. 546). From a

managerialist perspective this may lead to resistance being valued and engaged with as a phenomenon that may deliver organisational benefit, whilst from a critical perspective it may emancipate the voices of those wishing to resist that otherwise would be suppressed if the traditional paradigm of overcoming resistance were followed.

Through this thesis, I thereby make a *practical and revelatory contribution* to practice (Corley & Gioia, 2011) through its implications for change leadership, as those leading change view resistance in a more open-minded manner and may actively solicit it (Nevis 1987) to reap the value it may deliver. I also contribute to filling the gap in the literature highlighted by Waddell and Sohal (1998, p. 547) who identify a lack of "change management models and theories that actually incorporate the possibility of utility in resistance." Through the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of resistance (Figures 8 and 17) I provide utilitarian tools that contribute to filling this gap.

Based on the empirical findings related to the dimensions of constructive and destructive, content and discontent (Figure 18), I conclude that the change is good versus resistance is bad dualism within the literature is overly simplistic. In organisational terms, change can be both good and bad, as can the resistance to it. The conceptualisation of whether an act of resistance is positive or negative can also vary according to whether the focus is upon the intent or the outcome. I capture these tensions and my challenge to the over simplistic good versus bad dualism Figure 9.

Resistance is thus more richly nuanced than the simple tension between the two opposing sides of the simple dualism suggests. Indeed the Conceptual Framework (Figure 8) can be employed as a tool through which to view the dimensions of resistance and compliance, thereby liberating the conceptualisation of resistance from the constraints of the simple good versus bad dualism. Through this problematization I challenge a *field assumption* (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011; Figure 2) within the literature as this simple dualism exists across multiple fields, and thereby provide a *Revelatory Problematization* contribution to knowledge (Nicholson, et al., 2018) and a *Revelatory Scientific* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011).

12.4.1: Constructive Discontent

Objective 2 of this research links to the exploration of how resistance to change might be associated with the concept of constructive discontent that appears in the emotional intelligence and leadership literatures (Abraham, 1999; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Dann, 2008; De Cremer, 2016; Dmytrieyev et al., 2016; Lowitt, 2013; Suchy, 2004). Based on empirical evidence of resistance to change benefitting the organisation, I conclude that for my participants it manifested as constructive discontent (Figure 3).

I contribute to knowledge by linking organisational resistance to change, a change management concept, to the concept of constructive discontent which emerges within the emotional intelligence (Abraham, 1999; Dann, 2008) and leadership literatures (Suchy, 2004; Dmytrieyev et al., 2016.) The literature on constructive discontent is limited; where it does appear within these literatures it is depicted as a constructive, positive challenge that is beneficial to the organisation. Based on my empirical material, I propose that resistance to change can provide this form of beneficial challenge. Resistance to change also provides constructive discontent when the change is not appropriate or the status quo is preferable: "there are times when *change should be resisted*; for example, when an organization should simply continue a perfectly good strategy" (Huy & Mintzberg, 2003, p. 79). Through my conceptualisation of resistance to change as a form of constructive discontent, I build a bridge between three bodies of literature, change management, emotional intelligence and leadership, thereby enhancing this limited area of literature. In so-doing I explicitly introduce the term, *constructive discontent*, into the change management literature as a dimension of resistance to change. I capture how constructive discontent manifests and unites the three literatures in Figure 21.

I make a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley and Gioia, 2011) as I reveal a new insight into the literature, providing a link between bodies of literature that had not previously been made. These conclusions are drawn as a result of employing the multiple lenses of my conceptual framework (Figure 18) and so the contribution made is revelatory through *Using Multiple Lenses* (Nicholson, et al., 2018).

12.4.2: Destructive Discontent

Based on empirical material I identify the phenomena of destructive discontent (Figure 22); this is the traditional portrayal of resistance to change as a negative phenomenon to be overcome. Evidence supports resistance manifesting as destructive discontent, whereby it harms the organisation by lowering morale, staff being unhelpful or working to contract, causing tension between colleagues, inaccuracies potentially occurring, increases in costs and damaging productivity and sales.

These conclusions support the conventional conceptualisation of resistance within the traditional literature and are therefore incremental in nature as they provide additional empirical support for existing arguments. I thereby make an *Incremental Scientific* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and a *Differentiated Context* contribution (Nicholson et al., 2018).

12.4.3: Destructive Content

The literature proposes that destructive content (Dann, 2008) or a "climate of silence" (Dmytriyev et al., 2016, p. 32) is harmful to the organisation. Lack of challenge is associated with a range of problems including Groupthink (Janis, 1971; Whyte, 1998; Nebeth et al., 2001), strategic drift (Johnson et al., 2010) and premature agreement (Darwin, 2004). I conclude that participants experienced destructive content manifested as organisational silence and unchallenging compliance.

Fear emerges as a key factor in both the literature and my findings in promoting a climate of silence (Dmytriyev et al., 2016) and compliance. Participants fear for their job security and the threat of job loss is used as a tactic to generate compliance by managers. Such fear gives birth to lack of challenge, 'yes-people,' and staff outwardly expressing no resistance but covertly rubbing the change. In addition, compliance is bought through generous redundancy packages and hospitality. Content or compliance achieved in this manner is destructive as it leads to a culture of 'yes-people' and poor decisions, killing constructive discontent which benefits the organisation. I portray the empirical material supporting these findings in Figure 29.

I conclude that destructive content is the antithesis of constructive discontent and capture its multidimensional richness in a single conceptualisation (Figure 29) which highlights its causes, manifestations and negative impact. I provide empirical evidence of the causes of destructive content, or organisational silence (Dmytriiev et al., 2016), which are effectively different terms employed in the literature to describe the same phenomenon, and its potential for organisational harm. I thereby contribute to the body of literature regarding organisational silence, providing empirical evidence supporting Dann's (2008) emotional intelligence concept of destructive content. Regarding organisational silence, Morrison and Milliken (2000) argue that evidence of people not speaking out as they see no point, due the *fait accompli* factor, is so far anecdotal. I hereby provide an *Incremental, Scientific* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) to knowledge as I offer empirical material supporting the reason why people remain silent which was hitherto lacking, thereby also making an *Incremental, Neglect Spotting* contribution (Nicholson, et al., 2018).

I contribute to knowledge by uniting concepts within the literature through associating a lack of resistance to change, to the organisational silence literature and to the concept of destructive content within the emotional intelligence and leadership literatures. A further contribution is made by uniting the causes and manifestations of destructive content into a single conceptualisation (Figure 29). This is a neglected area of the literature; whilst constructive discontent appears in the literature, albeit minimally, destructive content I have found employed as a term only by Dann (2008).

My conceptual framework and conclusions regarding destructive content make multiple contributions (Nicholson, et al., 2018). Regarding the contribution to knowledge, it provides a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution as by associating a lack of resistance to change, to destructive content and organisational silence, I provide a new way of considering existing concepts and unite them in a conceptual framework that offers a novel way of considering the phenomenon (Corley & Gioia, 2011). I make a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses*, contribution to knowledge (Nicholson et al., 2018) as this research extends the understanding of destructive content and organisational silence by viewing them through the

lens of a lack of resistance to change, and capturing the dimensions of the phenomenon in single conceptualisation (Figure 29).

The frameworks I developed related to destructive content (Figures 27, 28, 29) will contribute to practice by providing lenses through which practitioners can view a lack of resistance as negative compliance, destructive content or organisational silence. The implications are that this will change practice as change agents question whether the apparent content they experience in relation to a proposed change is *genuine*, or a manifestation of the more destructive phenomenon. Through identifying the causes and manifestations of destructive content I encourage practitioners to seek open and honest feedback, be wary of 'yes-people' and be concerned if a proposed change meets with silence and a lack of resistance. I conclude that compliance has the potential to be damaging and is therefore a cause of concern, whilst resistance may be beneficial and should therefore be welcomed to gain the potential value it may deliver. These conclusions make a *Revelatory, Practical* contribution to professional practice (Corley & Gioia, 2011).

12.4.4: Constructive Content

I conclude that Constructive Content exists and capture the material supporting these findings in Figure 28. Constructive content emerges when change recipients support a well thought through change or can see the benefits it delivers. The implication is that such positive compliance may mean that the proposed change would lack constructive feedback unless the compliance is interrogated or challenge has been actively solicited (Nevis, 1987) and constructive content/compliance is the result.

Regarding the implications for professional practice, I recommend that when change agents encounter such positive compliance they investigate to ascertain if it is *genuine* constructive content, and not destructive content manifesting as compliance. I recommend digging deeper, seeking feedback perhaps through engaging a devil's advocate, to check that the change is as well thought through as possible.

I do not claim contributions related to my findings of Constructive Content as they are associated with the contributions I make through my Destructive Content

findings, as the two phenomena both manifest through organisational silence requiring that the practitioner to explore further.

12.4.5: The Neutral Dimensions

The neutral discontent phenomenon captured in Figure 30 provides significant evidence of people resisting not the change but how it is managed, thereby supporting a body of literature on this topic (Bradutanu, 2015; Ford et al., 2008; Oreg, 2006; Prediscan & Bradutanu, 2003; Senior & Swailes, 2010). Two elements of the neutral discontent phenomena emerge that oppose each other: reluctant compliance and resisting without hope of it making a difference. I conclude that although one results in a lack of resistance and the other manifests as resistance with little hope of any effect, they are linked by their underlying discontent and their lack of impact on the proposed change.

The double neutral manifestation of resistance Figure 30 emerges when participants do not understand the need for change or understand the need but have concerns about its potential to impact negatively. I conclude that this manifestation is a form of ambivalence or ambiguity identified by Piderit (2000).

As these findings and related conclusions support an existing body of literature, they provide a *Scientific Incremental* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) which according to Nicholson et al., (2018) is of a *Differentiated Context* nature.

12.4.6: Section Summary

Within this section I have drawn conclusions and identified contributions related to the Value Dimension of resistance. I have identified resistance as having the potential to provide constructive challenge and thereby provide a form of constructive discontent that appears in the emotional intelligence and leadership literatures. A lack of resistance is identified as destructive content; a negative form of compliance or organisational silence. Revelatory contributions to knowledge and practice related to these conclusions are identified.

The theoretical and empirical frameworks I developed act as a lenses through which the dimensions of resistance and content being both good and bad, constructive and destructive can be viewed. This has implications for

practitioners. It encourages change agents to go beyond considering resistance as a bad thing to be overcome, and to recognise that both resistance and compliance can be good and bad. Indeed compliance in the form of destructive content also links to the literature on organisational silence and can be created through fear or a sense that there is no point speaking up. It thereby kills constructive discontent, losing the various benefits that it can deliver to the organisation.

An overarching conclusion drawn from the exploration of resistance to change as a form of constructive discontent is to challenge the simple resistance is good versus bad dualism and to propose that both resistance to change and its antithesis, content or compliance, are multidimensional and may be positive or negative phenomena. Indeed the same act of resistance can be interpreted as good or bad dependent upon whether it is the intent or the outcome that is focused upon, and also who is applying the resistance label. I capture these conclusions in Figure 49.

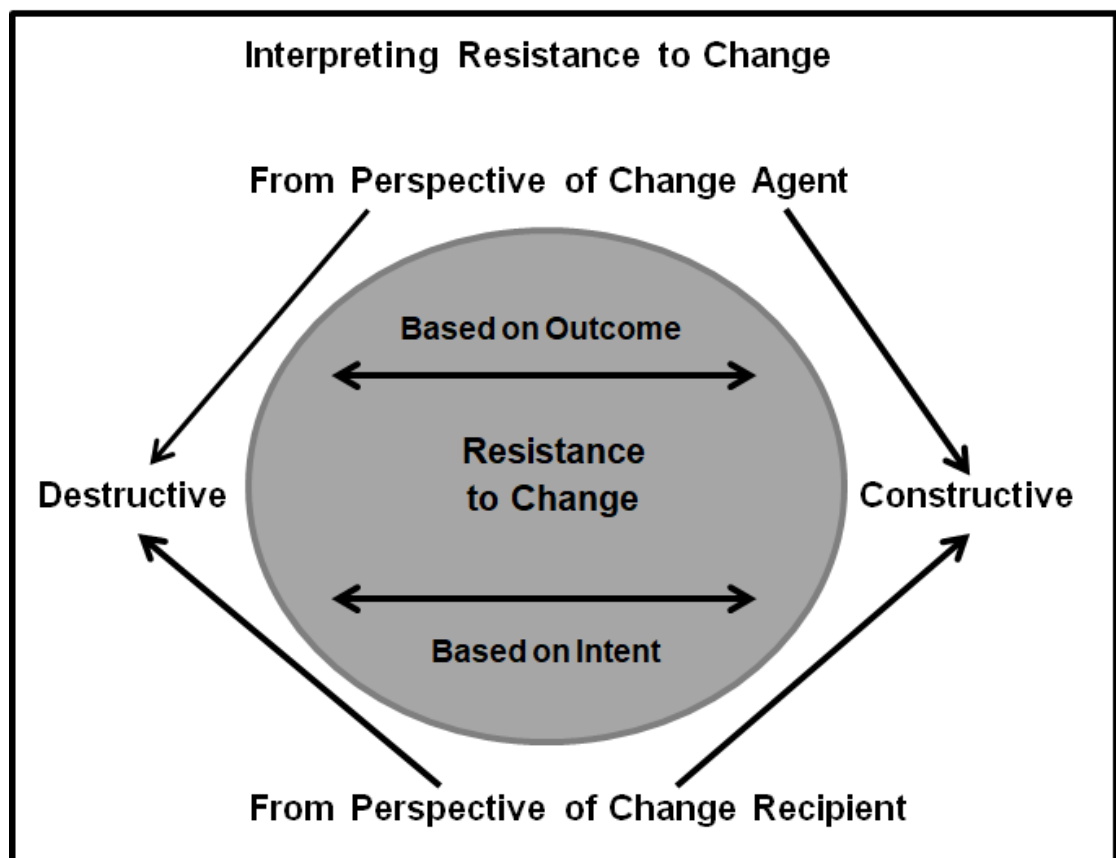


Figure 49

Figure 49 conceptually captures the amorphous nature of resistance that emerges from my conclusions making a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011) as it identifies in a single, new conceptualisation the way in which resistance is born of interpretation. According to Nicholson et al. (2018) this is a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses* contribution, as it draws on the various perspectives of the change agent and recipient related to intent and outcome and the constructive or destructive positioning.

Through the findings, conclusions and contributions of this research, I thereby *meet research Objective 2* by introducing the notion of constructive discontent into the conceptual framework and considering the positive and negative perspectives.

12.5: The Character Dimension

Within this section I discuss my conclusions and contributions pertaining to the motivations and manifestations of resistance, including the self-interest versus altruism dualism underpinning resistance within the literature. I thereby *advance Objective 3* related to why people resist change, *answering Questions 5 and 6* regarding why people resist and how resistance manifests.

12.5.1: Motivations of Resistance: Self-Interest and Altruism

I conclude that people resist change for multiple reasons, some altruistic, others motivated by self-interest. Within the literature, self-interest is portrayed as a negative motivation of resistance to change (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Hughes, 2007; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016; Joussem & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Waddell & Sohal, 1998). However, in finding that self-interest can be linked to self-preservation, as people resist to protect their jobs and future well-being, I question this negative conceptualisation of self-interest as it privileges organisational benefit over individual harm. Self-interest may indeed be a negative motivation for resistance, but when associated with significant loss (e.g. employment) I posit that this negatively conceptualised resistance is a form of personal survival. From a managerialist perspective, this negative conceptualisation of self-interest is appropriate as the benefit to the organisation is prioritised, but from a critical theory perspective which seeks to emancipate the voices of the oppressed (Alvesson and Willmott, 1992), such

privileging is challenged. Therefore, I contend that self-interest, as negatively conceptualised in the literature, is actually more nuanced than it is superficially presented and is dependent upon the perspective taken.

I also argue that people can be motivated to resist based on altruism to protect others or the organisation (Brooks, 2003; Ford & Ford, 1995; Ford, Ford & D'Amelio, 2008; Ford & Ford, 2009; Ford & Ford, 2009b; Huy & Mintzberg, 2003; Nevis, 1987; Senior & Swailes, 2010; Waddell and Sohal, 1998) or by negative self-interest as depicted in the literature (Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Hughes, 2007; Jones & Van de Ven, 2016; Jousen & Scholl, 2016; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Waddell & Sohal, 1998), or even hold both positions simultaneously. I thereby challenge the dualism of resistance based on either self-interest or altruism. It is not an either or dualism, as empirical material emerges of people holding both positions simultaneously. I capture these tensions between the motivations of altruism and self-interest in Figure 24 and advance Objective 4 and Question 7 by challenging simplistic assumptions in the literature.

My conclusions offer a *Revelatory Scientific* contribution (Corley and Gioia, 2011) to the literature as I contribute by providing a conceptual framework which presents existing theory in a new way. The contribution is *Revelatory Problematizing* (Nicholson et al., 2018) as it is underpinned by challenging assumptions within the literature.

12.5.2: Motivations of Resistance: Fear and Security

Within the literature it is argued that people resist out of feelings of fear or uncertainty about what the change will bring (Agocs, 1997; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Bradutanu, 2015; Cummings & Worley, 2015; Gunner, 2017; Jousen & Scholl, 2016; Paton & McCalman, 2008). I find evidence supporting this but also find material proposing the opposite, that people withhold resistance out of fear of the repercussions. Regarding the implications for managing or imposing change, I conclude that fear and uncertainty can provoke either resistance or organisational silence.

The opposite of working in fear is working in security, and I conclude that people also resist because they feel safe to do so. This is the antithesis of organisational silence when people refrain from speaking out through fear. The implication is that people may resist uncertainty and other factors based on their present sense of security, therefore to harvest the potential benefits of resistance, I conclude that a culture needs to be created whereby people feel safe to speak out. Literature regarding resistance motivated by a sense of security is generally lacking, but is discussed implicitly in the literature advocating the building of a culture where people feel secure in speaking out (Dmytriyev et al., 2016). Within Figure 33, I capture conceptually how fear and security interact to either create or suppress resistance, revealing the nuances of their relationship.

Through these findings and conclusions, I contribute to knowledge in a *Revelatory Scientific* manner as through Figure 33 I conceptually integrate prior thought to provide a different way of understanding (Corley & Gioia, 2011) the motivation of fear and security to resistance. It offers a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses*, contribution (Nicholson. et al., 2018) by providing the lenses of fear and security through which to understand the motivation or suppression of resistance.

12.5.3: Motivations of Resistance: Politics

I conclude that politics can be both a motivation and a manifestation of resistance. Organisational politics and national politics may be a source of resistance, whilst political activity is also a manifestation of resistant behaviour as it is employed as a tool through which people resist. I also conclude that the two can be linked; engaging in political activity to resist a change provides a method for one person to resist, but may result in the recruitment of others to resist. For those recruited, the political activity is the cause of resistance, whilst for those using it to resist, it is a tool.

There is a body of literature related to change, resistance and politics (Agocs, 1997; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2008; Cummings & Worley, 2015; Waddell & Sohal, 1998) but it does not explicitly identify the dimensions of politics as a cause and tool of resistance. I capture these dimensions in Figure 32 which visually depicts how politics links to resistance, both as a method and a motivation, revealing how the method for one fuels the motivation to resist in

others. I thereby make a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution to the literature (Corley & Gioia, 2011) as, based on my empirical material and the conceptualisation of it in Figure 32, I provide new insights into how politics contributes to resistance. This is a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses* contribution (Nicholson, et al, 2018) as I view political activity through the lenses of motivation and tool.

12.5.4: How Change is Led

I support the literature in concluding that people might not resist the change itself but how it is managed, and this can be associated with management behaviours including poor communications, the speed and timing of change, and behaviour that leads to a lack of trust. A key motivation of resistance is the imposition of change (Ford et al., 2008; Jones & Van de Venn, 2016). In 1948 Coch and French were arguing for participation rather than imposition of change, and a body of literature has grown since promoting participation and cautioning against imposition: "many organizations do not make much of an effort to manage change. They simply announce what the changes will be and expect everyone to comply" Ash (2009, n.p.). I conclude that imposition and not listening, or ignoring resistance, create resistant behaviours.

I also conclude that imposing change can have opposite effects: in some cases it provokes resistance, in others it kills it as the style of the imposition generates fear in the change recipients. Imposition can thus quell resistance or provoke the very resistance it seeks to avoid, which has implications for the change agent. The implication of these findings is to propose that when encountering resistance change agents should reflect upon how they are leading the change, as it may be their behaviour that is the cause.

I conceptually capture the impacts of the imposition of change upon recipient behaviour in Figure 34, identifying the differing outcomes it can generate. I thereby provide an *Incremental Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and a *Differentiated Context* contribution (Nicholson et al., 2018) as I support arguments within the literature based on my new empirical material, whilst through Figure 34 I unite these arguments for the first time in a single conceptualisation.

Through the findings related to the motivations of resistance, and the conclusions and contributions I make, I evidence how I *advance Research Objective 3 and answer Question 5* regarding why people resist change.

12.5.5: How Resistance Manifests

People resist in a multiplicity of ways. Participants primarily identify them in behavioural terms, although the examples provided of cognitive dissonance and cognitive reframing link to cognition. Behavioural and cognitive resistance are identified in the literature by Piderit, (2000) and Oreg (2003).

I identify non-engagement as a key resistant behaviour and also conclude that resistance is manifested through political behaviours including the covert undermining of people and the change, and the spreading of discontent. By contrast, overt resistance emerges through people openly expressing their resistance, being assertive to the point of aggression, using body language to express their resistance, working with Unions to resist, participating in public protest and directly refusing to engage. Such examples of behavioural resistance are well covered in the existing literature. I therefore provide an *Incremental Scientific* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) which is a *Differentiated Context* contribution (Nicholson, et al., 2018) by providing new empirical support to existing theory.

However through my conclusions regarding sabotage as a manifestation of resistance I make a revelatory contribution to knowledge by challenging the existing paradigm within the literature that conceptualises sabotage as a negative form of resistance.

12.5.5.1: Sabotage

Sabotage is conceptualised as a negative form of resisting change (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999; Ford & Ford, 2010; Morrison & Milliken; 2000; Moss-Kanter, 2012). Based on the literature's conceptualisation of it, I initially interpreted sabotage as a form of destructive discontent within the theoretical framework I constructed based on the literature (Figure 8). However, when I populated this framework with my empirical material I interpreted it as constructive discontent,

as the sabotage prevented a damaging change, thereby protecting the organisation from further losses. The sabotage was thus a positive force. I therefore conclude that sabotage may be a positive act when the intent and outcome are beneficial.

LaNuez and Jermier (1994) argue that there are two types of sabotage linked to intent: to change the system and to cope with the system. They discuss sabotage to bring about change not, as I conclude, to prevent a harmful change. I find no change management literature discussing how acts of sabotage might be beneficial to the organisation, and only a century old political pamphlet (Pouget, 1913) challenging the capitalist presses' depiction of sabotage, to suggest it might be a positive force. Therefore there is either minimal literature making it a neglected area of this subject, or through this research I contribute to this field for the first time.

Based on this research, I propose a new conceptualisation of organisational sabotage as a form of resistance. I contend that the sabotage of change can be undertaken to support the organisation and produce beneficial outcomes by preventing a bad change. I thereby problematize the literature by directly challenging its underlying negative assumption that positions sabotage as a negative act of resistance, thereby *advancing Objective 4 and Question 7*.

Through Figure 26 which I develop based on the literature and my empirical material, I illustrate both the negative and positive dimensions of sabotage. I capture sabotage as both a constructive/positive and destructive/negative phenomenon dependent upon intent, outcome and who labels it. I thus portray the nuances of sabotage, balancing the literature's negative portrayal with the positive aspect that emerges from my material. Upending the literature's overly simplistic assumption that sabotage is a negative behaviour, I provide a *Scientific, Revelatory* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and a *Revelatory, Problematization* contribution (Nicholson et al., 2018) and thereby commence the reconceptualization of organisational sabotage within the change literature.

Through my findings related to how resistance manifests and the conclusions and contributions discussed in this section, I *advance Research Objective 3 and answer Question 6* regarding how resistance manifests.

12.6: The Impact Dimension

Within this section I discuss my conclusions and contributions related to the impact of change and resistance upon the change agent, the change recipient and the organisation, including contributions related to the success/failure dualism.

12.6.1: The Impact upon the Change Agents, Recipients and Organisation

I conclude that the impact of change and resistance is multidimensional, affecting the organisation, the change agent and the change recipient with positive or negative effects. Regarding the impact of change and resisting it upon individuals, it emerged from my participants that change recipients can experience detrimental effects as extreme as trauma and the loss of employment, although one participant (P6) describes it as leading to promotions based on the leadership qualities exhibited by two resisters.

Change agents can be impacted by both negative and positive emotions when leading change and dealing with the resistance to it. There is minimal literature covering the impact upon change agents (Kiefer, 2002) and the positive impact it might have is particularly neglected as the literature focuses upon the negative (Carnall, 2002; De Cremer et al., 2016; Ford & Ford, 2009; Mathews and Linski, 2016; Obholzer, 2003). Based on empirical material I conclude that positive impacts include finding the experience fascinating, enjoyable, pleasurable and fun. It can also deliver learning experiences that contribute positively to professional development. Therefore, within this neglected area of literature I contribute by providing empirical evidence of the positive impacts upon the change agent. I conclude that leading change and managing resistance impacts upon the change agent in a more balanced way than is portrayed in the literature, as a clear picture of its positive impacts emerge to balance the negative ones that also surface and which the literature focuses upon. Thus a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and a *Revelatory, Problematizing* contribution (Nicholson, et al., 2018) is provided, as

based on empirical material I challenge the dominant paradigm of the literature that the impact upon change agents is negative.

My findings and conclusions regarding the negative impacts upon change agents and recipients provide fresh empirical material in support of the literature, thereby making an *Incremental Scientific* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) through a *Differentiated Context* (Nicholson, et al, 2018). They advance *Objective 1 and Question 2* regarding the dimensions of resistance that emerge empirically.

12.6.2: The Success versus Failure Dualism

Within the literature a blame game emerges through a dualism of success and failure, which is based on where the blame for change failure lies. Some arguments blame change agents' poor management practices (Griffith, 2001), whilst others hold resisters culpable (Bradutanu, 2015; Dimitriadis et al., 2016; Jousen & Scholl, 2016) and Barrow & Toney-Butler (2018) hold both responsible. Based on the findings of this research, I challenge the assumption in the literature that in top-down change it is resistance by subordinate change recipients that leads to its failure. I conclude that whilst resistance and management practices might be problematic, it is resistance by top management that actually causes it to fail. In terms of killing a top-down change, subordinate resistance might impede it or be costly but it is top management that delivers the death blow.

The implications of these findings will contribute to practice, as change leaders become aware that the failure of the top-down change initiative they are leading, may come from above rather than below, and so engage thoroughly and regularly with these senior colleagues. I thereby challenge the assumptions in the literature, implicit in the prescriptions to overcome resistance (Bradutanu, 2015; Kotter, 1995; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2015) that in top down change the resistance of subordinates leads to failure which *advances Objective 4 and Question 7* regarding problematization. I capture conceptually the multiple impacts related to managing change and resistance in Figure 38), revealing through a single conceptualisation the multiple impacts of change and resistance. I thereby provide a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses*

contribution (Nicholson, et al, 2018) as I identify impacts from three different perspectives: the organisation, the change agent and the change recipient.

12.6.3: The Impact of Emotional Labour

I conclude that both change agents and recipients are impacted by the strain of emotional labour during times of change. Whilst there is a significant body of literature covering emotional labour, it tends to focus upon the service sector and is a neglected area regarding its application to change management (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006). I find evidence of inauthentic acting by a change agent as a means of leading a change, and emotional suppression in a senior level change recipient. I bring these conclusions about the existence of emotional labour within change agents and recipients to the neglected area of change management literature (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006). My research therefore builds upon this neglected area in an *Incremental Scientific* manner (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and through a *Differentiated Context* contribution (Nicholson, et al., 2018), as I provide new empirical material to support my conclusions regarding the nature of emotional labour experienced during change.

Related to these contributions to knowledge, is an Incremental contribution to practice (Corley & Gioia, 2011) as the implication is that organisations should be aware of the emotional strain and stress (Turnbull, 1999) people may experience during change programmes and seek to ameliorate it. This may be achieved by building a culture which encourages authentic responses and avoids setting expectations of certain organisational behaviours that may lead to suppression in managers and staff. Also, based on my findings of the traumatic impact the way change is led can have upon the recipient, change agents should be aware of the long term effects their style of change leadership can have on the recipients.

12.7: The Actors Dimension

I found evidence of the traditional conceptualisation of bottom-up resistance to top-down change but as this behaviour is well covered in the literature I focus here upon the more revelatory conclusions and contributions made by this research. I therefore discuss in this section my conclusions and contributions regarding change agents leading change they are not committed to, and the

resistance by top-management to change they initiated, as these are neglected areas of the literature.

12.7.1: Resistance by Top Management to Change they Initiated

I conclude that in top-down change, top management can resist changes they themselves initiated. The prescriptions in the literature regarding how to manage change to overcome resistance (Appendix 3), assume a top-down planned change and bottom up resistance to it. My findings problematize this literature, challenging the assumption that in top-down change the resistance is bottom-up (Beer, et al., 1990; Braduscanu, 2015; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979) as it can also come from senior management and the very top of the organisation. Braduscanu (2015) argues that senior managers do not resist their own changes; my conclusions directly challenge that assumption.

The implications of my conclusions are that when implementing change, change agents should pay at least as much attention to those in senior and top management positions as to subordinates. Indeed when the resistance comes from those initiating change at the top of the organisation, then the implication for practice is to propose that they engage constructively with those they have charged with leading change, and acknowledge if they have made a mistake or agree a modification to what they initially intended. If this is not done, based on the findings of this research, I conclude that they may kill the change and the person charged with leading it will leave the organisation. Based on participants' stories, it appears that resistance at the most senior levels, either by a senior manager to a proposed change or by the person who instigated the change, often results in a senior person leaving the organisation, an outcome that can negatively impact not only on the individual, but also on the organisation. This has implications in terms of morale and stress for the individuals themselves and the employees who witness these actions.

I have found no literature regarding top management resistance to changes they initiated, and a request to delegates of the Strategic Management Society Conference 2017 for guidance on any such literature also met with silence. I therefore propose that my findings and conclusions related to this phenomenon provide a *Revelatory Scientific* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) to knowledge

and a *Revelatory Problematizing* contribution (Nicholson, et al., 2018) as my research challenges assumptions in the literature that such behaviour does not occur, and provides empirical material from which to develop this new area of the literature. I thereby also *advance Objective 4 and question 7* regarding problematization.

12.7.2: Lack of Commitment of Change Agents

I conclude that there is evidence that people lead changes they either do not believe in or are not entirely committed to and thereby challenge the underlying assumption in the literature that change agents believe in the change they are leading. Some professional blogs discuss this topic (Baker, 2014; Gupta-Sunderji, 2016; Michael, 2013; Stark, 2016) but academic literature is lacking.

Thomas and Hardy (2011) propose an either or dualism, arguing that middle-management may be either a change leader or a resistor. However, based on my findings I conclude that both middle and senior management may hold both positions simultaneously, thereby challenging this either or dualism and also extending it to senior management. I thus provide a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and a *Revelatory, Problematizing* contribution (Nicholson et al., 2018) as through this research I contribute to this neglected area of academic literature regarding the lack of commitment to the change of those leading it. . I thereby also *advance Objective 4 and question 7* regarding problematization.

12.7.3: Who Resists Change

Based on my findings and conclusions regarding who resists change, I challenge the assumptions in the literature regarding the change agent versus change recipient, and the management versus subordinate dichotomies. Leaders of change can resist, or be ambivalent to the change they are leading. Subordinates can be more pro-change than their line-managers. In top-down change, the most damaging resistance can come from above rather than below, as top managers can kill the very change they initiated. Together these conclusions challenge underpinning assumptions in the literature and contribute to neglected areas of literature.

I capture my conclusions conceptually through Figure 40 based on a Forcefield Analysis that proposes how, in top-down change, both support and resistance can come from all levels (By et al., 2016) of the organisation. It reveals how top management resistance can lead to failure, and that no assumption should be made regarding the support of the change agent for the change they are leading. I thereby offer a *Revelatory Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011) as I provide new insights into management behaviour combined with existing knowledge, to create a new way of considering the phenomenon. It is a *Revelatory, Problematization* contribution (Nicholson, et al., 2018) as I challenge underlying assumptions within the literature.

Through my findings, conclusions and contributions I evidence that I have *advanced Research Objective 3 and answered Question 4* regarding who in the organisational hierarchy resists change.

12.8: The Engagement Dimension

Within the literature engagement with resistance emerges as a dualism of overcoming versus soliciting resistance. Through this research I challenge this dualism, concluding that rather than there being an either/or option, there is a continuum of engagement running between the two extremes of overcoming and soliciting resistance, captured in Figure 42 and that people's positions on this continuum are not fixed.

The literature is fragmented; authors generally position their work at either end of the continuum, focussing on either overcoming resistance at one extreme or soliciting it at the other. Engagement with resistance is conceptualised as either a tool to overcome resistance (Blount & Carroll 2017) or a method of benefitting from it (Ford & Ford, 2009). Based on the empirical findings of this research I conclude that the amount and/or quality of engagement that takes place varies along the continuum depending upon the change management stance that is being taken.

I identify confusion within the literature regarding engagement as authors can position their work at opposite ends of the continuum, yet make similar arguments. Beyond their underlying intent, there is thus little difference between

the guidance to overcome resistance and that of those advocating the benefits of resistance. These blurred lines regarding engagement extend from the earliest to recent literature (Coch & French, 1948; Blount & Carroll, 2017; Ford & Ford, 2010).

My conclusions based on my findings and critique of the literature contribute to practice by raising awareness of the importance of the labelling of academic work and understanding practitioners' change management approach. Practitioners may reflect upon whether they are seeking to overcome resistance to impose change, or to potentially engage with resistance to improve their change. There may be little difference between the two in terms of the guidance, highlighting the importance of their underlying intent. Authors may also give more thought to the title of their work; do they really intend to position it as conceptualising resistance as a bad thing to be overcome, or as a multidimensional phenomenon that can improve the change.

These conclusions provide an *Incremental Confusion Spotting* (Nicholson, et al, 2018) contribution to knowledge, as I identify blurred lines within the literature regarding overcoming and embracing resistance. I also make an *Incremental, Practically Useful* contribution to practice (Corley & Gioia, 2011), by challenging the either/or dualism of overcoming versus soliciting resistance, and encouraging practitioners and authors to reflect deeply upon where they are actually sitting on the engagement continuum and position their work accordingly.

12.8.1: Lip-Service and the Ghost of Engagement

Paying lip-service emerges as a tool employed by both change agents and recipients to avoid engagement. Change agents employ it to pretend to consult but to actually impose change and by-pass any meaningful engagement with those who may resist, whilst change recipients use it to resist change. Such lip-service by resisters equates to Ash's (2009, n.p.) description of compliance: "Often, compliant performers will declare support for proposed changes but will not match their words with effort. What they say is not what they do." I propose that such lip-service makes a *ghost of engagement*; engagement appears to be there but in effect is insubstantial. I conclude that the paying of lip-service is a dualism of activity serving as a means to both manage change and resist it.

I conceptually depict how this dualism works in Figure 36, capturing how both change agents and recipients employ lip-service and thereby reduce engagement to a mere ghost in the organisational machine. These conclusions, and their conceptualisation within Figure 36, provide a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2018) by providing a novel way of integrating prior thinking with my findings to create a new way of understanding lip-service and engagement. This is a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses* (Nicholson, et al, 2018) contribution as it unites engagement, non-engagement and the employment of lip-service in a single conceptualisation, to reveal how they interact to make a ghost of engagement.

12.8.2: Soliciting Resistance

I conclude that for my participants, resistance is generally not formally solicited but is informally sought. I interpret differences regarding what *seeking* resistance means. Some participants describe undertaking the legal requirement for consultation as a way of soliciting resistance, yet I conclude from their descriptions that they were actually paying lip-service to engaging with resistance. The 'consultations' were just a minor detour on the route to imposing change. A description of 'soliciting' resistance through action planning also emerged and I conclude that this is actually a method of preparing to overcome resistance rather than solicit and engage with it.

The association of seeking resistance with intelligence emerges from my material. I conclude that the form of intelligence required is as much Emotional Intelligence (E.Q.) as IQ because it takes strength to deal with push back (Ford & Ford, 2009; Ford & Ford, 2010; Morrison & Milliken, 2000) and so to actively seek resistance requires emotional resilience. The implications of my conclusions are that change leaders need support in developing their E.Q. and internal resilience. This is supported by my findings evidencing the strain that leading change and managing resistance can have, including being ostracised by previously friendly colleagues. The need for E.Q. and support also links to my findings related to participants' guidance regarding managing stress and securing a support network. These conclusions make an *Incremental Practical* (Corley & Gioia, 2011) contribution, by raising awareness in practitioners of the

support needed to solicit and work with resistance to access its potential benefits.

The antithesis of soliciting resistance is to remove those who resist. Strebels (1997), Bradutanu (2015) and Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) all advocate firing resisters at certain points of implementing change. I find this occurring, and the removal of people for other reasons. I conclude that senior managers and change agents are removed by top management as a means of killing change and, conversely, senior managers were also removed to kick start change and generate compliance through fear. Whilst firing resisters is written about, the practice of leading change by immediately removing people is not covered in the literature. I thereby make an *Incremental Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2012) and an *Incremental Neglect-Spotting* contribution (Nicholson, et al., 2018) as I develop this neglected area of the literature through the findings and conclusions of this research.

12.9: The Language Dimension

Within this section I discuss my findings and contributions associated with the labelling and metaphors of resistance.

12.9.1: Labelling Resistance

With two exceptions, I conclude that participants were generally not aware of the label "resistor" being employed to label those resisting change, however those who were resistant were still identified as such. Labels with negative connotations are applied to resisters, including references to being "difficult", "hard cases," "the drip" or "whinging". Those who resisted thus have their behaviour negatively conceptualised through pejorative labelling. Such negative labels can lead to people supporting poor change proposals to avoid being negatively labelled themselves, resulting in harm for the organisation, which highlights the potential for damage caused by the negative labelling of resisters.

There is little literature focussing upon the actual labels employed to identify resisters. Through this research I therefore provide an *Incremental Scientific* contribution (Corley and Gioia, 2011) to knowledge and an *Incremental Neglect Spotting* (Nicholson, et al., 2018) contribution by providing evidence of *the nature*

and *specific labels of resistance* employed by practitioners and the potentially harmful effect pejorative labelling may have.

Participants also labelled themselves as having been resistant when they did not understand the need for change or were opposing what they perceived as a harmful change. Within the literature it is argued that those that do not understand might not be resistant but just seeking information and so the label is not necessarily the cognitive experience of those labelled as resisting (Bradutanu, 2015; Ford & Ford, 2010). I argue, however, that those that do not understand may actually label themselves as resistant, thereby challenging this argument within the literature.

The implications of my findings are that as labels with negative connotations are applied by change agents to recipients who resist, then to benefit from the constructive discontent resistance might bring, change agents need to consider their language and how it conceptualises those providing potentially useful challenge. There are implications for practice as those leading change become aware of their own use of language and challenge negative labelling by others, thereby providing an *Incremental, Practical* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) to professional practice.

P11 describes their behaviour as resistant when they actively avoided engaging with an individual who they deemed unfit to hold a position on the board of a new agency that was being created. I interpret their behaviour as not resistant but as seeking the best outcomes possible for the change by seeking to avoid potential future problems. My interpretation is thus directly opposed to the participant's interpretation of their behaviour and the label that should be applied. This discrepancy links to the issue of power and who labels a resistor as such: those in superior positions as argued by Nevis (1987); the person themselves as discussed in section 9.2; the researcher interpreting their stories; or the reader. Indeed all of the above will potentially interpret and label resistance and these labels may differ. The implication is that ultimately the labelling of resistance is a phenomenon that supports social constructionism and the multiple realities argued by Berger and Luckman (1966) which underpins the nature of this research.

I capture the multiple claims to the power to label resistance and its social constructionist underpinnings in Figure 44 and provide a *Revelatory Scientific* contribution to knowledge (Corley & Gioia, 2011) through taking existing knowledge and the conclusions of this research and linking them to the social constructionist view of reality. This provides a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses* (Nicholson & Gioia, 2018) contribution as it views the power to label through the lenses of multiple stakeholders.

12.9.2: Metaphors of Resistance

Academic literature exists related to organisational metaphors and the metaphors of change, however literature focused upon the *metaphors of resistance* is lacking. Through this research I contribute to both bodies of literature.

Cleary et al. (1994) posit that organisational metaphors are often associated with the military or sports and my conclusions support this assertion regarding *change*. In addition, I find family metaphors and religious metaphors also employed which supports the arguments of Wolfram Cox (2001) and Brown and Humphrey (2006) respectively. I thereby make an *Incremental Scientific* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and a *Differentiated Context* contribution (Nicholson, et al., 2018) to knowledge as this research supports the existing literature in this area with new empirical material.

I make a more substantial, revelatory contribution to knowledge in the area of metaphors associated with *resistance* to change. With the exception of the “if it ain’t broke don’t fix it” metaphor (Marshak, 1993, p. 44), resistance to change metaphors are neglected by the literature. However, I find a range of metaphors are employed to describe resistance. These include imagery associated with birds, beasts and popular culture including film, television and literary references. What they have in common is to conceptualise resistance negatively. Indeed some of the metaphors are linked to criminal activity through their associations with theft or a criminal organisation; another is negative through associating resistance with an obstacle.

By identifying both the nature and specific metaphors of resistance I make a *Revelatory, Scientific* (Corley & Gioia, 2011) contribution to knowledge, as I provide conclusions supported by empirical material in a neglected area of literature. This is a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses* contribution (Nicholson, et al, 2018) as I provide new metaphor lenses through which resistance is perceived, beyond those already identified in the literature.

12.10: The Temporal Dimension

I conclude that the temporal dimension of resistance to change is itself multidimensional. The temporal sub-dimensions include:

- *the past*: experiences of resistance in the past impact upon present and future behaviours.
- *within the present*, past resistant behaviours and experiences of change are reconceptualised.
- *the present* impacts upon the future through the anticipation of future resistance which in turn impacts on behaviour in the present.
- *anticipation of future problems* linked to a change, impacts on the present by generating resistance in the present.
- *specific points in time in the future/the timings of change*: the timeliness of how change is managed can provoke resistance.
- *time as a commodity*: the lack of time and the speed of change can provoke resistance. Here time is a commodity that is lacking. Smollan (2006, p. 149) states that “There is little management literature dealing with individual responses to the speed of change” and if the pace of change is considered too fast people will react negatively. My conclusions support this argument with empirical findings detailing resistance based on the speed of change and the lack of time, and so contribute to this limited area of literature identified by Smollan (2006).

The temporal dimension is thus complex and inter-related. I capture its complex multidimensionality and its interconnected nature in the single conceptualisation of Figure 46. I thereby make a *Revelatory, Scientific* contribution (Corley & Gioia, 2011) and a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses* (Nicholson, et al., 2018) contribution to knowledge by conceptualising the temporal dimension of

resistance through alternative lenses of time, and by providing Figure 46 as a conceptual depiction offering a deeper understanding of this complex phenomenon through a single image.

This knowledge will also contribute to practice as change agents become aware of the impact of the temporal dimension on resistance. They may consider time as a commodity, and the speed and timeliness of their proposed change, as resistance may be linked to these temporal dimensions rather than to the change itself. Past experiences may be generating resistance rather than the current change, and through discussion these might be addressed. Through such impacts upon professional behaviour, this research contributes to professional practice in a *Revelatory, Scientific* manner (Corley and Gioia, 2011).

12.11: The Spatial Dimension

I conclude that the spatial dimension is itself multidimensional in terms of where the cause of resistance is located; whether it stems from within the organisation or from people external to it. A spatial dimension also emerges in terms of physical location and its impact upon change agents and change recipients. Changes to location can both provoke resistance in the change recipient, and ease the management of change by removing change agents from proximity to those resisting.

I capture the multidimensionality of the spatial dimension of resistance to change in a single conceptualisation (Figure 48) thereby uniting a fractured literature which considers only a limited number of the spatial facets at any one time. Through this unification of the spatial dimensions I provide a *Revelatory Scientific* contribution (Corley and Gioia, 2011) to knowledge by uniting and building upon existing theory and presenting it in a manner which combines all the spatial sub-dimensions. This is a *Revelatory, Using Multiple Lenses* contribution, as the spatial dimension of resistance is considered through the lenses of its different facets. The implications for practitioners leading change, is to raise awareness of how the spatial dimension is associated with resistance; practitioners may choose to adapt their practice to take into account where resistance may be located and fuelled. I thereby provide an incremental contribution to practice (Corley & Gioia, 2011) as I build on existing knowledge and provide practitioners

with a lens through which to view and better understand the spatial dimension of resistance.

12.12: Section Summary

Emerging from this research is a picture of resistance to change, rich in its multidimensionality. The resistance to change literature includes assumptions and several simple dichotomies, which I challenge through this problematizing research, and is fragmented in its consideration of the multidimensional nature of resistance, focusing upon a limited number of dimensions. Based on this research I argue that there are eight dimensions of resistance and propose that these dimensions are themselves multidimensional; each sub-dimension is identified and described. A central, revelatory contribution to knowledge of this research is therefore to identify multiple dimensions of resistance and unite them into a single conceptualisation of resistance to change (Appendix 1), The Octagon of Resistance.

Based on this research I provide multiple conceptual diagrams to support practitioners in understanding the dimensions of resistance to change and inform their practice. In addition, I offer the theoretical and conceptual frameworks (Figures 8 and 17) which associate resistance to change with constructive discontent. These frameworks act as lenses through which practitioners can view and better understand the benefits or harmful nature of the resistance they may encounter. The simple dualism of resistance being good/constructive or bad/destructive is challenged as I argue that it is multifaceted, as is its antithesis, content/compliance. Indeed the phenomenon is highly nuanced; there are occasions where resistance may be beneficial to the organisation and compliance harmful, linking to the concepts of constructive discontent and destructive content respectively. I therefore conclude that practitioners should not necessarily be concerned if they encounter resistance. However, they should be concerned when proposed change meets compliance and should investigate to check if it is genuine and not a manifestation of destructive content.

Through this research I also make a number of revelatory contributions to knowledge where there is minimal or no (to my knowledge) literature on the subject, or where I combine my findings with existing knowledge to provide a

fresh perspective on a phenomenon (Corley & Gioia, 2011). All the revelatory contribution and incremental contributions of this research are collated and presented in Figure 5.

The thesis progresses and concludes through a discussion of the extant contributions that I have made to knowledge and practice through this research.

12.13: Extant Contributions to Knowledge and Practice

Within this section I first discuss the extant contributions made to knowledge and then consider the contributions made to professional practice. I conclude this section by reflecting upon the contribution it has made to my own professional practice.

In 2014 I presented my research proposal to explore the possible links between resistance to change and constructive discontent at the Sheffield Business School Organisational Development Conference, which was attended by professional practitioners and academics. At that point my ideas were based on the literature. I considered the links between the change management literature regarding resistance to change and the emotional intelligence literature on constructive discontent, and in so-doing I contributed to the knowledge of those present. I was subsequently approached by an academic colleague for details of my research to feed into his teaching, and it also fed into my teaching of change. This research has thereby contributed to the knowledge and to the professional practice of myself and an academic colleague, and to that of students who are current or future practitioners.

Whilst writing up this thesis, I submitted a conference paper to the Strategic Management Society for consideration for inclusion in their 2017 SMS Special Conference in Milan. Following a process of blind peer review and significant competition, this research was considered worthy of inclusion. It has therefore contributed to knowledge and potentially to practice, through being shared and discussed with academics from around the world. At this conference I twice asked delegates if they were aware of academic literature pertaining to top management resisting changes they had initiated, as this was a theme emerging from this research and I was struggling to find literature on the topic. No

guidance was provided. I thereby highlighted a neglected area of literature to those present and shared my findings that were emerging both in this area and related to constructive discontent.

In 2018 I was invited to speak at the Sheffield Business School Doctoral Conference. I presented this research and the findings I had made at that point. My research was well received, receiving a Commendation. Delegates, many of whom were professional practitioners, asked questions to inform their practice and I also forwarded my slides to a German delegate who requested them. The research thereby contributed to knowledge and potentially to professional practice.

Based on this research I was judged to be a finalist in the Sheffield Hallam University Doctoral Researcher of the Year Competition 2018. I was invited to compete in the finals by speaking at the university's "Creating Knowledge 2018" conference. I contributed to knowledge and potentially to practice by sharing my research with the academics and practitioners present. One delegate, a Head of Department, specifically requested a copy of my completed thesis to inform their practice as they are actively involved in managing change. Another delegate requested my slides, and I subsequently met with them and contributed to their document on change management, within the resistance to change section. This research has thereby impacted upon the understanding of resistance to change within the Nemesis project, a Horizon 2020 project, involving 12 partners from eight countries, one of which includes a membership of over 40,000 head-teachers across Europe. Evidence of this contribution is contained within Appendices 1 - 1.2.

This research has contributed to my own professional practice as my own conceptualisation of resistance has changed. When leading change I now mindfully try not to view resistance as a personal attack or threat, even when aggressively or very assertively expressed, but as a step on the road to gaining the best change possible (if indeed a change is needed at all). I actively embrace and seek out resistance by encouraging the constructive criticism of ideas to ensure they are well considered.

This research thus serves an academic audience through its contributions to knowledge. It also serves an audience of professional practitioners within public private or voluntary sectors if they are engaged in initiating, leading or implementing change, or are change recipients, as it informs practice.

12.14: Meeting the Research Objectives

Throughout this chapter and my findings chapters I have indicated where I am advancing and meeting the research objectives and answering the research questions. Combined, I fully meet and answer all the research objectives and questions. Within this section I indicate how and where that is achieved within this thesis.

12.14.1: Objective 1: To develop a multidimensional conceptual framework of resistance to change.

I have developed the “Octagon of Resistance” as a conceptual framework of resistance to change (Figure 1). It outlines the eight primary dimensions of resistance to change, indicating that each dimension is itself multidimensional. To achieve this I answered Question 1 “what dimensions are identified from current research and literature?” throughout the literature review culminating in section 2.15. I argue that whilst the literature suggests that resistance to change is multidimensional its consideration of the dimensions is fractured, proposing and focusing upon only a limited number at any one time. A core contribution of this thesis is to unite this fractured literature by identifying multiple dimensions and their sub-dimensions, and by creating a conceptual framework in which they are united for the first time in a single conceptualisation (Figure 1). I achieve this through answering Question 2 “what further dimensions can be identified empirically?” through identifying and discussing in turn, throughout the Findings and Contributions Chapters, each of the eight dimensions and their sub-dimensions that emerge empirically.

12.14.2: Objective 2: To introduce the concept of construct discontent into the conceptual framework, considering both positive and negative aspects of resistance and the lack thereof.

I meet this objective by identifying that the notion of constructive discontent fits within the Value Dimension of resistance (Chapter Four; sections 12.4-12.4.6),

the first dimension of the Octagon of Resistance conceptual framework (Figure 1.) The theoretical framework (Figure 8) and conceptual framework (Figure 18) identify the sub-dimensions of the Value Dimension of resistance and constructive discontent, and contribute to answering Question 3: “what dimensions of constructive discontent can be identified in accounts of respondents?” I meet O2 and fully answer Q3 in the findings and contributions chapters of the Value Dimension (sections 4.1-4.6 and 12.4-12.4.6 respectively) whereby I evidence the positive and negative aspects of resistance as constructive and destructive discontent, and the issue of lack of resistance through also identifying and discussing the positive and negative aspects of content, highlighting how the latter, destructive content, is a form of organisational silence. I thus create an association between resistance to change in the change management literature, and constructive discontent in the emotional intelligence and leadership literatures. Beyond the positive and negative facets, I also identify and discuss the neutral dimensions of the phenomenon, thereby comprehensively meeting the objective and answering the associated question.

12.14.3: Objective 3: To provide a socially constructed account of who resists change, why they resist and how that resistance manifests.

I meet this objective and answer Question 4: “who within the organisational hierarchy resists change?”, Question 5: “what motivations for resistance can be interpreted from the accounts of participants?” and Question 6: “How does the resistance manifest?” through my findings and conclusions in sections 7.1-7.6 and 12.7-12.7.3 (who); 5.1-5.2.10 and 12.5.1- 12.5.3 (why); 5.3-5.3.4 and 12.5.4-12.5.5.2 (how). I argue that resistance emerges at all levels of the organisational hierarchy, challenging assumptions within the literature related to who resists top-down change and causes it to fail. Indeed my findings and conclusions pertaining to the resistance of top-management resisting changes they initiated, and of change leaders who do not believe in or are committed to the change they lead, contributes to areas neglected by the academic literature.

I argue that there are multiple reasons why people resist change (sections 5.1-5.2.10; 12.5.1-12.5.3) and how that resistance manifests (section 5.3-5.3.4) indicating where my findings support the existing literature. Regarding politics, I

argue that it can be both a reason *why* people resist and a tool of resistance, the *how* they do so; a distinction not made explicit within the literature. In the case of sabotage, I challenge the assumption that sabotage is a negative manifestation of resistance.

Within the Methodology Chapter (section 3.2.2) I explain how and why this research is socially constructed and through Figure 44 and my arguments in sections 9.2 and 12.9.1 provide evidence of social construction as participants reconceptualise their experiences further to reflection and our conversation.

12.14.4: Objective 4: Where appropriate to the findings, to expose and challenge assumptions within the literature.

I meet Objective 4 and answer Question 7: “what assumptions within the literature are challenged by the findings that emerge from my empirical material? through the identification and discussion of multiple assumptions within the findings and contributions chapters. I collate the identified assumptions in Figure 2 which also details the nature of the assumption challenged and the literature within which the assumptions are contained.

12.15: Limitations

Following guidance from the research ethics committee, participants were asked to recall only their experiences of resistance to change in organisations in which they worked prior to joining the Business School. This created what might be perceived as a limitation of this research as participants' stories relied on memory which in some cases went back many years.

I do not perceive this be a significant limitation, however, as I was seeking people's experiences of change in terms of how they *currently* recall and interpret their experiences, including the added interpretations that the passage of time may bring. Reflecting over time adds richness to their stories through subsequent experiences. The lack of immediacy offers the time for reflection and resulted in some participants relating not just what they did but how they would now do things differently. This research was *not* devised to identify an objective truth about resistance to change, which I do not believe exists as I argue it is a

socially constructed phenomenon, but to explore people's stories and interpretations of what they experienced and how they interpreted that experience. The passage of time therefore adds depth to the material collected. What the ethical guidance prevented me from accessing, however, were participants' current feelings about existing changes within their Business School.

Due to time constraints and a personal desire to progress the research following a serious illness, the interviews were all undertaken within a short period of time of about three weeks, sometimes with two interviews occurring on the same day. There were just a limited number of exceptions where interviews had to be rescheduled. This may be perceived as a limitation as it did not permit the transcription and analysis of one interview before the others were conducted. However it did permit me to become deeply immersed in the worlds of the participants during this intense period of fieldwork, and questions were added and amended throughout the course of the interviews as everything was very fresh in my mind.

12.16: Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of this research I propose that further research is undertaken into:

1: Resistance by top-management to changes that they initiated. Academic literature regarding this phenomenon appears to be entirely lacking.

2: Acts of sabotage that are undertaken to protect the organisation from a potentially harmful change. The opportunity to reconceptualise organisational sabotage as a positive form of resistance and as a manifestation of constructive discontent based on the positive intentions of the actor, is worthy of further exploration.

3: Further exploration of the impact of resistance upon the change agent. The impact of dealing with resistance emerges from this research as both positive and negative. It is worthy of further investigation because although this research makes a contribution, the current literature regarding the impact upon the change agent is limited (Kiefer, 2002).

4: Exploring change agents leading change they either do not believe in or are not committed to. The literature covering this topic I found to be contained within professional articles or blogs. Following the contribution made by this thesis, it is a topic worthy of further exploration as it is a neglected area of *academic* literature.

5: The area of the emotional labour involved in leading change and resisting it which is a neglected field (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006). I contribute to this field through this thesis and more academic research in this area is recommended.

6. The metaphors of *resistance* is an area worthy of further study as it is a neglected area of academic literature which focuses more generally upon organisational metaphors.

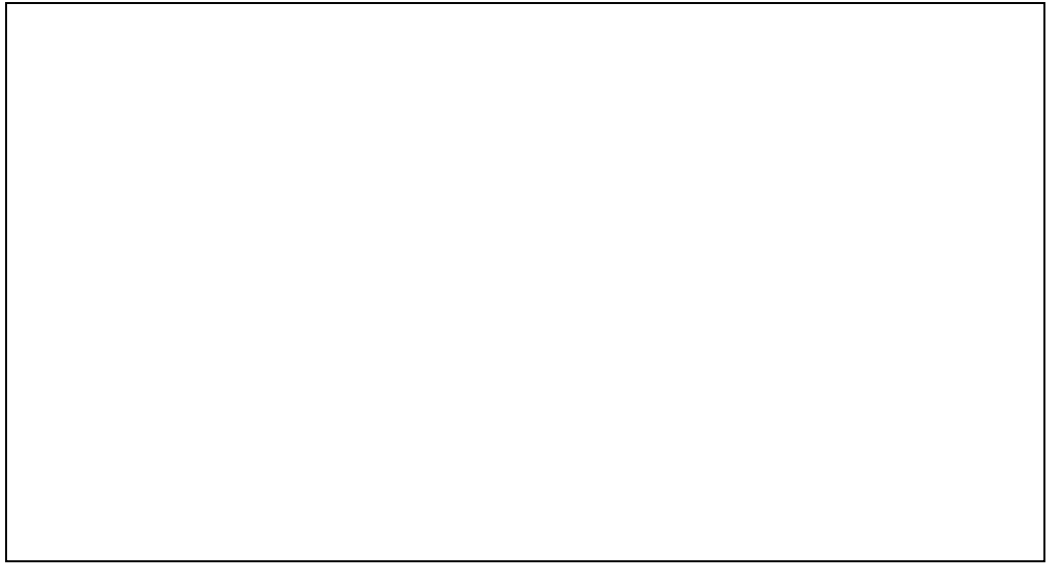
12.17: Concluding Statement

Through this research I thus answer all my research questions and meet the research objectives, making multiple incremental and revelatory contributions to knowledge and practice. Based on my conclusions I also recommend several areas worthy of future research.

Appendices

1. Research Impact Statements

Copy of email from the project consultant confirming the impact of this research removed for reasons of copyright and data protection.



1.2:

Email from a contributor to the project confirming the interesting and helpful nature of the research removed for reasons of data protection.

1.3: Acknowledgement of Contribution

Image document acknowledging the contribution of B. Macmillan removed for reasons of copyright and data protection

2. Lack of Original Material

Email from Adsetts Document Supply confirming that the original document could not be located is removed for reasons of copyright and data protection.

3. Overcoming Resistance to Change

	Coch & French 1948	Kotter & Schlesinger 1979	Kotter 1995	Wagner & Hollenbeck 2015	Bradutanu 2015	Blount & Carroll 2017
listening/ communication/ education	X	X	X	X	X	X
Establish sense of urgency			X			
involvement/ participation	X	X		X	X	
Form powerful guiding coalition			X			
Create a vision			X			
Empower others			X			
training		X			X	
delegation					X	
positive motivation					X	
Plan/create short term wins			X			
Consolidate improvements/ seek more change			x			
counselling/ support/ facilitation		X		X	X	
negotiation/ agreement		X		X	X	
hidden persuasion: manipulation/ co-optation		X		X	X	
explicit / implicit coercion		X		X	X	
Institutionalise the change			x			

4. Participant Recruitment Email

Dear xxx,

As part of my DBA programme of study I will be undertaking research in the area of resistance to change in organisations and how it might link to constructive discontent. This research will not cover change within (name of Business School) or the NHS and further details are attached in the Participant Information Sheet.

If you have experience of change(s) that attracted resistance, either by yourself or others, and would be willing to participate in my research I would be most grateful if you would please respond to this email or call me on xxx. Interviews will be conducted in (name of building within the Business School) (unless a room is unavailable, when an alternative room on xxx Campus will be found) and should last for approximately one hour.

With kind regards,

Beverley Macmillan

5. Participant Information Sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Title of Project: An Exploration of resistance to Change and Constructive Discontent in Organisations

Please will you take part in a study about resistance to change in organisations which will explore how it might link to constructive discontent, which is generally seen as contributing positively to the organisation.

You are invited to participate if you have experience of resisting change in an organisation and / or being involved in leading a change that has met with resistance **outside the University**. You will be invited to talk about your experiences and your understanding of why resistance occurred, or why you personally resisted a change, and the outcomes, positive or negative, that resulted from it. It is felt that this research might be most appropriate to academic colleagues new to (name of Business School), who joined the organisation up to 5 years ago, as their recollections of the change they experienced elsewhere will be most recent. However, it is not the intention to preclude any colleague from participating if they believe they have a good recollection of an external organisational change and would like to participate.

Participation is entirely voluntary and participants are free to withdraw at any point. Participants will be emailed a copy of the resulting doctoral thesis should they wish to see one.

Venue: The research will be undertaken in a private room in (name of building).

Consent and participation: Prior to the interview I will be happy to discuss with you any questions that you might have about the research and should you then be happy to participate you will be asked to sign a form stating that you consent to taking part. The subsequent interview will last for approx. one hour. On request you will be provided with a transcript of the interview for you to comment upon should you wish to do so.

How the data will be used: My supervision team and examiners will have access to the data I collect should they wish to see it and it will be kept securely in (name of place I work) in a locked cupboard. I hope to complete the doctoral research to the point that it is ready for examination by December 2017 and propose to retain the data for approx. a further 2 years to enable me to publish from it. It is my intention to use the data to publish in academic journals if appropriate. I also intend to use the research to feed into teaching and conferences and other relevant events.

Confidentiality: Participants will be anonymised. Names will not be used but participants referred to numerically i.e. Participant 1,2,3 etc. The names of the

organisations that participants discuss will not be mentioned so that links cannot be made between the organisation and the participant. Organisations will be referred to more generically; e.g. a small-medium sized advertising agency; a local authority; an investment bank; a large accountancy firm. Participants should therefore not be able to be connected with the study.

Exclusions: Please note that the research will not cover the NHS or XXX University as the study does not hold ethical approval to cover these areas.

Contact details:

Should you have any concerns following your interview I can be contacted via the methods detailed below: (details were provided).

6: Research Themes and Questions

- What does resistance to change mean to you
- Please tell me about the change. Were you resisting a change or were others resisting the change you led?

Labelling

- Were you called a resistor or did you label others as such?
 - Who provided the label? Were they peers? Senior or junior to you?

Motivation

- Why did you/others resist the change? Were you/they resisting the change or the way it was managed?

How?

- What forms did the resistance take?

Positive Negative Result

- Have you challenged or resisted a change to ensure it was the best change possible for the organisation? Have others?
- What, if any, value was there to the organisation from the resistance?
- Was the resistance perceived as damaging to the organisation?

Managing Resistance

- How was the resistance managed?
- Was the resistance positively engaged with?
- Was resistance to the proposed change encouraged or solicited in any way? Were opposing views sought?
 - Were techniques for soliciting challenge used eg devil's advocate?
 - What techniques were used?

Management resistance

- Have you experienced a change resisted by managers / those higher up the hierarchy?
 - Have you experienced people supporting the status quo when, in your opinion, there has been a need for change?

7. SAMPLE PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

TITLE OF RESEARCH STUDY

Please answer the following questions by ticking the responses that applies

- | | YES | NO |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I have read the information sheet for this study and have had details of the study explained to me. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. My questions about the study have been answered to my satisfaction and I understand that I may ask further questions at any point. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study within the time limits outlines in the Information Sheet, without giving a reason for my withdrawal or to decline to answer any particular questions in the study without any consequences to my future treatment by the researcher. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I agree to provide information to the researchers under the conditions of confidentiality set out in the Information Sheet. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I wish to participate in the study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. I consent to the information collected for the purposes of this research study, once anonymised (so that I cannot be identified), to be used for any other research purposes. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Participant's Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Participant's Name (Printed): _____

Contact details: _____

Researcher's Name (Printed): _____

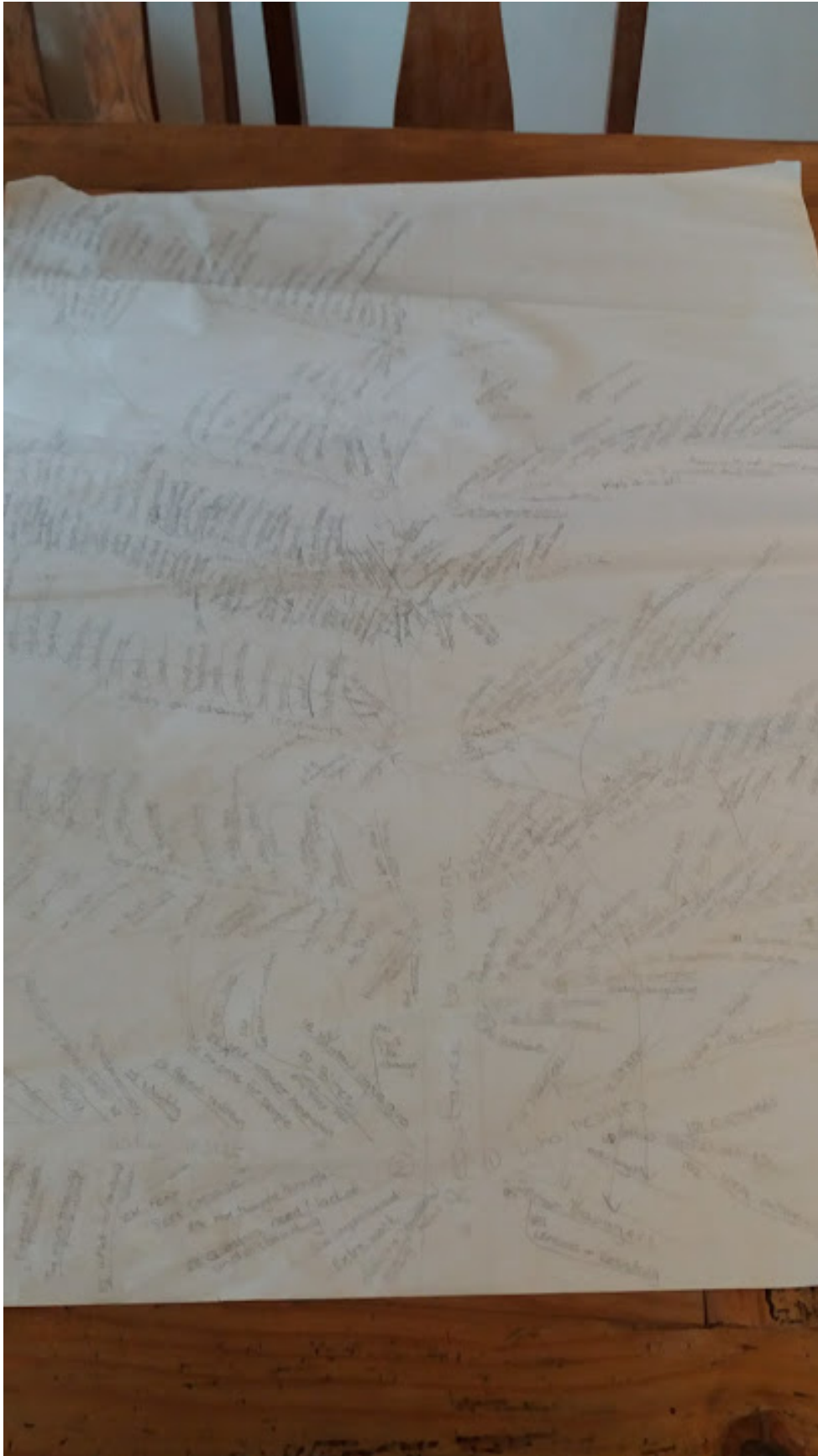
Researcher's Signature: _____

Researcher's contact details:

(Name, address, contact number of investigator)

Please keep your copy of the consent form and the information sheet together.

8: The Network Analysis of the Material Drawn Out



9. Example of Material Analysis on a Page of the Excel Spreadsheet

The screenshot shows an Excel spreadsheet titled 'Analysis - Microsoft Excel non-commercial use'. The spreadsheet is organized into columns representing different themes: 'Good point / see ideas', 'better ideas / better change', 'Reduce prevent problems', 'Challenge Thinking', 'Problem of lack of resistance', and 'Efficiency'. The rows contain quotations from participants, each identified by a number and a page number (e.g., '1p9', '2p7'). Some quotations are highlighted in pink, and one is highlighted in yellow with a comment box. The comment box for the yellow-highlighted quotation (14p6) says: 'Beverley Macmillan: I think resistance, how to managed'. The spreadsheet also shows the standard Excel interface with the ribbon and taskbar.

	A	B	C	D	E	F
	Good point / see ideas	better ideas / better change	Reduce prevent problems	Challenge Thinking	Problem of lack of resistance	Efficiency
1	1p9 "on the shop floor there were slight changes made to the, the generic processes when people turned round and say, "Well we can't really do it that way," and that was then taken on board.	6p16 "Certainly when I was working in the gym, what you'd describe as resistance there,	4p25 "The old systems, they didn't switch them off when they'd planned to and I think a	6p9 "Certainly some of the resistance, it created conversations which	2p71 suppose that when I look at each individual job I think if	4p7 "I suppose in many ways we were really efficient t
2	1 Not necessary negative if the 'change' is really perceived to be wrong and the reasons are well communicated	8p4 " there's consultation and things like that, where they should maybe come up with	5p19 "Well, the resistance from the Personnel Director, because she was the kind of	6p9 "Because of the challenges, we did re-evaluate what we were doing	2 p7.8 I think the resistance could have had a purpose.	4p7 "So I suppose if we hadn't had that sort of focus of r
3	2. from def "Management often view resistance to change as a negative experience that will hinder the change process and create interventions to overcome the resistance, however	9p15 "I firmly believe that you do have to listen, because you need buy-in in whatever change	5p19 "Or the Finance Director would resist to the IT company wanting to go live with a certain	6p10 "So I think it did create conversations that forced us to challenge some of our	14p2 it's good to have people who are negative about	4p8 "so from that very transactional point of view there
4	5p17 "I think so, lots of things. I think that's the problem with resistance, because you know I told you these moan, moan, moan people? The problem with moan, moan, moan is it wears	14p3 He was very solid but I always valued the fact that I could push against him.	6p14 "where there was resistance, it came out quite strongly, but usually it came			
5	5p20 "used the information and influence the situation for the good of the project.	14p6 he was a great loss to me when he retired in 2008 because I knew I could always	Beverley Macmillan: I think resistance, how to managed			
6	5p18 So one of my colleagues in Spanish, who did a lot of the receiving of new products, said, "This is stupid. If we have a barcode, why isn't the pop up box the barcode? Why is the pop	14p7 So we used to have a deputy managing director who was kind of, he's retired, and he				
7	5p27 "so for somebody like me, who was trying to bring out the change, the most vital learning, I think, was that if resistance if for a reason, then I need to listen to it	14p6 Because if you have people who just say yes all the time it doesn't test your theory				
8	6p11 "He moved slowly through the process but it was very	5p18 So one of my colleagues				

This illustrates the material captured suggesting that resistance to change is a good thing. The various columns illustrate subthemes identifying how it is good. Each quotation details first the number of the participant and the page number the quotation appears in the transcript. The coloured quotations are those selected to be used (prior to editing) and the highlighted quotation indicates the comment box which tells where this quotation can also be employed in support of another theme.

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