Cape Peninsula
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FACTORS INFLUENCING INSTITUTIONALISATION OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT PRACTICE IN A DEPARTMENT OF THE WESTERN CAPE GOVERNMENT

by

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DECLARATION

I, Theresha Spangenberg-Hanekom, student number 186003447, declare that the contents of this dissertation represent my own unaided work and that the dissertation has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

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Signed **Date**

ABSTRACT

The study set out to identify key factors required for change institutionalisation, available change management models to implement technology in a Western Cape Government Department and to recommend general change management guidelines for government departments for the implementation technologies to improve performance.

Radical policy changes were introduced in the way the government interacted with and funded Community Policing Forums (CPFs) in the Western Cape. Technology was used to enable and drive this change (a new web-based Police Oversight application) called the Expanded Partnership Programme (EPP) within the Western Cape Department of Community Safety (DoCS) to strengthen the Department's oversight role. However, if change is not part of a wide-ranging planned management approach, it is very likely to fail.

The EPP technology was developed with four main intended outcomes in mind, namely, 1) to increase the sustainability and functionality of CPFs, 2) to increase the effectiveness of CPFs by making sure structured monitoring or oversight of the policing function occurs, 3) to increase active citizenship and 4) to improve police answerability to local communities and implement a structured safety partnership between DoCS and CPFs. Whilst R18 million was invested in this technology there seems to be little return on investment, lack of participation, no changes to improved South African Police Services' (SAPS) service delivery, CPF and staff resistance, and the subsequent under-utilisation of the EPP system indicates significant issues with the implementation of change management practices within the department.

The research philosophy was pragmatic, a combination of both objectivist and constructivist ontological assumptions with an abductive approach.

A combined research design, mixed method that yielded both quantitative and qualitative data was used. The research instruments deployed was s standardised survey and a focus group discussion. Data collection tools (a questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to collect quantitative data and (a FGD with semi-structured questions) to collect qualitative data were developed. Data analysis measuring pairs of variables (descriptive statistics and Pearson's Chi-Square crosstabulations data analysis technique) for quantitative data and (content analysis technique) was used to disaggregate FGD data and triangulated with the quantitative data. Cross tabulations were used to determine the relationship between pairs of variables which were found to be significant. A total of 111 respondents were surveyed from the study population and 5 participants from the

same sample were used through non-probabilistic convenience sampling for the focus group discussion.

The results showed a vision and strategy to inform stakeholders of what the change is about were developed but appropriate effective communication lacked. Efforts were made to help stakeholders understand the need and urgency for change but key stakeholders were not informed why the change was needed, how it would be achieved, or what the benefits of the change would be which resulted in internal and external resistance. A guiding group with power, energy and influence was not created. Staff and CPFs felt ill-prepared to implement the technology changes, partly as they did not receive adequate training, nor were obstacles to change removed. Stakeholders felt left out of the process on how to achieve change. Staff stress and anxiety levels increased significantly as a result of this change. Staff was confident to explain the new process to CPFs and SAPS but were not fully knowledgeable to do so. No short-term wins were created by recognising and rewarding work done towards achieving change and stakeholders were not informed that the change is working. Employees were not developed as change agents. The change was inadequately anchored in the corporate culture of the Department and did not reduce operational costs. Over half of the participants believed the change improved the performance of Community Policing Forums.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my loving and supporting late father, Izak Daniel Nicolaas Spangenberg and mom Elizabeth Spangenberg (nee Du Plessis).

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CEI	Centre for E-Innovation
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CPFs	Community Policing Forums
CPR	Community Police Relations
DoCS	Department of Community Safety
EPP	Expanded Partnership Programme
IKM	Information and Knowledge Management
IT	Information Technology
SAPS	South African Police Services
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This study explored the key factors required to institutionalise sustainable change through a change management process in a Western Cape Government Department.

When change is managed in an organisation, the strategy is knowing how to spot the need for it, how to judge when it is not necessary and how to know what result you want the change to accomplish (Morgan, 1921:ix). Recognising when change is unnecessary is part of effective change management. Not all changes are beneficial, and sometimes maintaining stability is more advantageous. This need for change assessment involves understanding the current state of the organisation and comparing it with the strategic objectives to determine if change is needed (Edward Lowe Foundation, 2015).

Furthermore, a primarily technological change may cause far-reaching, but largely unforeseen, organisational shifts (Morgan, 1921:ix). “Technology has the power to revolutionise the way an organisation does its business, such as by increasing productivity or reducing the work force”. Baker (2007:8-9) emphasises that whilst technology is a key driver for change, technological developments mandate those organisations “to respond to technology challenges such as increased automation of processes and systems, re-skilling staff and a whole range of other demands brought about by new or improved technology”. Baker (2007:11) states that “technology should ideally be the enabler as much as the driver, and technology applications will fail if not part of a broader strategic change management approach”.

Morgan noted that for the challenge of change to be met mainly in the areas of technology, methods, organisation and people, techniques and strategies are useful (Morgan, 1921:ix). Baker further confirms that the potential of new technology applications is only fully realised if the organisation can embrace all the other changes, “in roles and responsibilities, hierarchies, networks, and even physical estate”.

Managers and leaders in business, industry, and government must continuously adapt to change to stay effective. Recent literature underscores the importance of continuous adaptation for managers and leaders in business, industry, and government to remain effective in today's rapidly changing environment. Technological advancements play a significant role in triggering widespread organisational shifts, often unforeseen, which necessitates adaptable and forward-thinking management (Ritter, D., Rehberg, B., Kemp, D., Lenhard, E., Hunke, N.

and Kataeva, N., 2023). Even earlier, in 1921, Morgan emphasised the importance of managing technology within organisations. He underscored the critical need for managers to adapt to technological changes and integrate them effectively into their operations. Morgan's work highlights the enduring relevance of technological adaptation as a crucial aspect of management practices (Morgan,1921:ix).

There are many theories on how to effect change. John Kotter, a professor at the Harvard Business School and world-renowned leadership and change management expert, introduced his change model in his 1995 book "Leading Change", which outlines an eight-step process for managing change effectively (Mind Tools, 2012). The steps include creating a sense of urgency, forming a guiding coalition, developing a vision and strategy, communicating the vision, empowering employees for broad-based action, generating short-term wins, consolidating gains and producing more change, and anchoring new approaches in the culture (Harvard Business Review, n.d.). Kotter's model has become a cornerstone in the field of change management and has earned global recognition for his contributions to understanding and managing change (Harvard Business Review, n.d.).

By integrating Kotter's comprehensive model with Morgan's early recognition of the importance of managing technology, modern change management practices can be both strategic and adaptive to technological advancements. These insights provide a robust framework for leaders seeking to navigate the complexities of organisational change (Harvard Business Review, n.d.).

Baker (2007:3) highlighted that whilst the private sector’s main objective is to earn a profit, the public sector’s main objective, broadly speaking, is to add value through its services delivered. However, it is often challenging to clarify what that “value add” really is.

This study followed an investigative mixed methods approach combing quantitative and qualitative data following the triangulation mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) to gain insight into how the change process was implemented and the need for a systematic approach (change model) to ensure sustained and institutionalised change. The combination of both methods has a substantial value in Information Systems research (Kaplan & Duchon, 1988). The triangulation design is suitable to gather complementary yet distinctly data from different sources and to integrate them for analysis and interpretation (Almalki, 2016).

The desired outcome of the study, which is to generate policy recommendations on the key factors required to implement effective and institutionalised change within government, is

justified for several reasons: implementing change within institutions often involves navigating complex challenges that are influenced by various factors such as organisational culture, stakeholder interests, resources and the external environment. A study aimed at identifying key factors can provide a comprehensive understanding of these challenges and offer actionable insights to overcome them (Cummings & Worley, 2014; Schein, 2010).

Policy recommendations based on empirical research help policymakers and leaders *make informed decisions*. By grounding recommendations in evidence, the study ensures that strategies for change are not based on assumptions or anecdotal evidence but on systematic analysis and data (Bryman, 2016; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Policy recommendations can guide resource allocation, prioritise initiatives, and streamline efforts towards the most impactful areas. This maximises the potential for successful change by focusing on factors that have been empirically shown to be critical (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006; Pettigrew, Woodman, & Cameron, 2001:697-713). The study can bridge the gap between academic research and practical application. By translating research findings into concrete policy recommendations, the study ensures that theoretical insights are translated into actionable steps that practitioners can implement (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; Orlikowski & Barley, 2001). Well-founded policy recommendations provide a basis for accountability and transparency in the change process. Stakeholders can track progress against the identified key factors, ensuring that efforts are aligned with best practices and evidence-based strategies (Kotter, 2012; Argyris, 1999).

Effective and institutionalised change requires sustainability beyond initial implementation. By identifying the key factors necessary for such change, the study contributes to the development of strategies that are not only effective in the short term but also sustainable in the long run, ensuring that changes are deeply embedded within the institution (Kotter, 1996; Burke, 2017).

While the study may focus on a specific institution or sector, the key factors identified can often be adapted and applied to other contexts. This generalisability enhances the value of the study, making its findings relevant to a broader audience and increasing its impact (Scott, 2003; Goodman & Dean, 1982).

This chapter provides a synoptic overview of the study.

1.2 Background

After the 1994 elections, nine Provincial Secretariats for Safety and Security were established, one in each province. The Provincial Secretariat for Safety and Security in the Western Cape was later renamed the Department of Community Safety (DoCS). Their main mandate as per Section 206 of the South African Constitution was to exercise civilian oversight over the South

African Police Service (SAPS) and to improve the relationship between the SAPS and communities. DoCS gave effect to this mandate by conducting oversight visits at police stations across the province and implementing social crime prevention programmes. At the heart of crime prevention lies partnerships and hence 151 Community Policing Forums (CPFs) were established (one at each police station) consisting of civilians to assist DoCS as a key partner to implement social crime/violence prevention programmes. These programmes were essentially funded via project proposals submitted by the Community Policing Fora.

1.3 Background to the problem

Since 2010, radical policy changes were introduced by the Western Cape DoCS in the way the government interacted with and funded CPFs in the Western Cape. Project funding was stopped and CPFs were expected to fulfil an oversight role and to submit oversight reports to DoCS which were then paid for through the newly conceptualised web-based Police Oversight application called the Expanded Partnership Programme (EPP) within the Western Cape DoCS to strengthen DoCS' oversight role.

Tolero Solutions (2020) defines change management as a "structured approach" to move individuals, teams, and organisations from a current state to a desired future state, emphasising its strategic nature (Tolero Solutions, 2020:n.d.). This perspective is supported by several academic and professional sources.

Effective change managers can apply a number of n-step approaches to change, such as John Kotter's "8-step process for leading change". Phillips and Klein, (2023) identified a set of 15 change management strategies and determined how regularly it is used by change management practitioners across 16 change management models and frameworks in practice. Their research findings suggest that strategies related to "communication, stakeholder involvement, encouragement, organisational culture, vision, and mission should be used when implementing organisational change" (Phillips & Klein, 2023:189-197).

The Prosci ADKAR Model, another prominent framework, emphasises a structured method to manage change by focusing on five key elements: Awareness, Desire, Knowledge, Ability, and Reinforcement. This model shows that strategic planning and structured processes are crucial to transitioning individuals and teams effectively through changes (IBM, 2024).

Moreover, the McKinsey 7-S Framework identifies seven interdependent factors—strategy, structure, systems, shared values, skills, style, and staff—that need to be aligned and mutually reinforcing for successful organisational change. This framework further supports the notion

that change management requires a comprehensive and strategic approach to ensure all aspects of an organisation are considered and addressed (IBM, 2024).

Lastly, Pemeco Consulting discusses the Milestone Deliverables approach for organisational change management, emphasising a structured, process-oriented strategy to transition stakeholders from an "as is" state to a "to be" state. This method underscores the need for planned, tracked, and measurable steps to manage change effectively (Pemeco Consulting, 2019).

These frameworks and models collectively illustrate that a structured and strategic approach is essential for effective change management, aligning with the definition provided by Tolero Solutions.

The principles are used in a variety of ways, for example, when organisations expand, downscale or even introduce new technology. “It is an organisational process aimed at helping employees to understand, commit to, accept and embrace changes in their current business environment” (Tolero Solutions, 2020: n.d.).

1.4 Problem statement

Baker (2007:5) identifies that “technology has the power to revolutionise the way an organisation does its business, such as by increasing productivity or reducing the work force”.

Whilst technology is a key driver for change, technological developments mandate those organisations “to respond to technology challenges such as increased automation of processes and systems, re-skilling staff and a whole range of other demands brought about by new or improved technology” (Baker, 2007:8-9). Baker (2007:11) states that “technology should ideally be the enabler as much as the driver, and technology applications will fail if not part of a broader strategic change management approach”. Baker further confirms that the potential of new technology applications is only fully realised if the organisation can embrace all the other changes, “in roles and responsibilities, hierarchies, networks, and even physical estate”.

Remenyi (2013:49) justifies that whilst researchers should look for research questions in “extant literature”, lately research questions are often derived from a practical situation. A gap or such a practical situation has been noticed in change management when new technology and procedural changes were introduced and implemented in DoCS, which prompted this research.

The Western Cape Department of Community Safety (DoCS) implemented new technology, a new web-based Police Oversight application called, the Expanded Partnership Programme (EPP) to enhance its oversight role. Despite over R18 million being invested on the development of the EPP; a new technological web-based application that fundamentally changed the funding model and process from a manual system to an electronic (technology-based) system, from a social crime prevention partner to an oversight partner via the EPP change, using information technology that all 151 CPFs in the province had to be orientated in and utilise to assist DoCS in its oversight function over the SAPS, it shows minimum returns on investment.

The EPP system is supposed to be utilised by all 151 CPFs as a Police Oversight tool. Yet, to date roughly only one-third of all CPFs (50) within the province are actively participating in the EPP system monthly even though they are being remunerated if they submit the relevant oversight reporting data. (Western Cape Department of Community Safety, 2016 PNP report). This indicates a change adoption challenge. At this stage, it is unclear what the main drivers are of the slow response and participation rate to changes implemented or whether any intentional, systematic, strategic change process was followed, or whether the key factors required to implement sustainable institutionalised change within DoCS were followed.

The EPP was developed with four main intended outcomes in mind, namely, 1) to increase the sustainability and functionality of CPFs, 2) to increase the effectiveness of CPFs by making sure structured monitoring or oversight of the policing function occurs, 3) to increase active citizenship and 4) to improve police answerability to local communities and implement a structured safety partnership between DoCS and CPFs. All these outcomes are directly linked to Section 18(1) (a, b, c, e) of the SAPS Act, Act 68 of 1995 (South Africa, 1995), which alluded to the promotion of partnerships, communication and cooperation among SAPS and the communities in which they operate (Western Cape Department of Community Safety, 2014:31). Furthermore, the EPP system may be used as a blueprint to be implemented across the rest of South Africa. Hence, there is a need to conduct research into the key factors that are required to successfully implement and institutionalise sustainable change to prevent other provinces from having a similar experience.

The working assumption is that due to a lack of implementation of key factors of change management methodologies, techniques and strategies, the EPP programme (after spending millions to date) is still experiencing low levels of cooperation from the intended beneficiaries of the service, namely, the CPFs and a certain level of resistance from staff to participate actively in rolling out the system. In this regard, it is important to note that no matter how big

or small the change is, the receivers of change are people who normally determine whether change is succeeding or failing (Cameron & Green, 2019:2).

This lack of participation and the subsequent under-utilisation of the EPP system indicates significant issues with the implementation of change management practices within the department.

Hence, the main aim of this study is to focuses on the introduction of technology (EPP) and key factors required to implement sustainable change through change management methods to institutionalise change in a government organisation.

The significance of the study was to make policy recommendations based on the findings of the study for adoption by DoCS' senior management or government departments for future change implementation interventions.

The research drew from established change management models and key success factors to inform the work. Introduced by McKinsey & Company, the Influence Model for Change Management (AMP, 2018) emphasises strategic actions to positively impact organisational change. Key factors for successful change (APM, 2018) include: Formulating a clear vision and strategy, aligned with well-defined benefits; ensuring strong leadership and sponsorship from senior leaders to act as role models for change; understanding, engaging with, and building commitment from stakeholders; building a strong capable change team with necessary capabilities; following a well-structured and integrated approach and measuring the success of the change initiative.

Kotter's 8-Step Process for Leading Change, a well-recognised framework, highlights the importance of a structured and strategic approach to managing change. Kotter's model involves creating a sense of urgency, building a guiding coalition, forming a strategic vision, and enabling action by removing barriers, among other steps, all of which underline the strategic planning required for successful change management (IBM, 2024).

Whilst this EPP change was strategic, the challenge was in the management, implementation and institutionalisation of the change.

Baker (2007:5) adds that for "any change to be successful", the "responsibility for change rests firmly with those who lead and manage the organisation undergoing change, but with a deep involvement of all the key stakeholders". The working assumption is that staff, SAPS and CPFs were initially resistant to the EPP changes. In this regard, it is important to note that no matter

how big or small the change, the receivers of change are people who normally determine whether change succeeds or fails (Cameron & Green, 2019:2).

The study investigates what key factors are required to managed change within the Department to ensure lasting and institutionalised change.

The problem exists both within DoCS and at most of the 151 CPFs across the Province. The problem and thus working assumption is that a lack of implementation of the key factors of change management caused a lack of understanding of the rationale for this new system.

The EPP system constraints revealed a gap and created the motivation for this study, which is further motivated by identified research gaps from previous studies as listed below.

Fernandez and Rainey, (2006:168-173) recommend that “change leaders and participants should pay special attention to eight factors, each offering propositions suitable for further testing and refinement in future research”. Rehouma et al. (2020:52) recommend that “future research focus on further possibilities of change management within the public sector” and “the participation of employees in IT projects specifically”. Furthermore that “researchers explore more key factors”, that would assist in “integrating employee participation within the public sector”.

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:168-173) identified points of agreement among researchers on what are commonly called organisational transformation initiatives involving large-scale, planned, strategic and administrative change. These points serve as testable propositions for researchers to examine in future research and as major considerations for leaders of change initiatives in public organisations. The eight factors and propositions can influence the outcome of change initiatives at different points of the process. Despite what some practitioners might see as the commonsense nature of these factors and propositions, examples cited as well as many other studies and examples - indicate that change leaders very often ignore, overlook, or underestimate them.

1.5 Research aim

Given the problem statement, this study aimed to explore what key factors are needed to institutionalise change management practices to improve the implementation of additional and new technologies in a Government Department.

1.6 Research objectives

The research objectives to address the research aim derived from the problem statement narrated in the previous section and substantiated with relevant and current citations were as follows:

a) To identify available change management models to institutionalise change management practices in a government department,

b) To determine the key factors of change management practices required to implement additional and new technologies in a government department,

c) To recommend general change management guidelines for government departments for the implementation of additional and new technologies to improve performance.

1.7 Research questions

To address the above-stated objectives, the following research questions were applied:

a) What are the different change management models available to institutionalise change management practices in a government department?

b) What are the key factors required to institutionalise change management practices to implement additional and new technologies in a government department?

c) What change management guidelines a government department need to implement additional and new technologies to improve performance.

1.8 Overview of the research approach and methodology

1.8.1 Research philosophy

According to Burrell and Morgan (2016, cited by Palagolla, 2016:1), the term ‘research philosophy’ refers to a “set of principles or organised scheme or system of convictions and assumptions about the growth of expertise or understanding. Regardless of researchers’ awareness level of the principles or not, at every phase in the research process a number of types of personal assumptions are made” (Palagolla, 2016:1). These comprise of assumptions about the real world or truths that the researcher experience in conducting research (ontological assumptions), about anthropological expertise or understanding (epistemological assumptions), and about the scope and manner in which the researcher’s intrinsic values affect the research process (axiological assumptions). Saunders et al., (2019:130-131) avers that these assumptions unavoidably construct how the research questions are perceived, the

methods utilised and how the findings are described or construed. It is further stated that a meticulous and logical set of assumptions will aggregate a reliable, valid or credible research philosophy, which will establish the “methodological choice, research strategy, data collection techniques and analysis procedures” Saunders et al (2019:130-131).

Research philosophy thus refers to the underlying assumptions, beliefs and paradigms that guide the researcher’s approach to conducting research. It influences the choice of research methods, data collection and interpretation of findings. There are three main research philosophies namely positivism, interpretivism and critical realism.

Positivist researchers believe that objective reality exists, and knowledge can be discovered through empirical observation. They emphasise quantitative data, hypothesis testing, and generalisability (Kridli & Fitzpatrick, 2018; Boswell & Cannon, 2020:240). Positivist research often employs experiments, surveys, and statistical analyses. Researchers aim for generalisability and hypothesis testing.

Interpretivist researchers focus on understanding subjective meanings and social contexts. They use qualitative methods, such as interviews and observations, to explore complex phenomena (Boswell & Cannon, 2020:240). Interpretivist research favours methods like interviews, participant observation, and content analysis. Researchers focus on context, meaning, and in-depth exploration.

Critical realists recognize both objective reality and the influence of social structures. They seek to uncover underlying mechanisms and causal relationships (Fletcher, 2020:173-194).

Positivists use quantitative research methods which are underpinned by objectivism. As Saunders et al. (2019:134) confirm, quantitative “research findings are likely to be considered objective and generalisable. Gupta and Awasthy (2015:6) state that epistemology “is the theory of knowledge”. The epistemological approach is both objectivist and interpretivist. These authors argue that “positivists usually use quantitative methods as research tools, as these are objective, and the results are generalisable and replicable. They look for an explanation of behaviour, not for the meaning. A deductive approach is undertaken.”

Interprevists use qualitative research methods which are underpinned by subjectivism. Gupta and Awasthy (2015:7) explain that the opposite position is taken by interpretivists. They believe that most of the reality which is meaningful for human beings is largely constructed by them as an ongoing process of interacting, experiencing, and sharing. Therefore “research methods need to explore individual understandings and subjective experiences of the world.” Unlike positivists, they look at understanding social behaviour rather than explaining it and

focussing on its meaning and usually employ qualitative research methods. Gupta and Awasthy (2015:8) state “it is important to note that for analysing and interpreting the social reality, one must take an interpretivist or constructivist subjective position”.

Gupta and Awasthy (2015:9) aver that “the subjectivist position focuses on capturing the meaning or a distinct subject, that is, an individual: how this subject construct, interacts with and gives meaning to his world”. Research with an interpretivist approach attempts to give words to experiences rather than choose from the category. An interpretivist perspective sees the world as constructed, interpreted, and experienced by people in their interactions with each other and with wider social systems.

Gupta and Awasthy (2015:14) summarise by stating that “an interpretivist, through the use of qualitative methods (interviews, focus groups and other qualitative methods to get an in-depth insight into a field) seeks to gain all the knowledge that one can have about the world that is only socially constructed”.

Dudovskiy (2018) argues that studies with a pragmatism research philosophy can combine various research approaches, strategies and methods such as qualitative, quantitative and action research methods. Pragmatics can integrate both, positivist and interpretivist positions and research strategies within the scope of a single research according to the nature of the research question (Dudovskiy, 2018). A pragmatism research philosophy “recognises that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research, that no single point of view can ever give the entire picture and that there may be multiple realities” (Dudovskiy, 2018:19-21). In addition, the research question is the most significant determining factor of the research philosophy.

Pragmatism collapses the boundaries between epistemology and ontology, emphasising practical engagement, context, and the interconnectedness of knowledge and reality.

The research philosophy was pragmatic as it was a combination of both objectivist and constructivist ontological assumptions following a mixed method to answer the research question.

1.8.1.1 The philosophical assumptions that underpin research approaches, designs, and methods

Ontology and Epistemology of Pragmatism

Ontology and epistemology are two key areas of research philosophy that help us to understand the nature of reality and how we come to know things. Pragmatism is a

philosophical approach that has its roots in the work of Charles Sanders Peirce, William James, and John Dewey, and it offers a distinctive view of ontology and epistemology. Pragmatism collapses the boundaries between epistemology and ontology, emphasising practical engagement, context, and the interconnectedness of knowledge and reality.

Pragmatism is an ontological and epistemological approach that emphasises the practical value of ideas and the importance of context in shaping knowledge. Pragmatism's ontological assumptions align more closely with constructivism than with objectivism. Pragmatism assumes that reality is constructed through our experiences and interpretations of it. Reality is seen as dynamic and evolving, and knowledge is created through interaction and negotiation with others in specific contexts (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). This view of reality and knowledge is more fluid and dynamic than the view assumed by objectivism.

Ontology of Pragmatism

Ontology refers to the study of the nature of reality and what exists in the world. According to pragmatism, reality is not fixed and immutable, but is constantly evolving and is shaped by human experience and interaction with the world. This view is known as process ontology, which holds that reality is not composed of fixed objects or entities, but of processes that are constantly in flux and interdependent (Rescher,1996).

There are two main ontological assumptions: objectivism and constructivism. Objectivism assumes that there is a single, objective reality that exists independently of our perceptions and interpretations. Reality is seen as external to the knower, and knowledge is discovered through objective observation and measurement (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Constructivism assumes that knowledge is constructed by individuals and shaped by their subjective experiences and interpretations of reality. Reality is seen as socially constructed and subjective, and knowledge is created through interaction and negotiation with others (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

John Dewey, one of the key figures of pragmatism, developed a concept of "transactional ontology" which posits that reality is constituted by ongoing transactions between an organism and its environment (Dewey,1958). Dewey argued that we can only understand the nature of things by considering their interactions with other things in the world. He viewed the world as an ever-changing and interconnected system, where everything is in constant flux and interaction.

Epistemology of Pragmatism

Epistemology is concerned with how we come to know things and what counts as knowledge. Burrell and Morgan (2016, cited by Saunders et al., 2019:134) explain that epistemology refers to assumptions about understanding, what adds up to admissible, justifiable, and legal or recognised understanding, and the way we can communicate understanding or expertise to others. The diverse types of understanding or expertise may be presented in the form of statistical or arithmetical, descriptive, or narrative and imaged data, facts, points of view and descriptions and stories. Crotty (1998, cited by Saunders et al., 2019:145) argues that epistemologically the target is on finding detectable and quantitative data and consistencies, and only phenomena that are detectable and measurable would result in the formulation of valid and useful facts. The researcher will search for one thing causing the other in the data to generate law-like abstractions (generalisations) like those produced by scientists. These general regulations and precepts are used to assist in explaining and predicting conduct and occurrences in organisations (Saunders et al., 2019:145).

Pragmatism offers a distinctive view of epistemology that emphasises the practical consequences of ideas and actions, rather than their abstract or theoretical qualities. Pragmatists reject the idea of absolute truth and instead argue that knowledge is always provisional, subject to revision and refinement based on new experiences and evidence. According to William James, "truth happens to an idea. It becomes true, is made true by events" (James,1907). In other words, what counts as knowledge depends on the practical consequences of our ideas and actions. If an idea or belief helps us to achieve our goals and solve our problems, then it is true for us.

Pragmatism also emphasises the importance of practical action in shaping both reality and knowledge. John Dewey argued that knowledge is not a passive reflection of reality, but an active process of inquiry and problem-solving. He believed that knowledge is best acquired through experimentation and practical problem-solving, rather than through abstract theorising.

In conclusion, the ontology and epistemology of pragmatism emphasise the dynamic and contingent nature of reality and knowledge and the importance of practical action and problem-solving in shaping both. Pragmatism offers a distinctive view of ontology that sees reality as a process of ongoing interaction and flux. Similarly, its epistemology emphasises the practical consequences of ideas and actions and rejects the idea of absolute truth in favour of a more provisional and pragmatic approach to knowledge acquisition.

1.8.2 Research Approach

This study utilised a mixed method research approach combining quantitative and qualitative approaches to enhance understanding. Using different methods on the same subject enhances credibility.

Key advantages of following this approach are as follows: Qualitative research often has a smaller sample size and lacks generalisability. Mixed methods allow triangulation, combining data for more robust conclusions (George, 2023). Mixed methods provide richer context and detail. It helps researchers understand connections or contradictions between qualitative and quantitative data (Shorten & Smith, 2017:74-75).

Quantitative results become more understandable, and small-sample qualitative findings gain broader applicability (HIH Office of Behavioural and Social Sciences, 2018).

Quantitative data obtained were captured and analysed and statistical methods were used to translate data into graphs and tables and narratives were written after deductions were made. The research is based on testing the theory of the 8-step change model of well-known Harvard Business School Professor John Kotter as the key factors required to implement change management to institutionalize changes in a Western Cape Government Department.

However, quantitative data will be less likely to offer a rich and complex view of organisational realities, account for the differences in individual contexts and experiences or, perhaps, propose a radically new understanding of the world than if you based your research on a different view of knowledge that is ‘multi-method’ (Saunders et al., 2007). Sinha et al. (2018:366) opine that a multi-method approach enables flexibility and emergence of multiple data sets, which are then analysed using qualitative or quantitative techniques, depending on the validity and usefulness of the data set.

Quantitative research involves collecting and analysing numerical data to understand patterns, relationships and trends. It aims for objectivity and generalisability. Data collection involved structured surveys with this study. Measurement focuses on quantifiable variables (key factors required for institutionalisation of change management practice in a Department of the Western Cape Government). Statistical Analysis employs statistical tools (e.g., regression, t-tests) to draw conclusions. Generalisation seeks to generalise findings to larger populations (Pilcher & Cortazzi, 2024).

Qualitative research explores subjective experiences, meanings and context. It aims for depth and understanding. Data collection involved focus group discussion with this study. It focuses on rich descriptions, themes and narratives. Inductive Analysis of emergent themes guide

analysis. Contextual Understanding explores social, cultural and historical contexts (Okoko, Tunison & Walker, 2023). In this study content analysis was done.

Qualitative data obtained were captured and analysed and coded verbally to triangulate the interpretation of the quantitative data.

Recent literature highlights that these approaches are not rigidly separate but interconnected. Researchers often blend methods, recognising the value of both. It is important to consider the specific field and context when choosing an approach.

1.8.3 Research design

Vogt et al. (2012:3) argue that the research design is foundational as in the final analysis each item is derived from the design choice. The plan used to collect the data is called the design choice. A combined research design was followed with mixed methods that yielded both quantitative and qualitative data (Vogt et al, 2012:3). Mixed methods research involves integrating quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study to provide a more comprehensive understanding of a research question or phenomenon. Mixed methods research has gained popularity in recent years, as it allows researchers to triangulate findings from multiple sources and to gain a more nuanced understanding of complex social phenomena (Vogt et al., 2012:6). Below are some justifications for mixed methods research:

Quantitative and qualitative methods are complementarity in nature and have different strengths and weaknesses. By combining the two methods, researchers can capitalise on the strengths of each method and minimise the weaknesses. For example, quantitative methods can provide numerical data on prevalence rates, while qualitative methods can provide in-depth information on the experiences and perspectives of individuals. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018:6), mixed methods research is especially useful when "one method can fill in the gaps or provide a more complete picture of the research problem".

By collecting data from multiple sources and using multiple methods, researchers can triangulate findings to enhance the credibility and validity of their results. According to Carter., Bryant-Lukosius., DiCenso., Blythe., & Neville, (2014:545–547), triangulation can be achieved by using multiple methods to investigate the same research question/s or by using different methods to investigate different aspects of the same research question.

Mixed methods research can lead to convergence or agreement between quantitative and qualitative findings. According to Greene et al. (1989:257), convergence occurs when "quantitative and qualitative data are brought together and produce a similar interpretation or explanation of the phenomenon under investigation". Convergence enhances the credibility

and validity of the findings and can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the research question. Mixed methods research allows researchers to be innovative and creative in their research designs. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018:6), mixed methods research can lead to new insights, hypotheses, and research questions that would not have been possible with a single method.

Overall, mixed methods research provides a powerful tool for researchers to gain a more comprehensive understanding of complex social phenomena. By combining the strengths of quantitative and qualitative methods, researchers can enhance the credibility and validity of their findings and provide a more nuanced understanding of the research question.

1.8.4 Research methodology

A variety of theories are used by researchers to investigate and simplify reality. Researchers' work is based on their ontological and epistemological positions. This position determines the research methodology and approach to follow. Often the researchers' views about the world determine the positions they take (Gupta & Awasthy, 2015:5-6).

A mixed method approach was followed to ensure a solid and trustworthy set of findings for the study. Gupta and Awasthy (2015:9) argue that positivist researchers may respond to queries "in the form of numbers through measurable data but numbers can only measure the intensity—that is, more or less". However, Creswell, Klassen and Clark (2011:1-6) confirm that the most fundamental part of mixed methods research is that its eclectic nature provides the best chance to produce useful answers. As noted in Creswell, Klassen, Clark and Smith, (2011:1-6), the purpose of the sequential explanatory design is to use qualitative results to assist in explaining and interpreting the findings of a primarily quantitative study.

The quantitative method of collecting evidence was a survey via an electronic platform called Survey Monkey. A non-random purposive sample was chosen consisting of 151 CPF chairpersons, 151 South African Police station commanders and 290 staff members of DoCS. A non-random sample is a sample that is not selected using a random process, such as a random number generator or a table of random numbers. Non-random samples can be biased, meaning that they do not represent the population they are intended to represent, and may lead to inaccurate or misleading conclusions.

According to Groves et al. (2009:2-32), a non-random sample can arise from any of the following four sources:

1. Self-selection: individuals volunteer to participate in the study, leading to a non-random sample. This can introduce bias, as individuals who choose to participate may be different from those who do not.

2. Convenience sampling: individuals are selected because they are convenient to the researcher. This may introduce bias, as individuals who are more accessible may be different from those who are not.

3. Purposive sampling: individuals are selected based on specific criteria, such as age, gender, or occupation. This may introduce bias, as individuals who meet the criteria may be different from those who do not.

4. Snowball sampling: individuals are recruited based on referrals from other participants. This may introduce bias, as individuals who are referred may be different from those who are not.

Non-random samples can be useful in certain situations, such as when the population is small, hard to reach, or there is limited time or resources available. Non-random sampling methods are often employed in research for various reasons. They allow researchers to target specific populations or individuals of interest, which can be particularly useful when studying rare or difficult-to-reach populations (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016:1-4). Additionally, non-random sampling methods can be more cost-effective and efficient than random sampling, especially when resources are limited (Creswell & Creswell, 2017:164). Furthermore, it ensures diversity in the sample, allowing for a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study (Bryman, 2016:187). Purposive sampling, for instance, allows researchers to select participants who possess certain characteristics or experiences relevant to the research question, enhancing the richness and depth of data collected (Patton, 2015:270).

However, it is important to recognise and acknowledge the potential biases that may be present in non-random samples, and to interpret the findings accordingly (Bryman, 2016:187). Researchers should carefully consider the trade-offs between the advantages and limitations of non-random sampling methods when designing their studies.

A qualitative method of collecting evidence was implemented by way of a focus group discussion (FGD) with CPFs, SAPS and staff members in the organisation directly involved in the implementation of the change. Focus groups are a type of qualitative research method that involves bringing together a small group of individuals to discuss a specific topic or issue.

Focus groups are best suited for a qualitative research approach for the following reasons: It capitalise on group dynamics, allowing participants to interact with each other and build upon each other's ideas. According to Morgan (1996:80), group dynamics can lead to "richer and more complete data than could be obtained from individuals alone" (Morgan, 1996:80). This can be especially useful for exploring complex or sensitive topics where participants may be hesitant to share their opinions in a one-on-one interview setting.

Focus groups allow researchers to gather multiple perspectives on a topic or issue. According to Krueger and Casey (2014), focus groups provide "a variety of perspectives, beliefs, and experiences" (Krueger and Casey, 2014:32). This can help researchers gain a more nuanced understanding of the topic being explored and can highlight differences and similarities in participants' perspectives. Focus groups are a flexible research method that can be adapted to suit a range of research questions and contexts. According to Ochieng, Wilson, Derrick and Mukherjee, (2018/19:20–32), focus groups can be used to explore a wide range of topics and can also be conducted in various settings, such as in-person or online.

According to Krueger and Casey (2014:28), focus groups can provide "rich detailed data descriptions, insights, and explanations" including verbal and nonverbal communication, group interaction, and social norms (Krueger and Casey, 2014:28). This can help researchers gain a more holistic understanding of the topic being explored and can provide rich data for analysis.

Overall, focus groups are best suited for a qualitative research approach due to their ability to capitalise on group dynamics, gather multiple perspectives, adapt to various research questions and contexts, gain a more nuanced understanding of the topic being explored and provide rich and detailed data for analysis.

1.8.5 Data collection and analysis techniques/procedure

1.8.5.1 Sample frame and sampling method

The sampling frame comprises the individuals who can be chosen from the target population based on the sampling method employed in the research. Since the sample might only cover a segment of the target population, it is essential for the researcher to meticulously assess if the chosen sampling frame aligns with the study's objectives or hypotheses and to identify strategies to mitigate any limitations of the sampling frame (National Library of Medicine, 2016). This sampling frame consisted of a total of 19 196 (18 000 SAPS officials, 290 DoCS officials and 755 CPF members).

During the planning phase of the study, researchers must determine whether they will include the entire target population or just a sample. Working with a sample entails various steps, such as estimating the sample size, identifying the sampling frame, and choosing the sampling method to be used (National Library of Medicine, 2016).

“Sampling is the process of choosing” from a bigger group called the “population or universe” (Vogt et al., 2012:6). Sampling methods can be categorised into two major types: probabilistic and non-probabilistic (National Library of Medicine, 2016).The study was executed within the Western Cape Provincial borders at DoCS and purposive sampling, a non-random type/non-probalistic sampling was done with 151 CPF chairpersons and 151 SAPS station commanders across the province, and 290 staff members at DoCS and was chosen because of their involvement in the EPP programme of DOCS. The SAPS station commanders were included to inform them of the study as they assisted the CPFs to compile or send the monthly data/reports to DoCS. No other provinces were surveyed as this programme is unique to the Western Cape, which inevitably limits the generalisation of the study, but the change management principles will remain the same. The sample size was determined with an online sample size calculator.

Sampling refers to the process of selecting individuals or sampling units from the sampling frame. It is essential to specify the sampling strategy beforehand, as the chosen method can influence the sample size estimation. Without a well-defined sampling plan, the study's estimates may be biased due to selection bias (National Library of Medicine, 2016).

Vogt et al. (2012:5) highlight that the key questions to be addressed when sampling is determined, are: “whom or what shall be studied, how many will be studied and how will it be chosen? The term ‘cases’ are generically used to describe any unit of analysis or object/subject/participant of study” (Vogt et al., 2012:5).

Researchers use statistical inference to draw conclusions about the target population from sample results, with a certain level of confidence. If the sample size is smaller than the required minimum but still representative, the precision of statistical inference might be compromised in terms of prevalence studies and/or the statistical power to detect associations of interest. Conversely, samples that lack representativeness cannot reliably support conclusions about the target population, even if they include the necessary number of participants. Representativeness can be lost due to flawed selection procedures (sampling bias) or if the likelihood of refusal/non-participation is related to the research topic (nonresponse bias).

1.8.5.2 Research Instruments

The research instruments decided on flowed from the research design. A standardised tool (a questionnaire) was used as well as an FGD semi-structured questionnaire to obtain qualitative insight into the quantitative results obtained.

An electronic self-administered survey via Survey Monkey was selected because of the large sample size and wide location across the Western Cape Province. The survey was chosen as a research instrument because answering the research questions required wide-ranging "representative answers to questions asked of a large group" as advocated by Vogt et al. (2012:14). In addition, qualitative data could be obtained by asking structured questions. A further motivation for this research instrument was that it was the most cost-effective method, given the wide geographical area where participants were located (across the Western Cape Province). It was expected that a high percentage of responses would be generated and thus given the research question, using a survey seemed to be the most appropriate method.

Interviews was the second research instrument to "gain access to informants willing to talk, either individually or in (focus) groups about issues that would help answer the research questions." A further motivation was to achieve "in-depth exploration of participants' meanings" as a key part of the research question (Vogt et al., 2012:14). An FGD was held with a non-probabilistic convenience sample consisting of SAPS, CPFs and Departmental employees to triangulate the quantitative data results with qualitative insight.

1.8.5.3 Data captured and analysis

The quantitative data were collected from a large group in a standardised and systematic manner gathering numerical data that was analysed using statistical methods. This method is suitable for measuring opinions, preferences, attitudes and behaviours and other defined variables. In this study a combined survey / structured questionnaire with close-ended questions (e.g., using a Likert rating scale) was administered via an on-line platform called Survey Monkey to collect data from participants. The data received from the survey was exported to an Excel spreadsheet. The data were evaluated using mathematical calculations to identify patterns and interpret the results.

The FGD was recorded with the permission of the participants, transcribed and then analysed. The qualitative results were used to triangulate the quantitative findings and compared to the literature. "Answers to surveys were coded numerically and answers to focus group questions were coded verbally" (Vogt et al., 2012:7) and then translated into a graphical display.

1.8.5.3.1 Quantitative Data Analysis Techniques

A quantitative data analysis technique was used to interpret numerical data to uncover patterns and relationships. An inferential statistical technique called the chi-square test utilising the correlation analysis technique on data which examines the relationships between variables was used to analyse the data which goes beyond description to make predictions and test hypotheses. The technique was chosen based on the research questions, data type and assumptions. Mathematical calculations (e.g., p-values) guided the interpretation.

Inferential statistics are used to make inferences or draw conclusions about a population based on a sample of data. The chi-square test allows researchers to infer whether the observed relationships or distributions in the sample data are likely to exist in the larger population.

Data analysis was done by inferential statistics and Chi-Square Crosstabulations. The chi-square (χ^2) test is a statistical method used to determine whether there is a significant association between two categorical variables. The test compares the observed frequencies of the variables to the expected frequencies under a null hypothesis of independence.

Below are some examples of how the chi-square test was used:

The chi-square test was used to determine whether there is a significant association between two categorical variables. If there is a significant association, this would suggest that the variable is an important factor in determining change management (Agresti & Coull, 2002:46). Chi-square tests are commonly used in quantitative research to analyse the relationships within contingency tables and to test hypotheses about the independence of variables or the goodness of fit between observed and expected frequencies.

The chi-square test can also be used to test whether two categorical variables are independent of each other. For example, a researcher might use a chi-square test to determine whether there is a significant association between education level and income level. If there is a significant association, this would suggest that education level and income level are not independent variables (Sharpe, 2015:1). Overall, the chi-square test is a useful statistical method for analysing categorical data and determining whether there is a significant association or difference between two or more variables. By using the chi-square test, researchers can gain insight into the relationships between different variables and test hypotheses about the underlying population.

In summary, quantitative data collection and analysis provide valuable insights, allowing researchers to explore complex phenomena and make informed decisions based on empirical evidence.

1.8.5.3.2 Qualitative Data Analysis Techniques

Various statistical techniques to analyse and interpret the qualitative data were considered. These techniques assist to identify patterns, themes, and relationships within the data.

The Content analysis technique was selected because it provides a clear framework for analysing textual data. It is a systematic coding and categorising approach used for exploring large amounts of textual information unobtrusively to determine themes, trends, patterns of words used, their frequency, their relationships, and the structures and discourses of communication. It is particularly useful when dealing with large volumes of data and when researchers aim to generate both descriptive and inferential statistics from qualitative data. According to Bengtsson (2016), content analysis is suitable for various research purposes, including theory development, testing theoretical assumptions, and generating new insights from the data (Bengtsson, 2016:10).

It is concurred with Elo and Kyngäs, (2008:107) who suggest that content analysis is an effective, widely used method for analysing qualitative data that allows researchers to interpret and systematically analyse textual data. The text was broken down into manageable code categories, which was analysed to identify patterns and themes. This method allows for both manifest content (what the text directly says) and latent content (underlying meanings) to be analysed (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008:109). One of the key advantages of content analysis is its flexibility and versatility. It can be used for various types of data, including interviews, open-ended survey responses, documents and media. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) highlight that content analysis is adaptable to different research contexts and can be used to analyse both qualitative and quantitative data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005:1278).

Content analysis aims to provide a systematic and objective means of describing and quantifying phenomena. It allows researchers to analyse data in a way that maintains consistency and objectivity. Krippendorff (2018) points out that the systematic nature of content analysis enhances the reliability and validity of the research findings (Krippendorff, 2018: 24).

Content analysis helps in reducing the complexity of qualitative data by breaking it down into more manageable pieces. This reduction makes it easier to identify significant patterns and relationships within the data. Mayring (2000) explains that content analysis simplifies data by

categorising it into themes, which can then be quantitatively analysed if needed (Mayring, 2000:5).

This method is particularly useful for identifying trends, patterns, and relationships within qualitative data. By systematically coding the data, researchers can uncover recurring themes and insights that might not be immediately apparent. Schreier (2012) discusses how content analysis enables researchers to systematically identify and analyse themes within the data, providing a clear and detailed understanding of the subject under study (Schreier, 2012:58).

1.9 Limitations of the study

The unwillingness of staff, SAPS station commanders and CPF chairpersons to participate in the study was a limitation. The unwillingness of DoCS to avail the staff for the completion of the questionnaire and attendance of the focus group and access to records were further limitations. All CPFs are not equally computer literate which impacted their ability to respond to the call to complete the questionnaire.

Access to all 151 CPFs email addresses was a limitation and caused significant time delays to receive and respond to the survey. At the time of sending out the questionnaire, DoCS acknowledged only 82 CPFs as functional and provided only their email addresses.

The Provincial South African Police Commissioner was not asked to grant permission for the station commanders to complete the study and this severely limited their response.

The study was executed only in the Western Cape Province as this programme is unique to the Western Cape, which inevitably limits the generalisation of the study, but the change management principles remain the same.

1.10 Significance of the study

In terms of the research contribution, this study will make a contribution to address the problem and benefit public sector (government) Departments in understanding which key factors are required to implement and manage change in a Western Cape Government Department and to highlight the importance of employing the key factors of change management methodologies when change in the organisation is introduced to ensure change is effective, institutionalised and lasting.

This research will contribute toward the theoretical body of knowledge and enable the recommendation of policy guidelines for public sector (government) Departments to effect

strategic change management, to gain insight into the factors that influence change management and how to get key stakeholders, like employees and the CPFs, to cooperate in effecting the desired change.

1.11 Ethical considerations

Ethical clearance was obtained from the Ethics Committee of CPUT (see Appendix A). Written consent for conducting the study was obtained from the Head of DoCS in the Western Cape.

The research procedures were explained to participants so that they were informed about what to expect. Written consent for the quantitative segment of the study and verbal consent for the qualitative segment of the study was obtained prior to the commencement of administering the survey and FGD.

Participants were informed that they may withdraw from the research at any time and for any reason without suffering any prejudice. Participants were informed that their participation was purely voluntary. They were also assured that all information would remain confidential and anonymous. No harm would be caused to any participant.

1.12 Definition of terms

Epistemology
The philosophical study of the nature, origin, and limits of human knowledge.

Etymology
The study of the origin of words and the way in which their meanings have changed throughout history.

1.13 Chapter outline

This study comprises five chapters, a summary of which is presented below.

Chapter 1
This chapter introduces the research study. It describes the background of the organisation, the problem statement, research objectives and questions supported by a literature review and the purpose of the study. It provides an overview of the research design and methodology, research instruments, sample frame and sampling method, how the data were captured and analysed, the limitations of the study, the significance of the research and ethical considerations.

Chapter 2

This chapter provides the theoretical background in terms of the literature review and discusses the problem statement, the aim and objectives of the research, research questions and gaps identified.

The chapter highlights the critical factors required to influence effective change management interventions and explores change management models.

Chapter 3

This chapter discusses the research methodology employed in the study. The research design, research instruments, sample size and sampling methods, research participants and data collection are addressed. Ethical considerations, the significance of the research and its limitations conclude this chapter.

Chapter 4

This chapter presents the results of the study. It discussed the survey data capturing, analysis, and interpretation thereof as well as the FGD outcomes. The literature and results are compared to the experiences of participants. Answers to the research questions conclude the chapter.

Chapter 5

This chapter concludes the study. The research objectives and aims are revisited. It highlights the limitations of the study, outlines the implications of the research findings and makes recommendations to the organisation and for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 introduced the research study on the factors influencing institutionalisation of change management practice in a department of the Western Cape Government.

It describes the background of the organisation, the problem statement, research objectives and questions and the purpose of the study. It provides an overview of the research design and methodology, research instruments, sample frame and sampling method, how the data were captured and analysed, the limitations of the study, the significance of the research and ethical considerations.

This chapter provides the theoretical background in terms of the literature review and discusses the problem statement identified both in the real environment and literature.

The chapter looks at the gaps in the existing change management literature that relates to models of change management and highlights the critical factors required to influence effective change management interventions. The literature review provides some empirical insights.

2.2 Definitions for and concepts of change management

(Akinbode & Shuhumi, 2018:610) note that the word ‘change’ is omnipresent, but no specific definition can be attached to it. It is synonymous with “innovation, development, progress, improvement, evolution, adjustment, etc.”. It is better understood from the context where it is used.

Implementing change management is often a critical part of strategic management because it involves making significant changes to an organisation's structure, processes and culture in order to achieve strategic goals (Cameron & Green, 2019:61-63). Change management is thus strategic in nature and follows a structured approach (Tolero Solutions, 2020). It refers to significant, purposeful adjustments in an organisation’s approach, goals or processes to achieve better outcomes or adapt to new circumstances.

Strategic transformation is described by Bakari et al., (2017:55) as “a course of action by which groups single out a topic which requires evaluation for their limitations and may need a transformation to be assumed”. Strategic transformation can be linked to the research question "the key factors required to implement the management of change to institutionalise changes in a Western Cape Government Department" in several ways. Strategic transformation refers

to the process of redefining an organisation's strategic direction in response to changing internal and external conditions (Van der Heijden, 2014).

In the context of the research question, strategic transformation could involve redefining the Western Cape Department of Community Safety's strategic direction in response to changing internal and external conditions. For example, the Department might need to implement changes in response to changes in legislation, changing public needs or preferences, or shifts in government priorities. Implementing change management would be a critical component of this process, as it would help the Department to make the necessary changes to its structure, processes, and culture in order to achieve its strategic goals.

In the case of the Western Cape Government Department, these factors may include effective communication, leadership and commitment from senior management, employee engagement and participation, alignment of incentives and rewards with the desired changes, and a supportive organisational culture (Cameron & Green, 2019:61-63; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2013). By understanding the key factors required for successful change management, the Department could increase the likelihood of institutionalising changes and achieving its strategic goals.

In order to achieve transformational institutionalised change, the Western Cape Government Department may need to restructure its organisational structure, systems and processes, redefine its strategic direction and create a culture that supports change and innovation. The implementation of change management practices can help facilitate this transformation by providing a structured approach for managing change, identifying potential resistance to change, and ensuring that employees are engaged and supportive of the change process (Cameron & Green, 2019:61-63).

Kubíčková and Rais, (2012) describe transformation as a constant, vague and in part, erratic procedure that organisations deal with, coupled with fluctuations in the market but also with deviations inside the organisation. Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) recognise change as searching for ways to sustain and grow effectiveness, viability, efficiency and modernisation in the organisation. Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) argue that organisational transformation is linked with a noticeable transformation in the organisation in areas like “technology, organisational make up, schemes, plans as well as corporate culture” (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6).

Rehouma et al., (2020:612) identified system changes as one of seven types of changes, involving the change of operational methods of the organisation, e.g., technology. The system

change may mean upgrading or changing the computer systems of the organisation. In this study, a new computer-based application (system) was developed which staff had to implement and explain to external stakeholders such as the South African Police Service and the Community Policing Forums whilst internal departmental processes had to change to support the new way of work.

The objective of implementing the change was to 1) to increase the sustainability and functionality of CPFs, 2) to increase the effectiveness of CPFs by making sure structured monitoring or oversight of the policing function occurs, 3) to increase active citizenship and 4) to improve police answerability to local communities, 5) implement a structured safety partnership between DoCS and CPFs, 6) improve the Department's oversight role and 6) the funding model and how the Department interacts with its key stakeholders.

Phillips & Klein, (2022:190) describe that change process models are used to explain what actions are required to accomplish the change and the sequential steps to facilitate the actions. Whereas frameworks potentially will put a name to the factors or theories necessary to launch change, models concentrate on the particular processes that give rise to change (Phillips & Klein, 2022:190).

Many aspects influencing the change process have been highlighted by several authors, namely, the prominence of leadership (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006; and Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:263), public managers and the background of an organisation (Meier & O'Toole, 2011; Sawitri & Wahyn, 2018) and willingness to the transformation process and the part managers play in guiding stakeholders' willingness to the transformation process (Kotter, 1999; Self, 2007; Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:261). Extant research mostly covers staff readiness in the private sector, but the public sector gets less attention (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:260).

There are different types of change with which organisations have to deal, for example, changes in the conditions of the market, workforce, demographics, diversity and technological innovations, an intensified customer and quality attentiveness, shortage of talent as well as economical changes (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6). Organisations are faced with many challenges to the slick execution of change. The challenges in change management encompass various managerial mistakes. For instance, inadequate planning for change is a common issue (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6), as well as the absence of training provided for employees in change management (Hiatt & Creasey, 2012; Kotter, 1996). Additionally, insufficient time for employees to adjust to implement the change can hinder the process (Kotter, 1996; Cameron & Green, 2019:61-63). Resistance from workers is another significant challenge (Hiatt & Creasey, 2012), often exacerbated by organisational factors such as a lack

of appropriate organisational culture (Cameron & Green, 2019:61-63), failure to implement inspections (Beer et al., 1990:158-166), and challenges in authenticating the chosen transformation method (Kotter, 1996). Numerous studies have found that most change processes are unsuccessful, underscoring the significance of addressing these challenges (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6).

When plans, strategy, management, or technological transformations take place, there will be consequences for individuals (Smith, 2017:23), procedures (Hamline, Ellinger & Jones., 2019), and how the organisation functions (Tidd & Bessant, 2020). Transformation management methodologies need to be in place (Smith, 2017:45) together with experienced resources providing and implementing methodologies (Johnson, 2020), ideologies, and procedures (Tidd & Bessant, 2020:320) to add to optimistic outcomes and lessen undesirable outcomes (Kumandang, Ruslaini, Santoso & Rizal, 2022:112). Bahner & Stroh (2004:180-191) similarly emphasise the need for a structured and consistent approach to transformation management, which involves the use of a uniform methodology. They argue that this helps to ensure that all aspects of the change process are managed in a coordinated and effective manner, reducing the risk of undesirable outcomes.

Phillips & Klein, (2022:190) posit that it is crucial for process models to consider organisational directives and human dynamics as well as needs. Hence, the list of strategies considers organisational directives like creating a vision for the change in alignment with the organisation's mission and strategies regarding human dynamics and needs like listening to employees' concerns about the change.

According to Lueg and Vuori (2020:245-263), transformation management requires the use of appropriate methodologies and frameworks to guide the change process. They emphasise the importance of having experienced resources who can implement these methodologies effectively to achieve the desired outcomes.

Pettigrew & Tropp (2013) argue that transformational change requires a systematic approach that involves the use of a range of management methodologies, including strategic planning, organisational design, and change management. They also highlight the importance of having experienced resources who can apply these methodologies in a coordinated and effective manner.

Transformation is a complex process that involves multiple phases, requires a systematic approach and to manage (Cameron & Green, 2019:61-63), lead (Kotter, 1996), and achieve

change, a uniform methodology or course of action is required. Methodologies and activities ought to be adapted to suit the structural state of affairs (Tolero Solutions, 2020:1).

Organisational change seems to be a perpetual highlight of the public landscape (Schmidt et al., 2017:1541). Nevertheless, the domains of “management and organisational sciences and political and administrative sciences, have for a lengthy period seemed wide apart” (Schmidt et al., 2017:1541). The preciseness of transformation management in government organisations has garnered much attention in addition to the relevancy of understandings from the broad management literature (Schmidt et al., 2017:1541). Bettering the effectiveness and/or value of service delivery is usually the focus of literature on transformation management in government. Such ambitions can be motivated by both cutbacks and the hope to enhance services (Schmidt et al., 2017:1541).

Akinbode et al., (2018:613), found the success of transformation to be at the mercy of the leadership style of the leader. Through appropriate leadership style, change leaders would be able to influence and ultimately change the behaviours of employees, teams and the organisation at large (Akinbode et al., 2018:614). Several studies confirmed that 70% of change initiatives fail and are mainly ascribed to “leaders’ ineffectiveness in anchoring change programmes” (Akinbode & Shuhumi, 2018:609). Leaders have to act as role drivers as well as role models in any successful change programme (Akinbode et al., 2018:614). Leadership styles and leaders’ participation are determinants of success in organisational change programmes (Akinbode et al., 2018:614).

2.3 Preparing for change

Successful change management is the key to any organisation that wants to survive and succeed in today’s highly competitive environment (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:5). The same sentiment is held by Akinbode and Shuhumi, (2018:609), that organisations failing to respond to change will surely cease to exist.

2.3.1 Rationale for and predicting the need for organisational change and planning

Change, and ultimately a company’s future, does not depend on its technical capability, present price construction, or even its existing location or merchandise offering but solely on its individuals (Morgan, 1921:17). An organisation’s most valuable resources are its staff and their knowledge, and this knowledge is the one thing that “will give us an understanding into change and the consequences of change” (Morgan, 1921:17).

“There are many ways to manage change, most prominently, learning to manage technology” (Morgan, 1921:133). According to Morgan (1921:133-134), an organisation is an engine to maximise human resources. The benefits of good organisational change are 1) to operate more effectively, 2) to achieve balanced growth, 3) to keep up with the times and, 4) to be more flexible (Morgan, 1921:135-149). However, for these benefits to materialise a few key factors to implementing and managing change are critical. When an organisation is changed, the aim of the change should be for one or more of the four benefits listed above.

In what way does one forecast the necessity for a method change? There are no clear instructions on this but Morgan, (1921:102-103) suggests the following when a method change ought to be considered:

i. when expenses are increasing,
ii. when staff turnover rises significantly over a 12-month period,
iii. when mistakes surge or quality drops,
iv. when your technology, merchandise, or service changes significantly,
v. when you have not changed your procedures significantly in at least three years,
vi. when the competition changes its procedures,
vii. when two or more personnel propose the need for change in a similar area,
viii. when output drops,
ix. when business size drops, and
x. when revenues dip.

2.3.2 How to change it

Schmidt et al., (2017:1543) note that “what to be changed and why the changed is needed”, as well as the organisation’s strategies, systems and structure are important factors of the process.

Morgan (1921:155) advocates that when you are aware of what you need to change in an organisation, the next step is knowing how to change it. The following rules apply to making any change and are especially important for organisational change with its unusually strong cultural barriers to any shifts.

Table 2.1: Rules applicable to make any change

1. Explain why
2. Name the benefits that could result from the change
3. Seek questions and answer them
4. Invite participation
5. Avoid surprise
6. Acknowledge the rough spots
7. Set standards
8. Contact informal leaders
9. Praise. People in any new situation, but especially a reorganisation, are anxious.
10. Repeat, to put over something with the ramifications common to reorganisations, you must tell the story over and over, using fresh examples and different approaches.

Source: Morgan (1921:155)

2.4 Learning to manage technology

Rehouma et al. (2020:51) argue that the "digitalisation of public administrations is going through difficulties" in members of staff's embracing of IT. According to Rehouma, (2020:51), it poses a significant challenge for public administrations. Change management methods entrenched in involvement ought to assist to achieve approval and "success of IT projects in the public sector" (Rehouma, 2020:51). By enabling members of staff to actively participate in the change process by way of information sharing, schooling them and taking care of them has a momentous optimistic link to the way of thinking of members of staff about IT (Rehouma et al., 2020:51).

Most non-technical people reject the chance to "control and foster" technology. Some dread the responsibility and take a conventional, often protectionist position, during a flood of technological developments (Morgan, 1921:61). Crucial to an effective systems method (and to managing change of any kind) is a satisfactory flow of information. Information forms the basis of managing change as only with reliable facts can one forecast change, and thus successfully manage it (Morgan, 1921:101).

Henry M. Boettinger, director of management services for the American Telephone & Telegraph Company, believes that companies can with great leadership still make up for poor technology to some extent, and for poor leadership with great technology but to reach top performance, peaks are required in both the human and technical fields (Morgan, 1921:71).

The generalist manager is capable of humanising technology, thereby making it more applicable for ordinary individuals (Morgan, 1921:72).

2.5 Getting methods changed

Typically, in medium or large businesses, the method that needs to change generally includes more than one Department. The expertise needed is often multifaceted, and special effort should be made to get it distributed and functional. Hence, team effort is required to guide the change, distribute it, and implement it (Morgan, 1921:105).

2.6 Employee involvement in information technology projects in state-run organisations

Involvement of members of staff is the main part of transformation management (Stolzenberg & Heberle, 2009). To realise lasting achievement, members of staff ought to be enthusiastically participating in IT developments (Rehouma et al., 2020:54). Furthermore Rehouma et al., (2020:54) draw attention to the main factors of transformation management, namely the improvement combined with the implementation of a vision, the exchange of ideas, involvement and prerequisites of members of staff whom the transformation affects (Rehouma et al., 2020:54). A significant gap in the literature was identified as being that in state-run organisations, the involvement of members of staff with respect to facts and the exchange of ideas, schooling coupled with reinforcement, energetic involvement in project groups, is crucial; the purpose of leaders is an important possible forecaster of government staff's favourable reception of IT, which ought to be examined deeply in investigations (Rehouma et al., 2020:54).

It is against this background that facts and exchange of ideas, specifically the effective discussions of concepts amongst supervisors and their staff, are required. Involvement in schooling actions should not be limited to participating in normal schooling courses; on the contrary, SOEs should offer staff the opportunity to participate in highly developed and tailored schooling courses. Members of staff should participate enthusiastically in project groups, convey the 'specific requirements of members of staff, experiment with the latest methods, and offer appropriate input on the presented system. As reported by Rehouma et al., (2020:54) a successful plan in transformation management is to notify possible users about the IT plans as well as share with them the advantages of the system. Schooling is an additional significant plan that aids in getting unwilling members of staff to approve of the latest system. Several

important drivers were identified to ensure information technology's (IT's) favourable reception and execution, namely the schooling of the respective user groups, practical training, making assistance available and enthusiastic involvement in the execution procedure (Rehouma et al., 2020:54).

Regarding the involvement of employees in the development process of projects, a variety of procedures can be applied (Rehouma et al., 2020:54). These procedures are categorised into three types. The first type is enthusiastic involvement, i.e. the participation of members of staff in project groups, and workshops as well as the feedback gathering of responses, for example, using surveys. The second type describes involvement as a helpful action, for instance, providing members of staff with a devoted special advocate that aids in identifying as well as solving problems. Lastly, the role of leading personnel, as managerial leaders have an exemplary function and should act as role models and advocate for change by applying management measures such as motivating employees for the changes and supporting them accordingly (Rehouma et al., 2020:54,55).

2.7 Readiness to change

Sawitri and Wahyuni (2018:259-267) consider readiness to change as an important factor driving the initiation of change. Several authors agree on the role leaders play in directing readiness to change (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:261). Leaders introduce useful changes but at the same time, conflict and confrontation are inevitable. Sawitri & Wahyuni, (2018:261) found that confrontation happens usually by the party that feels uncomfortable because they feel that their resources, expertise, and abilities cannot keep up with the goals of change. The role of the leader in readiness is to guide the understanding and belief of members that change is necessary.

Willingness to transform is an important factor because it impacts the result of transformations by advocating or opposing transformation (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:259).

Sawitri & Wahyuni, (2018:261) presented a model incorporating Lewin's 1947 model and Bandura's 1986 social learning theory, with a purpose to create a readiness for change, envisage adoption strategies and the institutionalisation of change.

Fundamental to the accomplishment of organisational transformation execution is a three-phase method—willingness, acceptance, and institutionalisation (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:261). Sawitri & Wahyuni, (2018:262) term willingness to transform the basis of an

extended method of transformation. Regarding the notion of the willingness to transform from the point of view of the philosophy that underlies it. Sawitri & Wahyn, (2018:262) explain that this method is in congruence with Lewin's theory on the "unfreezing process of change management". The liberating step is beginning to transform shared and specific behaviours. The willingness to accept a transformation programme is founded on this step. This theory confirms that stakeholders of the organisation are psychologically and substantially ready to face transformation (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:262). Those who are prepared for transformation will be invigorated, keen, and proactive, whereas those who are not prepared will be pessimistic, distrustful, and dead set against it (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:262-263).

2.8 Resistant members of staff

Resistant members of staff tend to neglect transformation programmes. Hence, it is essential to alert employees of the existing disadvantageous status quo. Without the gap being highlighted, the transformation will be futile because the urgency for the transformation is not clear. Obliviousness to the fact that transformation is required could threaten the organisation's competitiveness. It is essential to always share information with all stakeholders prior to transformation commencing so that the transformation is not unrelated. Relevant, comprehensive data ought to be provided to all stakeholders in support of the transformation as they may not automatically agree with the change programme (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:262).

Saunders et al., (2019:133) advocate that for a very long time, business and management scholars made the ontological assumption that opposition to change caused huge harm to organisations. They were of the view it was unprofessional conduct that occurred when change programmes failed. Therefore, they concentrated their research on how this situation could be done away with, classifying employees that in all probability would oppose change and the management actions that could ward off or nip opposition in the bud as a situation that occurs constantly whenever organisational change takes place, and that is to the advantage of organisations by attending to difficult aspects of change programmes. Their dissimilar ontological assumptions mean that they concentrate on by what method opposition to change can best be applied to profit organisations, as a substitute for ways to do away with opposition (Saunders et al., 2019:133).

2.9 Change management models/standards

Extensive literature exists on change management models as instruments to implement planned change. There are thus many theories on how to effect change. Several transformation standards were established to effect transformation management processes within businesses as well as government organisations. Transformation management procedures are divided into stages to facilitate validity and acceptability.

Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:169) argue that regardless of some variances in these models and frameworks, there are extraordinary parallels among them and empirical research in support of them.

Bakari et al. (2017:53-64) report that Lewin's model motivated many writers to proffer transformation management models, like the five-phase model of Judson (1991), the 10-phase method of Kanter et al. (1992), the eight-step model of Kotter (1996), the civil disobedience model of Hamel (2000), the seven-phase method of Luecke (2003), to name but a few.

Figure 2.1 below illustrates some prominent change management models, the steps each model advocates, and the differences and similarities of each.

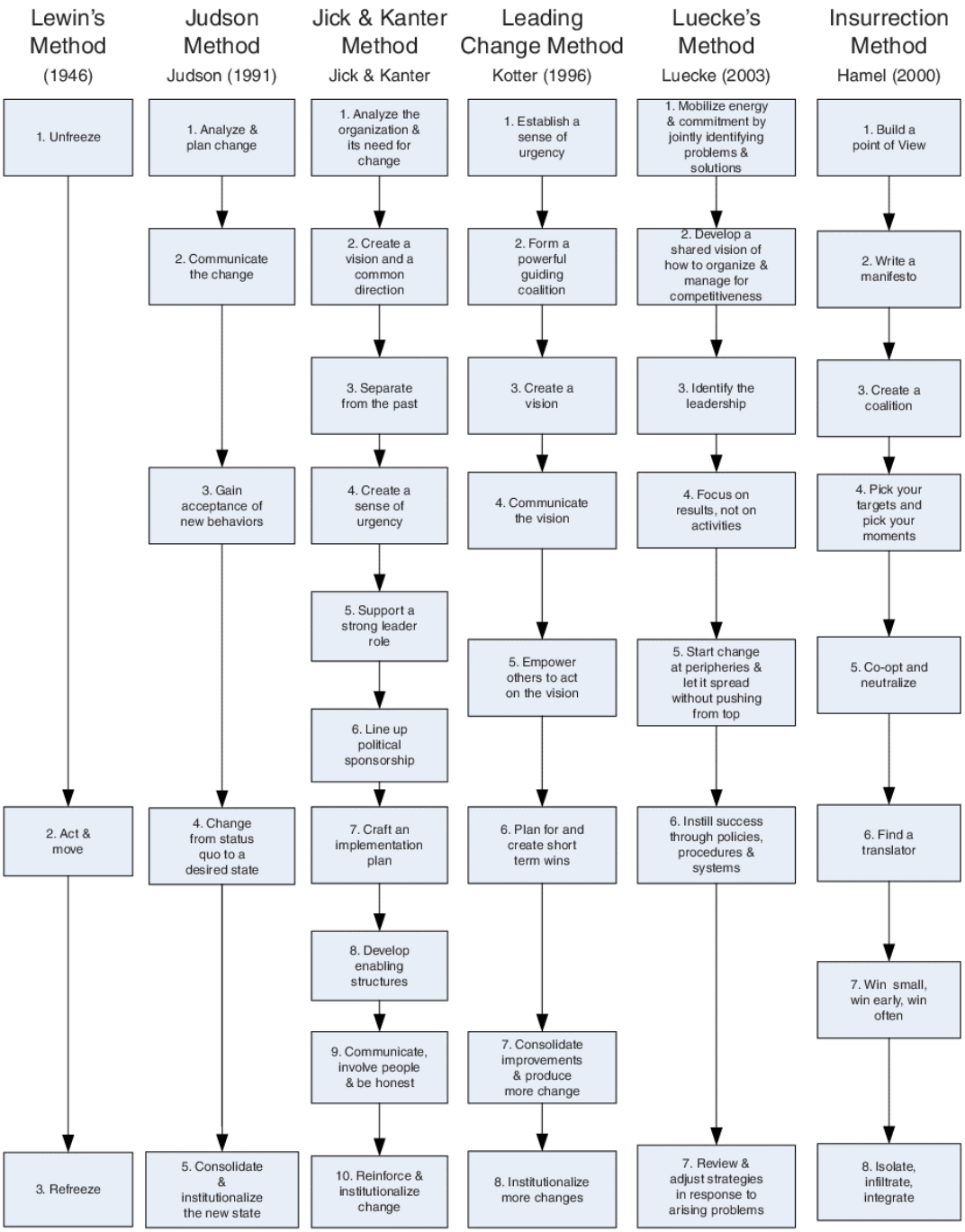

Figure 2.1: Some of the most prominent change management models

Source: Bakari et al. (2017)

The change management models of Kurt Lewin and John Kotter are discussed below.

2.9.1 Insights from the work of Kurt Lewin and the three phases of Lewin's change management model

The most widely used planning instrument is the three-phase model of psychologist and social scientist Kurt Lewin, launched in 1947. Lewin's first and foremost aim was to put an end to contradictions by changing conduct, irrespective of it being in a specific organisation or within the realm of the whole social order (Bakari et al., 2017:53-64). Lewin created four theories to reach his objective. Two theories, namely the "Field theory" and "Group dynamics theory" respond to issues associated with the creation of groupings, their driving forces, interrelationships, and preservation of permanent relations. The remaining two theories, the "Action Research" and the "Three-Phase model of Change" theory, advocate changing demeanours to deal with novel contests of organisational transformation (Bakari et al., 2017:53-64).

Lewin's three-phase model is well-regarded as it supports the integration of leadership as transformation managers who might make use of this method as an instrument to put transformation into effect. Furthermore, it strengthens the notion that the existing condition takes the central platform where opposing powers between managers and members of staff strive to work together as managers go all-out to break down the existing condition whilst members of staff try to uphold it. Lewin argues that transformation commences with what is called "Unfreezing" the existing condition of the organisation (Bakari et al., 2017:53-64).

Bakari et al. (2017:53-64) report that there are three phases for planned change identified by Kurt Lewin:

a) ''An unfreezing of old positions – breaking psychological attachment to the past''

b) ''A period of moving to a new stage – the creation of cognitive recognition''

c) ''A final period of refreezing in the new stage. After new values have been installed, cultural reinforcement is needed to stabilise the system''.

2.9.1.1 Phase one: Unfreezing

Lewin holds that 'unfreezing' is needed for group conduct to be transformed. The powers opposing transformation like individual resistance or group norms are to be let go of (Bakari et al., 2017:55). Lewin contends that before being taught innovative things, it is essential to disregard long-standing actions. Hence, it is essential to invalidate the current situation and generate a longing for transformation.

Bakari et al. (2017:53-64) describe Lewin's three-phase model as follows: During the first "unfreezing" phase, the toughened organisational and "behavioural structures" are "unfrozen" in addition to being groomed for an imminent transformation. Members of staff are brought up to date with intentional adjustments in existing procedures, organisational compositions as well as IT tools.

The intricacy of the environmental contests within public administrations need to be considered when managing the execution of the transformation. Contradictory issues regularly generate problems for transformation ventures (Rehouma et al., 2020:54). Rehouma et al., (2020:54) maintain that these complications have detrimental consequences for transformation management, which needs a shared determination and agreement amongst members of staff to be applied successfully.

One of Lewin's beliefs was that companies experienced a sense of being restrained in their current positions by the combination of two opposing forces—the driving organisational members who initiate and support organisational change, and the restraining forces (organisational members wanting to maintain equilibrium) that maintain the status quo. Lewin named this the "force field analysis model" and reasons that institutions more often than not find themselves in a situation of balance/stability (Bakari et al., 2017:53-64). This communal pressure sandwiched between opposing powers when evenly balanced holds institutions in a stable and unchanging state. Whenever one of the powers is stronger, instability is caused, the outcome of which is change. As soon as opposing powers are the same, a position of stability is reached again. Collective action is the result of these exchanges occurring in specific circumstances which Lewin labelled as "field". The "field" consists of a group of all mutually dependent and interrelated data existing in the status quo (Bakari et al., 53-64). The surroundings where opposing powers interact and influence the collective actions should be the focal point of the transformation managers as highlighted by Lewin.

For transformation to be incorporated by members of staff, the leadership is compelled to share all information on the necessity for transformation lessening refusal to accept transformation (Bakari et al., 2017:55) as well as creating backing for transformation (Bakari et al., 2017:55) in such a way that actions cannot be changed (Bakari et al., 2017:55) members of staff's actions are permanently transformed and thus ensuring organisations progressed from the former to the innovative sought after circumstances. Actions tend to remain unchanged because there are opposing powers that go all-out to uphold the existing state of affairs. As soon as opposing powers are evenly balanced there is stability. To change the existing state of affairs, the compelling powers ought to be greater than the opposing powers (Bakari et al., 2017:53-64). Thereafter, an innovative position of stability is reached again (Bakari et al.,

2017:53-64). This model validates the theory that the equilibrium is the central platform of opposing powers where leaders and employees work together as managers go all-out to change it and employees uphold the status quo. Lewin suggested that the transformation commences with the “unfreezing” of the existing circumstances of the organisation (Bakari et al., 2017:53-64).

There are two factors involved in the resistance to change. A big obstacle is the habits, customs and personal behaviour patterns gained over a long time (years). Many people resist change because it alters what they are accustomed to. The second obstacle, according to Lewin, is the inclination of individuals to return to familiar behavioural patterns. Therefore, Lewin states that if change merely lasts for a short period, individuals will possibly revert to their established practices. In this, Lewin believed that if the aforementioned three steps are followed it will lead to permanent and successful change (Leontiades, 1980:50).

2.9.1.2 Phase two: Moving to a new stage

The organisation evolves, commencing from its existing position to an anticipated changed condition during the second phase. This phase may result in reservations, anxieties as well as opposition from the implicated members of staff, which is why Lewin affirms the importance of the application of acceptive-improvement processes that must be furthered during this phase (Rehouma et al., 2020:54).

2.9.1.3 Phase three: Refreezing

The improved functional status is solidified or “frozen” in the third and last phase. Through process controlling methods, the target achievement of the change project must be evaluated.

Lewin laid the groundwork for future models, such as the 1995 eight-phase model of John P. Kotter and the five-phase model of Wilfried Krüger (Rehouma et al., 2020:54)).

It is a process by which new change behaviours learnt through disrupting the status quo and reinforcement drives get a new relatively permanent change in behaviours. In this final stage, change moves from an individual phenomenon to a group matter. Lewin suggests that routines and norms regarded by groups are supposed to be altered at this stage. Such behaviours are to be programmed in a manner that these become part of a set of new routines and stabilised free from fear of regression (Bakari et al., 2017:53-64). From an organisational perspective, refreezing means steadiness at the novel phase of balance that causes transformation in the organisational way of life and processes (Rehouma et al., 2020:54).

Opponents to Lewin’s method maintain that it presupposes that organisations function in unchanging circumstances and therefore it is more appropriate for minor or temporary projects

rather than for large organisations. Furthermore, it fails to adopt control over political views held in the organisations and it is a top-down approach that does not welcome feedback from the bottom (Bakari et al., 2017:53-64).

2.10 John Kotter's change management model

Kotter developed an eight-step model for successful organisational change management:

1. Establish a sense of urgency
2. Form a powerful guiding coalition
3. Develop a strategic vision and initiatives
4. Communicate the vision for buy-in
5. Empower others to act on the vision
6. Plan for and create short-term wins
7. Consolidate improvements and produce more change/ Sustain acceleration
8. Institutionalise more changes; anchor changes in corporate culture

Figure 2.2 below is a schematic layout of the differences and similarities between the models of Kotter (1995) and Lewin (1947).

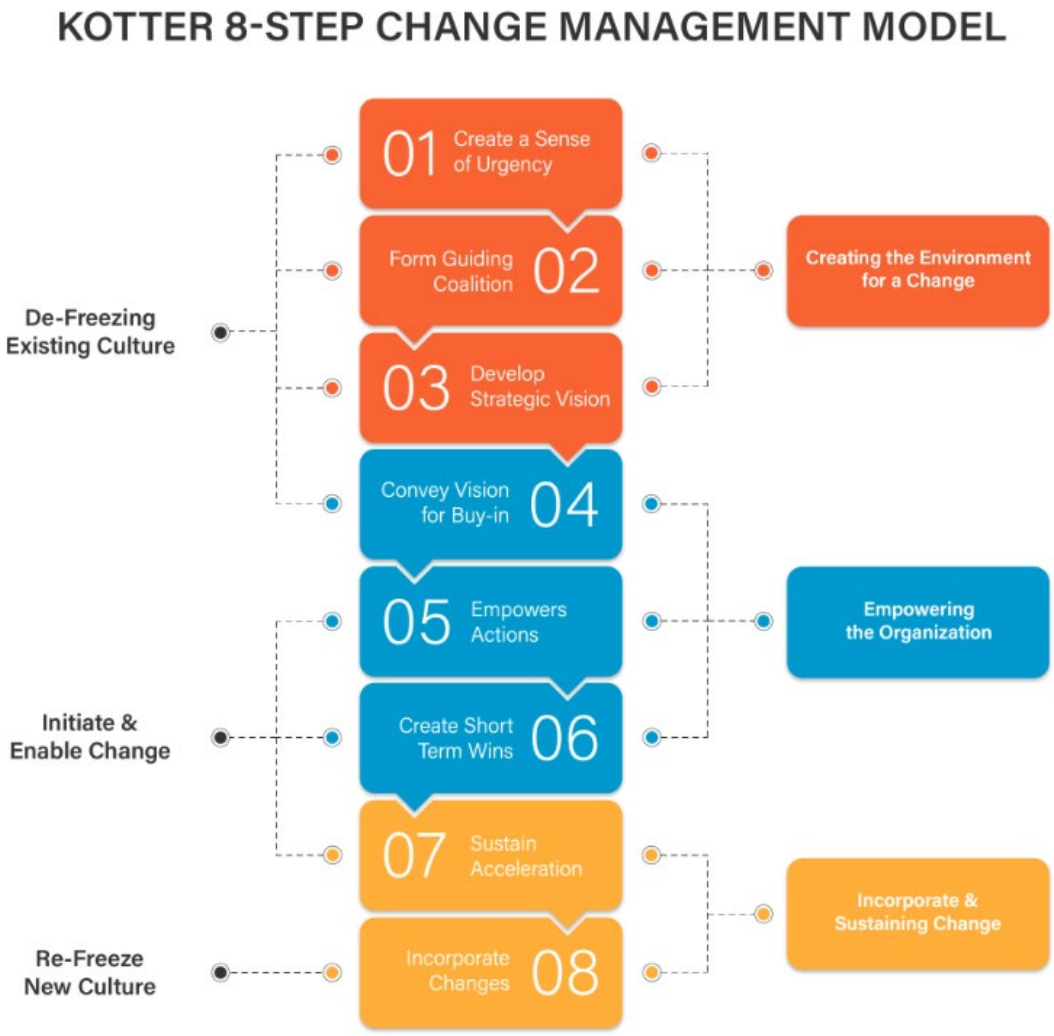

Figure 2.2: Differences and similarities between the models of Kotter (1995) and Lewin (1947).

Source: Periyasamy (2022)

One of the best-known and most widely applied examples of a change planning tool can be found in the eight-step change model of Professor John Kotter (Periyasamy, 2022:123-140). Kotter (2012:24) explains that the first four steps in the change procedure assist in unfreezing a toughened status quo. If the transformation process was easy, all that effort would not be required. Steps five to seven present numerous innovative practices. The last step lays the foundation of the transformations in the corporate culture and assists in institutionalising them and sustain it.

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:168-176) acknowledge that these eight steps can affect the result of transformation initiatives at diverse stages of the process during the management of

effective “organisational change in the public sector”. Regardless of experts who might view these steps and proposals as good judgement, numerous others point toward transformational managers who frequently disregard, skip, or undervalue them (Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:170).

The eight steps of the change management model are discussed next.

2.10.1 Step 1: Ensure the need for change and creating urgency

Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:5**)** argues that fundamental to every transformation is when frustration with the current manner of working is experienced. Therefore, organisations should think it over and contemplate if the change is really required. Numerous scholars agree that executive managers must make sure and convincingly share the necessity for change. Several authors by Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:168-176) recommend that this must be done through an ongoing progression of interchange with numerous interested parties as well as contestants. For instance, Fernandez and Rainey (2006:168-176), conclude that the successful implementation of new programmes depends on top management's ability to disseminate information about the change and convince employees of the urgency thereof. Hence, Schmidt et al., (2017:1546**)** highlight the importance of excellent communication to circumvent rumours or gossip around changes. It is a recognised requirement for successful implementation and members of staff will presumably abide by the change if the need is clarified (Schmidt et al., 2017:1543).

Once the challenge of understanding the urgency for the need to change is overcome, the second step is to decide on the required strategies. Meticulous preparation can avoid failure in change, remove unanticipated results like breaking staff morale, decrease dedication, and intensify pessimism. Additionally, preparation can provide an estimation of the kind of resistance to the change programme to devise the right introduction before it is rejected (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:262). Schmidt et al., (2017:1546) argue that to ensure support for the need to change it must be communicated why the change is inevitable. Fernandez and Rainey (2006:169-170) cite that researchers such as Abramson and Lawrence (2001), Harokopus (2001), Lambright (2001) and Rossotti (2005), have noted public sector leaders' efforts to take advantage of mandates, political windows of opportunity, and external influences to verify and communicate the need for change.

Several authors argue that transformation implementation failure is not anticipated when the organisation has schooled colleagues to deal with transformation (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:259). The leadership must substantiate in addition to convincingly convey the

transformation requirement. Following a line of investigation, it was pointed out that the execution of prearranged transformation necessitates that the leadership attest to the call for transformation and convince other members of the organisation and prominent external stakeholders that it is necessary (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169). Furthermore, several researchers (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169) correspondingly recorded governmental leaderships' endeavours to take benefit from terms of office, party-political windows of opportunity, and external influences to substantiate and convey the call for transformation.

Kotter (2012:4) states that the most significant oversight that occurs during the transformation processes of organisations is when change agents dive in without creating a strong awareness among other managers and employees of the necessity to change. This mistake is fatal because change will fail at all times in achieving the change objectives when self-righteous, egotism and complacency levels are elevated.

Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:169) argues that leaving out the preparative step in transformation can ruin the transformation plan. When the members of staff are deemed insignificant this step may be omitted. Frequently, comprehensive descriptions of the fundamentals of a transformation plan are provided with no explanation of the reasons as well as objectives of the transformation plan (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:259). However, the insight of members of staff is significant in creating a driving force for transformation (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:259). Preparing members of staff to cope with transformation will prevent implementation failure (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:259).

2.10.2 Step 2: Provide a plan for powerful guiding coalitions

Various authors recommend that the fresh vision be translated into a strategy consisting of the objectives and an action plan for realising it as convincing the members of an organisation of the need for change is obviously not enough to bring about actual change (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169). Several authors identified two pertinent aspects of an organisational change strategy for the public sector, namely the clearness or level of specificity of the strategy and the degree to which the strategy stands on sound causal theory (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169). The policy implementation analysts have over time highlighted the significance of clear, detailed policy objectives and logical causal thinking around the relationship flanked by the plan to be executed besides the anticipated results.

This policy functions as a plan of action for the organisation, proposing the way and by what method to reach the ideal result, acknowledging the stumbling blocks, and recommending actions to rise above those stumbling blocks. Kotter (1995, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169) clarifies that the essential components of the mental vision ought to be translated

into a well-thought-out policy to realise that mental picture or vision so that the transformation does not disintegrate into a set of unrelated and confusing directives and activities.

Explicit objectives help ensure that the measures implemented in the field correspond with the formal policy by limiting the ability of implementing officials to change the policy objectives and provide a standard of accountability. Policy ambiguity can sow confusion, allowing public managers to reinterpret the policy and implement it in a fashion that brings about few of the changes that policy makers intended (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:170).

Kotter and Cohen (2012:3) found that steering teams with the necessary “credibility, skills, connections, reputations and formal authority” to provide transformational leadership are established by more successful change agents whilst unsuccessful change agents depend on one individual or none, inadequate steering teams and committees or multifaceted governance structures, without the standing, skilfulness and authority to do the job. The remodelling process is cluttered with task teams inadequately prepared to produce the required change (Kotter & Cohen, 2012:3-4). In addition, Kotter (2012:6) confirms that attempts that lack enough persuasive guiding teams can make apparent progress for a brief time. A change in the organisational structure may occur, or a restructuring effort could be set in motion. However, inevitably counterbalance forces will subvert the initiatives. They prevent structural change from creating the behaviour change that is required.

Baker (2007:8-9) emphasises that whilst technology is a key driver for change, technological developments necessitate those organisations “need to respond to technology challenges such as increased automation of processes and systems, re-skilling staff and a whole range of other demands brought about by new or improved technology”. The researcher agrees with Baker (2007:11) that “technology should ideally be the enabler as much as the driver, and technology application will not be successful if it is not part of a broader strategic change management approach”. Baker further confirms that the potential of new technology applications is only fully realised if the organisation can embrace all the other changes – “in roles and responsibilities, hierarchies, networks, and even physical estate”.

Kotter (2012:11) confirms that complicated attempts in changing strategies or reengineering businesses risk losing drive or impetus if there are no short-term objectives to achieve and proclaim. Most employees will not journey on a lengthy process except if it can be seen within six to 18 months that the migration is generating anticipated outcomes. In the absence of short-term wins, disproportionate numbers of employees either quit or intently associate with those resisting.

2.10.3 Step 3: Develop a strategic vision, build internal support for change and overcome resistance

Kotter (1995, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169) notes that the process of convincing individuals of the need for change often begins with crafting a compelling vision for it. A vision presents an image of the future that is easy to communicate and that organisational members find appealing.

Kotter (2012:7-8) observed that “urgency” and a powerful leading team are required but these are not sufficient factors to achieve considerable change. A realistic vision is the most important factor that is without exception present in successful changes. A vision is key in creating advantageous transformation by assisting to manage, position and motivate achievements on behalf of significant numbers of people. In the absence of a suitable vision, a change endeavour can simply disintegrate into a list of perplexing, irreconcilable and time-consuming projects headed in the wrong direction or not going anywhere at all. Through observing the challenge of making changes, there are those people that attempt to control affairs silently in the background and deliberately steer clear of any public discussion of prospective direction. However, in the absence of a vision guiding the decision-making, the choices faced by the employees can disintegrate into an endless debate. The most minuscule decisions can give rise to heated disputes that deplete energy and tear down morale. Unimportant planned decisions tend to dominate discussions and squander valuable time.

Executive managers have to create support internally for transformation and overcome resistance through extensive involvement in the transformation process. Scholars of major organisational changes found that successful leaders understand that change comprises a political method of development and the development of support from the key stakeholders and organisational members. There are a variety of reasons why individuals in organisations resist change (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:170). An example of this is that there are ideas for change that are ill-conceived, unwarranted or present consequences that are detrimental to the members of the organisation.

Kotter (2012:9-10) notes that significant change is not possible unless of course most employees are in support and eager to assist, very often having to make short-term sacrifices.

Several scholars confirm that one of the most generally cited whys and wherefores for the failure of organisational change is employee resistance. There is the danger that personnel will revert to their old ways. Therefore, once the transformation is established, the solidification phase is vital, where organisations must go all-out to execute them organisation-wide (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:5).

Change may well necessitate that members of staff require training to acquire new skills and get acquainted with their new tasks (Schmidt et al., 2017:1544). Muluneh and Gedifew (2018:37) argue that communication should not only focus on creating an optimistic attitude and readiness among stakeholders but also equip workers with the essential competencies to do “adaptive work through change-oriented training”.

Rehouma et al., (2020:52), noted that one valuable way to guarantee the seal of approval for transformation in government Departments is to include members of staff in the transformation procedure. Including members of staff in IT plans would improve support, as officials directly have a say in the plans. The contribution, as well as participation of members of staff in the change procedure of IT plans, has been a well-known policy in the software industry for years. Rehouma et al., (2020:52) noted that it is against the background of user-centred design and consumer focussed commitment that plans are tailor-made to the conditions of the consumers, the outcome of which is advanced functioning, usefulness and benefits of software innovations and better reception and enthusiasm from members of staff. Methods like these can “increase approval of projected transformations as soon as possible” and put an end to uncertainties and fears. Rehouma et al., (2020:52) states that although quite a few participation possibilities and approaches to include members of staff in IT plans in government exist, such approaches are not yet completely applied in the public sector. Rehouma et al., (2020:52) found that end-user involvement in IT plans in government is dealt with haphazardly, lacking to background contemplations, with no guidelines or objectives.

Furthermore, Rehouma et al., (2020:52), argues that the creation of change management methods built on involvement in government Departments can end up a demanding task.

Rehouma et al., (2020:52-53) underlined the significance of decision-making participants in addition to the consideration of non-participants such as supervisors in the process. Rehouma et al. (2020:52) highlight that IT projects affect numerous other stakeholders other than those who contributed to the expansion process, like the future users, who possibly will not have the chance to take part in the process. Markus and Mao define stakeholders as “those on which the solution is to be expected to have an effect” and whose approval as well as usage of that solution may well be challenging, and consequently are the most likely contenders for taking part in the advancement of the solution, participants are the subsets of stakeholders who are actually given the chance to participate in solution development and implementation activities. In addition, Markus and Mao point out that it is crucial to examine the consequences of who the participants are in comparison to the population of the affected stakeholders.

For many years, social scientists have highlighted the significance of effectual and principled involvement, including additional ways of sustaining group and organisational transformation and decreasing opposition to change (Fernández and Rainey, 2006:170). Later, specialists looked at other methods to reduce opposition to transformation. Managers are able to make use of various methods as identified in Fernández & Rainey, (2006:170) to reduce opposition to transformation, incorporating warnings as well as force, denunciation, persuasion, incentives and compensation, negotiation and bartering, assurances in contradiction of individual damage (e.g. proposing work-related protection otherwise reskilling members of staff), mental care, involvement of members of staff, ceremonials including their endeavours to improve dependability, acknowledgement of the pertinence and authenticity of former ways, besides slow and amenable transformation execution. The tactics mentioned could decrease opposition to transformation (Fernández & Rainey, 2006:170). Wide-spread participation in the change process is perhaps the most frequently cited approach to overcoming resistance to change (Fernández and Rainey, 2006:172). The literature indicates that including members of staff in transformation efforts assists in reducing stumbling blocks through promoting mental ownership, disseminating essential facts, and urging responses from members of staff to tweak the transformation in the course of execution. In state-run organisations involvement offers exceptional possibilities. Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:170) emphasises, professional civil servants who are purportedly moved by risk avoidance and safety measures, use the regular top political renewal rate to their benefit through merely opposing ground-breaking inventiveness while waiting for a new administration to come into control. Nevertheless, their involvement in the phases of transformation can facilitate a reduction in this type of opposition. This is why Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:170) explains the importance of ongoing engagements with each stakeholder type.

Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) found that fear of the unknown was the main cause for members of staff to oppose transformation. Several writers (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:88) reveal that approximately 70% of transformation attempts do not succeed.

Employee opposition to organisational change is largely the cause of failed organisational transformation efforts (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:263). This sentiment is echoed by Kotter (2012:6) who states that restructuring can be destroyed through passive resistance from employees and managers. Quality programmes are converted into sources of bureaucracy rather than a satisfactory customer-centric approach. Irrespective of how efficient or committed the head of staff members may be, guiding teams in the absence of powerful line leadership hardly ever secures the power needed to overcome inactivity (Kotter 2012:6).

Several scholars (Fernandes & Rainy, 2006:169) highlight the requirement that managerial leaders must develop a strategy for implementing change as convincing the members of an organisation of the need for change is obviously not enough to bring about actual change.

Canada Life Assurance Company (2022) offers several strategies to care for all employees during change, one of which is to “celebrate or recognise the good work that was done under the old system”. They claim that this step is every so often “missed” in change management. To promote the change, bosses will occasionally “dismiss or minimise any successes of the past”. This possibly will result in long-term tenured employees feeling unacknowledged or discouraged. Acknowledging how they were able to achieve much under the preceding system seems to leave parties open to engaging in change.

2.10.4 Step 4: Communicate the vision and confirm senior management backing and dedication

Kotter (2012:9-10) noted that the hearts and minds of staff members will, in the absence of meaningful and trustworthy communication, not be conquered. Communication dialogue possibly will lessen resistance amongst involved stakeholders whilst fostering a positive attitude to accept the institutional transformation. A strong transformation-orientated communication system must be implemented.

Crucial to an effective systems method and to managing change of any kind is a satisfactory flow of information. Information forms the basis of managing change as only with sound facts can change be forecasted and successfully managed (Morgan, 1921:101). Similarly, Muluneh & Gedifew (2018:37) argue that communication reduces resistance, can sway staff to comprehend and support the change initiatives, and improves the execution of the transformation process.

Some authors found that Directors (managers) ought to undertake the part of sense makers by sharing with staff what the transformation intends and try to obtain their cooperation for those transformations (Neill, 2018:5). Managers can make the connotation clear “by connecting in words the fresh and the long-standing by revealing sections of overlay,” harmonising factors or even inspiring workers to discard “one set of routines for another” (Neill, 2018:5). Image management experts have a responsibility in these endeavours as they “write, edit, produce, and deliver a variety of sensemaking scripts” or important messages about the transformation (Neill, 2018:5). Berger and Meng add that members of staff unofficially will rationalise about the transformations and decide which arguments to agree with or discard, which method is called sense negotiating.

Justifying and backing the necessity for transformation is often supported by “sharing why transformation is unavoidable” (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:1546). Canada Life (2022) advocates that employers should be explicit about why and how the change will be executed. Employers are encouraged to communicate multiple facts regarding the projected timeline and phases of the transformation. Senior management backing and dedication to transformation plays a critical part in accomplishments (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169).

The encouragement for transformation in state-run organisations often requires both the collaboration of senior career civil servant leaders and politically appointed executives. Furthermore, state-run organisations contend with managerial incontinuity and instability whilst continuity and stability are needed, which raises particular difficulties in the public sector because of the recurring and rapid staff and executive renewal rate in government agencies compared to business executives. This may explain why many significant changes in government need to be or have been led by career civil servants (Fernandez & Rainey 2006:171).

Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:173) note that next to communication, participation of employees in the change process may help to create commitment to the change. This is more likely in emergent change processes since employees are inherently active participants in the change process. In a planned change approach, top-down communication is a more likely mechanism for creating support. Besides creating support for change, it can be advantageous for managers to involve employees in the change process because lower-level employees are viewed as being better informed, given that they are at the forefront of delivering public services (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173). If managers do involve employees, it is important to take this participation seriously and failure to do so may even be counterproductive, leading to a waste of resources and time, and declining morale.

Neill, (2018:6) found companies were not asking for responses from staff about the change. Neill, (2018:6) researched transformation in a government organisation and discovered numerous difficulties amongst middle and front-line managers, being that “facts were held back, altered, manoeuvred and unfairly delayed”.

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:169) argue that persuading human beings of the transformation requirement and attractiveness thereof kickstarts the procedure of "unfreezing" an organisation. Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:169) advocate for the commissioning of effectual printed and verbal communication as well as methods of dynamic members of staff contributions. Every single party needs to be certain about the category and effects of changes being presented in the organisation. A clear exchange of ideas lessens disagreement and

improves the change implementation process. Starting a resourceful communication system where ideas can be exchanged is an intense manner in which to confidently persuade staff to grasp the transformation programmes. The communication system should also support “frontline workers” with the essential expertise to do “adaptive work through change-oriented training”.

The cause for transformation should be led by an individual or group within the organisation (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169). Some studies of organisational change stress the importance of having a single change agent or "idea champion" leading the transformation. An idea champion is a highly respected individual who maintains momentum and commitment to change, often taking personal risks in the process (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:171). Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:171) asserts that one or two managers often launch organisational renewal efforts but "whenever some minimum mass is not achieved early in the effort, nothing much worthwhile happens".

The manager's role in clearly communicating change is critical because it determines the success of employee adaptation within the organisation. Sufficient change management communication will increase the level of employee adjustment but employee mechanisms in facilitating their adaptation in organisations are still unknown (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:261).

The value of organisational transformation communication speaks of the degree to which the organisation makes beneficial, methodical and appropriate data available to execute the transformation. The link between organisations and members of staff in the labour milieu inspires staff members to practise their best skills, knowledge and proficiency (Sawitri & Wahyuni, 2018:261). Members of staff become optimistic as managers lead them to the belief that they are capable to deal with the transformation.

2.10.5 Step 5: Build external support/remove obstacles/empower others to act on the vision

Executive managers have to create backing from the party-political heads along with important interested parties from outside the organisation. Within government Departments, organisational change is very much dependent on the extent of backing received from the party-political heads as well as additional crucially interested parties (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:172).

The impact of these actors on the outcome of change efforts stems in part from their ability to impose statutory changes and control the flow of vital resources to public organisations. Political overseers can influence the outcome of planned change by creating and conveying a vision that explains the need for change, as well as by selecting political appointees who are

sympathetic to the change and have the knowledge and skills required for managing the transformation. Public agencies often have multiple political masters pursuing different objectives, and politically appointed executives often have very weak relationships with career civil servants. Despite these challenges, public managers implementing change in their organisations must display skill in obtaining support from powerful external actors. Public policy scholars have observed the impact of support from political overseers or sovereigns on the outcome of policy implementation (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:172).

More recent studies of public sector reform have begun to stress the importance of external political support (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:172). Conversely, Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:172) also suggests that proceeding to implementation without garnering the support of interest groups can speed up the implementation process, albeit at the cost of dissatisfaction and criticism.

Fadzil et al., (2019:86) highlights that the biggest critical element determining successful organisational change is still resistance to change. Currently, the organisational change failure rate is 70% and above (Fadzil et al., 2019:86). Stumbling blocks are absence of a strategy, altering strategies and transformation exhaustion. Neill, (2018:1) report that 70% of change programmes grind to a halt and the reason is frequently ascribed to weak exchange of ideas that suggests that there might be a chance for public relations to play a role. Clear internal communication adds to staff members' confidence, loyalty and fulfilment and many authors agree that contentment with internal communication can influence staff members' engagement (Neill, 2018:2).

Several authors defined resistance to change as deeds that are determined to guard a person against the impacts of actual or imaginary change or any deed defending the status quo all through the force to change the status quo; they furthermore defined resistance as all staff actions that aim to disturb, confront or turn around existing traditions, dialogues and power relations, and actions shown by employees to reject the effect and control of their employers (Fadzil et al., 2019:86-95).

Wide-spread participation in the change process is perhaps the most frequently cited approach to overcoming resistance to change (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:170). The literature indicates that involving organisational members helps reduce barriers to change by creating psychological ownership, promoting the dissemination of critical information, and encouraging employee feedback for finetuning the change during implementation. Participation presents a particularly important contingency in the public sector. Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:170) asserts, career civil servants, who are allegedly motivated by caution and security, can use the

frequent turnover among top political appointees to their advantage by simply resisting new initiatives until a new administration comes into power. However, their participation in the stages of change can help reduce this kind of resistance. Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:170), for instance, recounts a continuous process of meetings with all types of stakeholders - frontline employees, union leaders, taxpayers and tax payer groups, managers, Treasury Department executives, members of Congress, and others (see also Denhardt & Denhardt, 1999 and Poister & Streib, 1999, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:170).

Employers should declare identified challenges to demonstrate to staff that their fears are understood, and that the employer is at work to create a constructive as possible experience (Tolero Solutions, 2020).

2.10.6 Step 6: Provide resources, plan for and create short-term wins

“Resources" is an essential element to improving government service areas and effect transformation (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:172).

Capital within acceptable limits is needed when supporting the development of successful change. In the literature, a consistent finding revealed that change is not cheap or without any trade-offs. Organisational change that is planned allows for the reorganisation of limited organisational resources directed to a variety of new activities, including the creation of new processes and practices, reformation and rearranging the organisation, and testing and experimenting with innovation (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:172). The lack of delivering adequate resources to support a prepared change leads to feeble implementation efforts, extreme levels of interpersonal stress and negligence of the core of the organisation’s activities and functions.

Planned organisational transformation includes a redistribution of organisational reserves in short supply, in the direction of a crowd of innovative actions, as well as designing a policy to put the transformation into action, convey the call for transformation, prepare employees, and experiment and carry out trials with modernisations (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006).

2.10.7 Step 7: Pursue comprehensive change and build on the changes

In Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:173), Judson (1991) strongly emphasises the need to collect data and monitor the implementation process to keep managers aware of the extent to which organisational members have adopted the change. Evaluation and monitoring efforts should continue even after the change is fully adopted to ensure that organisational members do not lapse into old patterns of behaviour.

Numerous researchers note that executive managers have to create a consolidative, wide-ranging method to change which would attain sub-system equivalence (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6). These researchers emphasise that for essential change in behaviour to happen, the leaders must embark on implementing systemic changes to the subsystems of their organisation, in alignment with the anticipated end state. Transforming only one or two subsystems will not produce adequate energy to create organisational change.

Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) forewarned that executing manifold changes with no understanding of the "structure and nature of the interconnections among subsystems" can end in extra expenses, besides an extended projected execution period. These lines of reasoning are also supported in public sector research. For instance, Shareef (1994, cited by Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6) discovered that making an effort to put participative principles into practice in the U.S. Postal Service was less satisfactory than expected since management did not change organisational "subsystems" to achieve the anticipated cultural change. Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) underscored the unproductiveness of making an effort to change attitudes and behaviours in the direction of improved collaboration along with involvement assuming that the organisational composition continues stringently ranked besides not opposing a team inclination (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017). Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) suggest that subsystem equivalence could probably be more problematic to accomplish in the public than in the private sector because "change agents in the public sector exercise less discretion than their private sector counterparts".

Several authors agree that decisive managerial action is seen as a driver of transformation (Kotter, 1996; Meier & O'Toole, 2011, cited by Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6) and Pollitt and Bouckaert (2011, cited by Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6) agree that managers act as transformation agents. As Fernandez and Rainey (2006:168) observe, public sector research bears witness to the significant role of public managers in organisational change.

Internal challenges to change may exist, for example, inadequate resources, competence, timing, as well as experience or information., and in the change-resistance standards, convictions and rationale of the corporate members. If the main parties involved in the present state of affairs are authoritative too, the unpredictability of change will probably not be easily accepted (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6).

The data are mixed concerning the ideal rate for institutionalising change. To build momentum and demonstrate the benefits of transformation, some professionals emphasise the necessity to implement transformation progressively or incrementally on a small scale (Greiner, 1967; Rainey & Rainey, 1986; Cohen & Eimicke, 1994; Kotter, 1995, cited by Fernandez & Rainey,

2006:172). Others argue that a rapid pace of change can probably overcome apathy and opposition (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173). Small-scale or gradual implementation, however, may pose more of a challenge in the public sector than in business because frequent changes in the political leadership and short tenures for political appointees can cause commitment for change to wane (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173).

2.10.8 Step 8: Institutionalise change/anchor the change in corporate culture

Kotter (2012:14) confirms that change is only anchored in corporate culture if it becomes the "way we do things around here" or institutionalised, when it becomes part of the "bloodstream" of the organisation. The researcher agrees with Kotter's (2012:14) observation that until innovative actions are entrenched in "social norms and shared values", they are continuously at risk of being degraded when the pressures affiliated with a transformation effort are removed. There are two important aspects in making fresh approaches stick in organisational culture: one is a mindful effort to demonstrate to people how precise actions and attitudes have aided in improvement of functioning.

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:173) emphasise that both managers and employees must effectively institutionalise and entrench changes. To make the change permanent, members of the organisation must incorporate the new policies or innovations into their daily routines. Virtually all organisational changes involve changes in the behaviour of staff. Employees must learn and make these behaviours routine in the short term, and leaders must institutionalise them over the long term so that new patterns of behaviour displace old ones (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:172-173). Armenakis et al. (1999, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173) have developed a model for reinforcing and institutionalising change. According to the model, leaders can modify formal structures, procedures, and human resource management practices, employ rites and ceremonies, diffuse the innovation through trial runs and pilot projects, collect data to track the progress of and commitment to change, and engage employees in active participation tactics that foster "learning by doing" (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:172-173).

Several authors concur that managerial leaders must develop an integrative and comprehensive approach to change that achieves subsystem congruence (Mohrman & Lawler, 1983; Tichy, 1983, Nadler & Nadler, 1998; Meyers & Dillon, 1999, cited by Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6).

2.11 Gaps identified in the literature

Rehouma et al., (2020:54) found that whilst Kotter's eight-step method for making key transformations is acknowledged as a transformation management method, thus far there are limited reports in the theoretical writings that examine how this method was carried out in reality. This study therefore will examine the key factors used to institutionalise sustainable change.

Involvement in connection with "information and communication, training and support, active participation in project groups, formal participation of the staff council as well as the role of managers" in the public sector were conveyed as significant probable forecasters of government employees' reception of IT change that ought to be examined in more depth in future research (Rehouma et al., 2020:54). Hence key factors such as communication and training will be examined amongst others.

The literature reveals that there is no preference or specific change model used in the public sector. Hence the most well-known and widely used change planning tools were discussed in more detail.

2.12 Conclusion

"Technology has the power to revolutionise the way an organisation does business, such as by increasing productivity or reducing the workforce" (Baker, 2007:9). "Any change in an organisation or to an employee's role has the potential to cause stress. The stress can be overwhelming when an employee is also dealing with mental health issues" (Canada Life Assurance Company, 2022).

Kotter (2012:9-10) notes that significant change is not possible unless most employees are in support and eager to assist, very often having to make short-term sacrifices.

The research topic is important to the discipline as it could confirm the validity of Kotter's 8-step change model as key factors even in a governmental setting when looking at the key factors advocated by the model to implement change management to institutionalise lasting changes. The EPP may be used as a blueprint to be implemented across the rest of South Africa and hence the lessons to be learned in terms of how to best manage this change in all other provinces will be available for all. However, one would need to understand the key factors that are required to successfully implement and institutionalise lasting and sustainable change. For any organisation, including a government Department, to affect lasting change, attention

should be given to these phases of the change management process. After extensive research across 130 organisations, Kotter and Cohen (2002:2) found that the predominant challenge throughout the eight stages in the change process is to transform how people behave; not the "culture, systems or strategy, but what people do and the need for significant shifts in what people do".

Kotter (2012:9-10) notes that no person is willing to make sacrifices, despite being unhappy with the status quo, unless the person feels that there are potential benefits of change and it is appealing, and they see and believe that transformation is attainable.

Tolero Solutions (2020) note that when change management is implemented successfully, the following can be achieved: least resistance, augmented engagements, better performance, a reduction in cost and improved innovation.

The next chapter discusses the methodology applied in this study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2 the literature was reviewed in terms of the key change management concepts, rationale for and predicting the need for organisational change and planning, readiness to change, resistance to change, employee involvement in information technology projects in state-run organisations, change management models and key factors influencing the institutionalisation of change management practice in a department of the Western Cape Government.

This chapter addresses the research methodology applied in the study. It discusses the philosophy followed, the research instruments used, sampling methods, the data collection process followed and how the data were analysed. The data collection instruments are a standardised questionnaire that was distributed via the electronic platform Survey Monkey, and a FGD was conducted. The chapter also addresses data verification and validation for choosing the specific methodology. Ethical considerations, the significance of the research and its limitations conclude this chapter.

Goundar (2012:12) defines research methodology as “a collective term for the structured process of conducting research”. Different types of research require different types of methodologies. Research methodology comprises the design choice, data collection and analysis (Gounda,r 2012:12) and pursues answers as to why a research study was conducted (rationale) (Goundar, 2012:12), how the research problem is defined, and how and why the working assumption was conveyed (Goundar, 2012:12) (the philosophical assumptions a specific study is based on), what data were collected (Goundar, 2012:12), what methods were implemented and why a specific technique of data analysis was deployed.(Goundar, 2012:12) Research methodology refers to the rationale and the researcher’s ontological and epistemological views (Goundar 2012:12).

Research methodologies can be classified as quantitative (Goundar 2012:16) (for instance, calculating the number of times research participants action something under specific circumstances (Goundar 2012:16) or qualitative (for instance, inquiring about research participants’ impressions of a specific state of affairs) (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Myers, 2009, cited by Goundar, 2012:16). Several authors (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Myers, 2009, cited by Goundar, 2012:16) highlighted that qualitative research is “an in-depth study of research issues or social and cultural phenomena and focuses on text whereas quantitative research investigates general trends across a population and focuses on numbers” (Goundar

2012:16). Similarly, Goundar, (2012:16) argues that quantitative design “provides broad understanding of issues under investigation” (Goundar 2012:16).

Goundar (2012:7) states that quantitative research is more appropriate to determine the extent of a problem, issue, or phenomenon by quantifying the variation, whilst qualitative research is more appropriate to explore the nature of a problem, issue, or phenomenon without it being quantified.

Preferably, an all-inclusive study ought to seek to integrate both qualitative and quantitative methodologies (Gounder, 2012:7). However, this is not always possible, usually due to time and financial constraints. Research methodologies are generally used in academic research to test working assumptions or theories (Goundar, 2012:7). A good design should ensure the research is valid, that it clearly tests the working assumption and not extraneous variables, and that the research is reliable, and yields consistent results every time (Goundar, 2012:7).

The integration of qualitative and quantitative methodologies is becoming increasingly popular in social research, as it allows researchers to gain a more comprehensive understanding of complex social phenomena. Here is some academic supporting literature for the statement "Preferably, an all-inclusive study ought to seek to integrate both qualitative and quantitative methodologies":

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010:3) argue that "the integration of qualitative and quantitative research methods has become increasingly necessary to address the complexity of social research questions". They suggest that combining both methods can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the research question and help to overcome the limitations of each approach when used in isolation.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2017:3) advocate for the use of mixed methods research, which integrates both qualitative and quantitative methods. They argue that mixed methods research "provides a way to complement the strengths of one method with the strengths of the other, and to compensate for the limitations of one method with the limitations of the other".

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:18) suggest that the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods can enhance the credibility and validity of research findings, as it allows for triangulation and corroboration of results. They argue that "the complementary nature of qualitative and quantitative methods can enhance the validity and credibility of the findings by using both types of data to verify or refute the other".

Morse (2015:7) suggests that integrating both qualitative and quantitative methods can lead to more meaningful and impactful research findings, as it allows for a more comprehensive understanding of the research question. She argues that "a mixed methods approach offers a way to generate more meaningful findings by capitalising on the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods".

In conclusion, the integration of qualitative and quantitative methodologies is increasingly seen as a valuable approach to social research, as it can provide a more comprehensive understanding of complex social phenomena and enhance the credibility and validity of research findings.

3.2 Research philosophy

A variety of theories are used by researchers to investigate and simplify the reality. Researchers' work is based on their ontological and epistemological positions. The position the researcher takes determines the methodology and approach to follow. Often the researcher's views about the world determine the positions they take (Gupta & Awasthy, 2015:5).

According to Burrell and Morgan (2016, cited by Palagolla, 2016:1), the term **'**research philosophy' refers to a "set of principles or organised scheme or system of convictions and assumptions about the growth of expertise or understanding. Regardless of researchers' awareness level of the principles or not, at every phase in the research process a number of types of personal assumptions are made" (Palagolla, 2016:1). These comprise of assumptions about the real world or truths that the researcher experience in conducting research (ontological assumptions), about anthropological expertise or understanding (epistemological assumptions), and about the scope and manner in which the researcher's intrinsic values affect the research process (axiological assumptions).

Saunders et al., (2019:130-131) avers that these assumptions unavoidably construct how the research questions are perceived, the methods utilised and how the findings are described or construed. It is further stated that a meticulous and logical set of assumptions will aggregate a reliable, valid or credible research philosophy, which will establish the "methodological choice, research strategy, data collection techniques and analysis procedures" Saunders et al (2019:130-131).

The research philosophy was pragmatic as it was a combination of both objectivist and constructivist ontological assumptions following a mixed method.

Ontology and Epistemology of Pragmatism

Ontology and epistemology are two key areas of philosophy that help us to understand the nature of reality and how we come to know things. Ontological assumptions are fundamental beliefs about the nature of reality and how we come to know things and what counts as knowledge.

Pragmatism is a philosophical approach that has its roots in the work of Charles Sanders Peirce, William James and John Dewey, and it offers a distinctive view of ontology and epistemology. They argue that pragmatism is an ontological and epistemological assumption that emphasises the practical value of ideas and the importance of context in shaping knowledge. Pragmatism collapses the boundaries between epistemology and ontology, emphasising practical engagement, context, and the interconnectedness of knowledge and reality.

There are two main ontological assumptions: objectivism and constructivism. Objectivism assumes that there is a single, objective reality that exists independently of our perceptions and interpretations. Reality is seen as external to the knower, and knowledge is discovered through objective observation and measurement (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Constructivism assumes that knowledge is constructed by individuals and shaped by their subjective experiences and interpretations of reality. Reality is seen as socially constructed and subjective, and knowledge is created through interaction and negotiation with others (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Pragmatism's ontological assumptions align more closely with constructivism than with objectivism. Pragmatism assumes that reality is constructed through our experiences and interpretations of it, and that knowledge is created through interaction and negotiation with others in specific contexts. Reality is seen as dynamic and evolving, and knowledge is created through interaction and negotiation with others in specific contexts (Creswell & Creswell, 2017:35-36). This view of reality and knowledge is more fluid and dynamic than the view assumed by objectivism.

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The ontology of pragmatism refers to the study of the nature of reality and what exists in the world. According to pragmatism, reality is not fixed and immutable, but is constantly evolving and is shaped by human experience and interaction with the world. This view is known as process ontology, which holds that reality is not composed of fixed objects or entities, but of processes that are constantly in flux and interdependent (Rescher, 1996).

John Dewey, one of the key figures of pragmatism, developed a concept of "transactional ontology" which posits that reality is constituted by ongoing transactions between an organism and its environment (Dewey, 1958). Dewey argued that we can only understand the nature of things by considering their interactions with other things in the world. He viewed the world as an ever-changing and interconnected system, where everything is in constant flux and interaction.

The ontology and epistemology of pragmatism emphasise the dynamic and contingent nature of reality and knowledge, and the importance of practical action and problem-solving in shaping both. Pragmatism offers a distinctive view of ontology that sees reality as a process of ongoing interaction and flux. Similarly, its epistemology emphasises the practical consequences of ideas and actions and rejects the idea of absolute truth in favour of a more provisional and pragmatic approach to knowledge acquisition.

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The epistemology of pragmatism is concerned with how we come to know things. Pragmatism offers a distinctive view of epistemology that emphasises the practical consequences of ideas and actions, rather than their abstract or theoretical qualities.

Pragmatists reject the idea of absolute truth and instead argue that knowledge is always provisional, subject to revision and refinement based on new experiences and evidence. According to William James, "truth happens to an idea. It becomes true, is made true by events" (James, 1907). In other words, what counts as knowledge depends on the practical consequences of our ideas and actions. If an idea or belief helps us to achieve our goals and solve our problems, then it is true for us.

Pragmatism also emphasises the importance of practical action in shaping both reality and knowledge. John Dewey argued that knowledge is not a passive reflection of reality, but an active process of inquiry and problem-solving. He believed that knowledge is best acquired through experimentation and practical problem-solving, rather than through abstract theorising.

Pragmatism is an ontological and epistemological approach that emphasises the practical value of ideas and the importance of context in shaping knowledge. Pragmatism's ontological assumptions align more closely with constructivism than with objectivism. Epistemology is concerned with how we come to know things and what counts as knowledge. Burrell and Morgan (2016, cited by Saunders et al., 2019:134) explain that epistemology refers to assumptions about understanding, what adds up to admissible, justifiable, and legal or recognised understanding, and the way we can communicate understanding or expertise to others. The diverse types of understanding or expertise may be presented in the form of statistical or arithmetical, descriptive, or narrative and imaged data, facts, points of view and descriptions and stories. Crotty (1998, cited by Saunders et al., 2019:145) argues that epistemologically the target is on finding detectable and quantitative data and consistencies, and only phenomena that are detectable and measurable would result in the formulation of valid and useful facts. The researcher will search for one thing causing the other in the data to generate law-like abstractions (generalisations) like those produced by scientists. These general regulations and precepts are used to assist in explaining and predicting conduct and occurrences in organisations (Saunders et al., 2019:145).

Pragmatism offers a distinctive view of epistemology that emphasises the practical consequences of ideas and actions, rather than their abstract or theoretical qualities. Pragmatists reject the idea of absolute truth and instead argue that knowledge is always provisional, subject to revision and refinement based on new experiences and evidence. According to William James, "truth happens to an idea. It becomes true, is made true by events" (James,1907). In other words, what counts as knowledge depends on the practical consequences of our ideas and actions. If an idea or belief helps us to achieve our goals and solve our problems, then it is true for us.

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Conclusion

Dudovskiy (2018) argues that studies with a pragmatism research philosophy can combine various research approaches, strategies and methods such as qualitative, quantitative and action research methods. Pragmatics can integrate both, positivist and interpretivist positions and research strategies within the scope of a single research according to the nature of the research question (Dudovskiy, 2018). A pragmatism research philosophy "recognises that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research, that no single point of view can ever give the entire picture and that there may be multiple realities" (Dudovskiy, 2018). In addition, the research question is the most significant determining factor of the research philosophy.

This study utilised a mixed method to answer the research question.

Gupta and Awasthy (2015:7) add that "ontological assumptions are concerned with what constitutes reality". Researchers therefore must "take a position regarding their perceptions of how things really are and how things really work". The ontological approach to this problem is being objectivist and constructivist. This objectivist approach advocates those quantitative methods in the form of numbers through measurable data used, such as standardised questionnaires as these can be described as unbiased, and the outcomes are "generalisable and replicable" (Gupta & Awasthy, 2015:7). However, they will also be less likely to offer a rich and complex view of organisational realities, account for the differences in individual contexts and experiences or, perhaps, propose a radically new understanding of the world than if you based your research on a different view of knowledge that is 'multi-method' (Saunders et al., 2007).

Sinha et al. (2018:366) opine that a multi-method approach enables flexibility and emergence of multiple data sets, which are then analysed using qualitative or quantitative techniques, depending on the validity and usefulness of the data set.

A quantitative method (questionnaires/survey) was used as a research tool. As Saunders et al. (2019:134) confirm, quantitative "research findings are likely to be considered objective and generalisable. Gupta and Awasthy (2015:6) state that epistemology "is the theory of

knowledge". A qualitative method (FGD) was used as the second research tool, as this provided more insight into the research question.

Quantitative data obtained were captured and analysed and statistical methods were used to translate data into graphs and tables and narratives were written after deductions were made from the graphs. The research is based on testing the theory of the 8-step change model of well-known Harvard Business School Professor John Kotter as the key factors required to implement change management to institutionalise changes in a Western Cape Government Department.

Gupta and Awasthy (2015:7) explain that the "research methods need to explore individual understandings and subjective experiences of the world." Unlike positivists, they look at understanding social behaviour rather than explaining it and focussing on its meaning and usually employ qualitative research methods. Gupta and Awasthy (2015:8) state "it is important to note that for analysing and interpreting the social reality, one must take an interpretivist or constructivist subjective position".

Gupta and Awasthy (2015:9) aver that "the subjectivist position focuses on capturing the meaning or a distinct subject, that is, an individual: how this subject constructs, interacts with and gives meaning to his world". Research with a constructivist approach attempts to give words to experiences rather than choose from the category. A constructivist perspective sees the world as constructed, interpreted, and experienced by people in their interactions with each other and with wider social systems.

Gupta and Awasthy (2015:14) summarise by stating that "an interpretivist or constructivist, through the use of qualitative methods (interviews, focus groups and other qualitative methods to get an in-depth insight into a field) seeks to gain all the knowledge that one can have about the world that is only socially constructed".

Qualitative data obtained were captured and analysed and coded verbally to triangulate the interpretation of the quantitative data.

Burrell and Morgan (2016, cited by Saunders et al., 2019:134) explain that epistemology refers to assumptions about understanding, what adds up to admissible, justifiable, and legal or recognised understanding, and the way we can communicate understanding or expertise to others. The diverse types of understanding or expertise may be presented in the form of statistical or arithmetical, descriptive, or narrative and imaged data, facts, points of view and descriptions and stories.

Crotty (1998, cited by Saunders et al., 2019:145) argues that epistemologically the target is on finding detectable and quantitative data and consistencies, and only phenomena that are detectable and measurable would result in the formulation of valid and useful facts. The researcher will search for one thing causing the other in the data to generate law-like abstractions (generalisations) like those produced by scientists. These general regulations and precepts are used to assist in explaining and predicting conduct and occurrences in organisations (Saunders et al., 2019:145).

3.3 Approach to theory development

Mugobo (2021:4) opines that approaches to theory development started from the field of clear thinking. Thinking determines how humans react to circumstances in all facets of their lives. Clear thinking can be segregated into deductive, inductive, and abductive thinking (Mugobo, 2021:4).

The research approach to theory development followed was abductive (a combination of the deductive and inductive approaches) as a mixed-method approach was adopted. Part of the research approach was deductive as it was deduced from a theoretical framework and was quantitative. The other research approach was inductive (qualitative aspect) as it was qualitative.

The deductive and inductive approaches are two distinct research methodologies used in social science research. The deductive approach starts with a theory or hypothesis and then tests it using empirical data, while the inductive approach starts with observations and then develops theories based on those observations. In practice, these two approaches can be combined to create a more comprehensive research design. Here are some ways in which the results from the deductive and inductive approaches can be linked:

Triangulation involves using multiple methods or sources of data to corroborate research findings. This can involve using both deductive and inductive approaches to gather data and test hypotheses. For example, a researcher may use a deductive approach to test a theory and then use an inductive approach to collect qualitative data that supports or challenges the theory (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018:211-212).

Iterative process: The iterative process involves moving back and forth between deductive and inductive approaches, refining hypotheses and theories as new data is collected. For example, a researcher may use a deductive approach to test a theory, but if the results are inconclusive or unexpected, they may switch to an inductive approach to collect additional data and develop a more refined theory (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019:159-160).

Confirming or disconfirming hypotheses: The results of a deductive approach can be used to confirm or disconfirm hypotheses generated through an inductive approach. For example, a researcher may use an inductive approach to generate hypotheses based on qualitative data, and then use a deductive approach to test those hypotheses using quantitative data (Bryman, 2016:24-25).

The results from the deductive and inductive approaches can be linked through triangulation, an iterative process, or confirming or disconfirming hypotheses. By using both approaches in a complementary way, researchers can create a more robust and nuanced understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

Abductive thinking commences with the information of a “surprising fact” and then develops a logical theory by what means this could have transpired (Mugobo, 2021:22). This “surprising fact” is the result and not an assumption (Mugobo, 2021:22). Based on this result, a set of possible assumptions is resolved to describe/justify the result. It is deducible that, if a set of premises were true then the result will be true as a matter of course (Mugobo, 2021:22). Abductive thinking (reasoning) necessitates deciding what the most likely inference is that can be made from a set of surprising information (Mugob, 2021:22).

Mugobo (2021:22) suggests that deduction and induction complement abduction as the rationale for testing possible theories. He further explains that abductive thinking embodies a pragmatic philosophy for advancing the social sciences by methodologically linking both deductive and inductive approaches.

The inductive approach to theory development was followed with the FGD. It is the procedure followed by which general conclusions are drawn from individual occurrences or observations. The advantages of this approach are that it grants adjustability, attends closely to context, and reinforces the formation of new theories. It follows the qualitative/interpretivist or constructivist research philosophy (Mugobo, 2021:16).

Focus groups are a qualitative research method used to gather insights and opinions from a group of participants through guided discussions (Morgan, 1997; Krueger & Casey, 2014). Below is a brief overview of how the focus group was conducted.

During the planning phase the purpose and objectives of the focus group was clearly outlined and key topics or questions to be explored was identified. Participants were selected who represent the target population. Typically, a focus group includes 6-10 participants to ensure a diverse range of perspectives while keeping the discussion manageable.

In the preparation phase, a discussion guide was created with open-ended questions and prompts to steer the conversation and to ensures all relevant topics were covered. A MS Teams meeting was scheduled, which allowed the discussion to be voice recorded. The focus group session was started by introducing myself and explaining the purpose of the focus group, outlining the rules for the discussion, such as confidentiality, respect for different opinions, and the importance of everyone's participation. The discussion was guided by using the prepared questions and ensuring the conversation flows naturally, allowing participants to express their views freely. Quieter participants were encouraged to share their thoughts and manage dominant voices to maintain balance. Follow-up questions were asked to probe deeper into certain topics and clarify any ambiguous responses. This helps in obtaining richer, more detailed data. The discussion was audio recorded with the permission of participants to capture the discussion accurately. Notes were taken on key points.

The main points were briefly summarized and discussed to ensure understanding and participants were given a chance to add any final thoughts. Participants were thanked for their time and contributions. They were informed of the next steps and how the data will be used.

The discussion was transcribed from the recording to create a detailed written record of the conversation. The transcripts were reviewed to identify key themes, patterns, and insights. The Content analysis coding technique was used to categorise the data and draw meaningful conclusions. The findings were compiled into a report, highlighting the major insights and supporting them with direct quotes from participants.

A deductive approach was followed with the online survey conducted. A structured methodology to facilitate replication was followed to ensure reliability. The key factors influencing change management were operationalised in a way that enables the facts to be measured quantitatively (Mugobo, 2021:14). Furthermore, the concept of reductionism was used which holds that problems are better understood if they are reduced to the simplest possible factors (Mugobo, 2021:14). The benefit of deductive reasoning is that it allows for generalisation on the condition that a sufficient and representative sample is used to enable generalisation (Mugobo, 2021:14; Bryman, 2016). This reasoning is informed by the assumption that there is only one reality, which exists independently of our existence and can thus be objectively and independently observed and measured (Mugobo, 2021:4; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). It follows the scientific/quantitative constructivist research philosophy (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Deductive reasoning occurs when the outcome is derived logically from a set of theory-driven premises or working assumptions. Thus, the outcome is true when all the working assumptions are true (Mugobo, 2021:9; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008).

Methodological triangulation was used to process both primary and quantitative data collected Triangulation ensures a more robust and comprehensive understanding of research (Bhandari, 2023).

Several authors (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Patton, 2015; Morgan, 1997) agree that methodological triangulating quantitative data with qualitative data involves integrating both types of data to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem. This mixed-methods approach combines the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research, allowing for more robust, nuanced insights. A systematic approach was followed with the quantitative data:

Quantitative data were collected and analysed. This involved a survey. The analysis revealed patterns, trends, and relationships. Based on the quantitative findings, qualitative research (such as interviews, focus groups, or open-ended survey questions) was designed to explore and explain the reasons behind the observed patterns. This helps in understanding the context and the deeper meanings of the quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018:75-76).

Quantitative and qualitative data were collected by administer an online survey with closed ended (quantitative) questions and a FGD with open-ended questions (qualitative). Both data sets were analysed separately and then the findings were integrated. Points of convergence and divergence were looked for to gain a fuller picture. This approach called triangulation helps to cross-validate and corroborate the findings from different methods as advocated by Tashakkori and Teddlie, (2010:149-150).

The quantitative data was used as the primary source and the qualitative as a supplementary source to provide context to the numerical data.

As advocated by Plano Clark & Ivankova, (2016:124) the qualitative data provided contextual insights, explanations, insights, and depth to the quantitative findings, making the overall conclusions more robust and comprehensive.

Detailed Steps followed to Augment Quantitative Data with Qualitative Data:

1. Research questions were identified, and it was determined which aspects are best explored through quantitative methods and which through qualitative methods.

2. The study was designed with a quantitative and qualitative component. An instrument (survey) was developed whilst determining an adequate sample size to generalise the findings. The qualitative instrument (focus group discussion) was developed with the

plan for non-probabalistic purposive sampling to get in-depth insights from the sub-group identified through the quantitative data.

3. In the data collection phase both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Numerical data through the survey were collected whilst ensuring the data collection process is rigorous and standardised. Qualitative data through the FGD were collected whilst it was recorded and transcribed accurately for detailed analysis.

4. The data was thereafter analysed by making use of quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques. The quantitative analysis utilised statistical techniques to analyse the numerical data to identify significant patterns, trends, and relationships. The qualitative analysis utilised verbal coding techniques to analyse the textual data to identify thematic themes and patterns, (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014:69-87).

5. The findings from both data sets were compared or integrated to look for themes that emerge from the qualitative data that can explain the quantitative results. The qualitative data was used to build explanations for the quantitative findings, as advocated by Creswell, (2014:219-220).

6. The data was interpreted, and the research report compiled. The findings were presented in a way that integrates both data sets whilst highlighting how the qualitative data adds depth and context to the quantitative results.

7. Narrative and Visual Representation (like charts and tables) were used to illustrate the integrated findings, (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012:180-181).

3.4 Research design

The option decided on in terms of the path to theory development is vital as it assists in choosing the research design that will determine the data collection and analysis techniques (Mugobo, 2021:26). It will guide what kind of data will be collected, from where and how that data will be interpreted (Mugobo, 2021:26). Furthermore, it will assist in deciding which philosophies and methods will not work (Mugobo, 2021:26).

Vogt et al. (2012:3) argue that the research design is foundational as in the final analysis each item is derived from the design choice. The plan used to collect the data is called the design choice (Vogt et al, 2012:3-14). A combined research design was chosen following a mixed-methods approach that yielded both quantitative and qualitative data that was triangulated with secondary sources. Most importantly, it was motivated to elaborate, clarify, or build on findings from other methods (Vogt et al., 2012:14).

The quantitative method of data collection was a standardised survey via the electronic platform, Survey Monkey. Non-probabilistic purposive sampling (Taherdoost, 2016:18-27) was chosen to identify the 151 CPF chairpersons and 151 SAPS station commanders in the Western Cape Province, as well as 290 staff members in DoCS. In addition, a qualitative method of data collection was from a FGD with a non-probabilistic convenience sample (Omair, 2014:142-147) selected SAPS, CPFs and DoCS staff members directly involved in the implementation of the change.

3.5 Methodological choice

A mixed method approach with triangulation from secondary sources was used in this study. This was done to ensure a robust and credible set of findings. Creswell and Clark (2011:12) confirm that the most fundamental part of mixed methods research is that its eclectic nature provides the best chance to produce useful answers. The blend of both methods has considerable value in IT research (Kaplan & Duchon, 1988). The triangulation design is advisable to collect “complementary yet distinct data” from diverse sources and combine them for analysis and explanation (Almalki, 2016).

This method of investigation involves gathering both quantitative and qualitative data, mixing the two forms of data, and using separate designs that may include philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks. The main assumption of this form of investigation is that the blend of qualitative and quantitative approaches offers a more comprehensive understanding of a research problem than either approach alone (Mugobo, 2021:33). This mixed-methods approach combines the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research, allowing for more robust, nuanced insights. Here’s how you can systematically augment quantitative data with qualitative data:

Goundar, (2012:18) state that mixed methods research is based on the tenet that there exists multiple perspectives or realities and tries to integrate the “subjective, intersubjective and objective part of our world”. Gupta & Awasthy, (2015:213) emphasise that traceability is high in a mixed method study as qualitative data can explain the quantitative results. This approach not only explores the phenomenon based on the realities of people but also justifies it.

The quantitative research method normally associated with the positivist paradigm was implemented as the first segment of the research methodology process. It comprised the collection and conversion of data into mathematical and graphical forms to do statistical calculations and draw conclusions (Mugobo, 2021: 31).

Pragmatism is a philosophical approach that emphasizes the practical consequences of beliefs and ideas, and in social research, it can be used as a theoretical framework to integrate both quantitative and qualitative research methods. According to Creswell and Creswell (2017:23), pragmatism "emphasises the importance of a practical, problem-centered approach to research and focuses on the use of multiple methods to address research questions". Here is how both quantitative and qualitative research is linked to the pragmatist stance, according to academic research methodology literature:

Quantitative Research and Pragmatism: Quantitative research is a research method that involves collecting and analysing numerical data using statistical methods. According to Rocco, Hatcher, and Creswell (2016:18), pragmatism is "often used to justify the use of quantitative research methods in social science research, as these methods often involve testing hypotheses and predicting real-world phenomena". Pragmatism can be linked to quantitative research in several ways:

Pragmatism emphasises the importance of practical consequences, and quantitative research often focuses on predicting and explaining real-life phenomena.

Pragmatism stresses the importance of testing ideas in real-world situations, and quantitative research is often used to test hypotheses and theories.

Pragmatism values empirical evidence, and quantitative research provides objective, measurable data that can be used to support or refute theories.

Qualitative Research and Pragmatism: Qualitative research is a research method that involves collecting and analysing non-numerical data such as interviews, observations, and documents. According to Creswell and Creswell (2017), pragmatism is "increasingly used to justify the use of qualitative research methods in social science research, as these methods often involve exploring and understanding real-world phenomena in-depth" (p. 23). Pragmatism can also be linked to qualitative research in several ways:

Pragmatism values practical consequences, and qualitative research often focuses on understanding and describing real-life phenomena in-depth.

Pragmatism emphasises the importance of context, and qualitative research is often used to explore and understand the contextual factors that shape human behavior and experiences.

Pragmatism recognises the value of multiple perspectives, and qualitative research provides rich, detailed data that can capture the diversity of experiences and perspectives of research participants.

In summary, both quantitative and qualitative research can be linked to the pragmatist stance through their shared emphasis on practical consequences, real-life applications, and empirical evidence. By integrating both quantitative and qualitative research methods within a pragmatist framework, researchers can gain a more comprehensive understanding of the complex social phenomena they are studying.

The second segment of the research methodology process implemented was a qualitative research method normally “associated with the social constructivist paradigm which emphasises the socially constructed nature of reality” (Mugobo, 2021:32). “This approach is about the recording, examining and effort to reveal the deeper meaning and importance of human behaviour and experience, including opposing theories, behaviours and emotions”. It further permits a rich and compounded understanding of people’s experience and not just data which can be profiled/summarised to other bigger groups (Mugobo, 2021:32). Hence, data were collected by following a strict FGD procedure and prepared for statistical analysis. The findings were triangulated with quantitative data as well as secondary sources. This kind of method is used to assess the knowledge, attitudes, behaviours, and opinions of people, depending on the topic of the research. Researchers implementing this type of method use their opinion and experiences which are not allowed to be used in quantitative methods at all.

Many authors cited in Goundar (2012:16), disagree with Gupta and Awasthy (2015:9) and argue that given this difference between the methods, purists maintain that research questions are normally focussed on a quantitative or qualitative direction and hence these two methodologies had better not go together. Goundar, (2012:16) backs the purists’ viewpoint of splitting the two research philosophies by quoting instances of research techniques under the two key classes in his recent book on ‘Qualitative Research in Business and Management’. Goundar, (2012:16) classified qualitative research methods to consist of “action research, case study, ethnography, grounded research, semiotics, discourse analysis, hermeneutics, and narrative whilst quantitative research methods include surveys, simulation, mathematical modelling, laboratory experiments, statistical analysis, econometric and structured equations modelling. Furthermore, Goundar, (2012:16) highlight that from the purists’ perspective, the difference between the qualitative and quantitative models stems from the fact that epistemological, ontological, and axiological working assumptions of research issues are typically qualitative or quantitative in characteristics.

Pragmatic researchers (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Newman & Benz, 1998; Goundar, 2012:16) demystify the contradiction amongst purists like Goundar's (2012:16) confidence in qualitative and quantitative methodologies and participate in claims that disclose resemblances between the two and endorse triangulation. In this regard, Gaundar, (2012:18) advocates that integrating qualitative with quantitative methods affords a prospect to validate the findings from varied methods of studying a given phenomenon more rigorously.

3.6 Research strategies

Goundar (2012:6) reports that descriptive research endeavours to describe analytically a condition, difficulty, trend, service, or programme, or offers data about, for instance, living conditions of a neighbourhood, or describes mindsets about a problem. The research was inferred, based on a survey as part of the quantitative research methodology. This was supported by a qualitative research methodology by conducting semi-structured interviews via a focus group discussion with participants representing each stakeholder group. The research is a fixed design based on a theory.

A standardised data collection tool in the form of a questionnaire using a Likert scale was developed to collect quantitative data.

The questionnaire was distributed via email to all staff (290) in DoCS who directly and indirectly worked with the EPP system and related functionalities, as well as 151 CPF chairpersons and 151 SAPS station commanders. A return date of two weeks was provided. "The Likert scale is the most commonly used scale in survey research" where a respondent must agree in levels of agreement with a statement (Remenyi, 2013:103).

One FGD was held with participants involved in the implementation process to provide a deeper understanding of the quantitative findings. The results of the quantitative research data collection tool were discussed during the session. Remenyi (2013:49) maintains that the main function of a focus group is to enable the researcher to "listen and observe" discussions between knowledgeable informants. FGD is a qualitative research technique. In addition, the FGD was recorded and detailed notes were taken.

Stake (2010:2) highlights those qualitative studies are most appropriate to examine what is currently happening in relation to how persons or organisations are doing their business. Roth (2008, cited by Stake, 2010:13) argues that "research on how things work in the grand schemes of knowledge is both a quantitative and a qualitative task".

3.7 Time horizon

Several authors (Robson, 1993; Bell,1999; Ader, 2008; Saunders, 2019:134) agree that quantitative research may use a cross-sectional time horizon of data study making use of a representative sample that analyses data from a population at a specific point in time.

3.8 Techniques and procedures

3.8.1 Sample frame

Objective, representative research can be difficult to conduct because tests can normally only be conducted on a small sample (e.g. a drug cannot be tested on every person in the world, so a sample needs to be used in research) (Vogt, 2012:6). This means that researchers need to have a very detailed understanding of the types and limitations of research methodologies that they are using (Vogt, 2012:6). Sampling is the process of choosing from a bigger group called the “population or universe” (Vogt, 2012:6). Sampling allows large-scale research to be carried out with a more realistic cost and timeframe because it uses a smaller number of individuals in the population to stand in for the whole (Qualtrics, 2022).

The sample was determined by “identifying those which, by their relationship with the research questions, can provide the most relevant, comprehensive and rich information” as described by Gupta and Awasthy (2015:22). This study focussed on the Western Cape DoCS staff based in Cape Town (as the implementers of change) and the 151 CPF chairpersons and 151 SAPS station commanders located across the Western Cape Province as the co-implementers only.

Vogt (2012:5) highlights those key questions to be addressed when sampling is determined namely “whom or what shall we study, how many will we study, and how shall we choose them? We use the term ‘cases’ generically to describe any unit of analysis or object/subject/participants of study”.

3.8.2 Sampling method

“Sampling strategies vary widely across different disciplines and research areas, and from study to study. Sampling allows you to research larger target populations using the same resources as you would smaller ones, it dramatically opens the possibilities for research” (Qualtrics, 2022). The non-probabalistic purposive sampling method was utilised to identify participants in the study with niche knowledge in the organisations they represent, that is the CPF chairperson, implementing and other staff in DoCS, station commander within SAPS to participate in an FGD to triangulate the research findings. Content analysis was used for identifying occurring patterns by sequencing words and counting and describing occurrences of keywords (Qualtrics, 2022). However, for the FGD, a non-probability convenience sampling

method was used to sample a group of representatives from SAPS, CPFs and DoCS employees directly involved at DoCS with the implementation of the changes to support the quantitative data results with qualitative insight. Because of the COVID-19 pandemic, the sampled participants were met via the online MS Teams platform which minimised the need for traveling and catering arrangements, but it did impact on the ability to observe fully as participants' facial expression was not always visible due to band limitations preventing participants to all be displayed on the video call at once.

The non-probability purposive sampling method was used to identify participants who had to have at least two or more years' experience in the implementation of the EPP system to participate in the quantitative research. Furthermore, they had to be the SAPS station commander (from the SAPS population) or the CPF chairperson (from the CPF population) or the DoCS staff responsible for implementing the change. Expert sampling is a form of purposive sampling used when one of the primary research aims is to capture knowledge rooted in a form of expertise.

3.8.3 Sample size

The total population targeted was 151 CPF chairpersons, 151 station commanders and 290 staff members working at DoCS who were directly or indirectly involved in working with the development and implementation of the EPP programme for CPFs. Only the current 151 CPF elected Chairpersons were selected. This programme is unique to the Western Cape, which inevitably limits the generalisation of the study, but the change management principles remain the same. In total, 111 participants completed the questionnaire and of the 12 participants invited to the FGD, 5 arrived and participated.

The sample is a smaller number within the population that will represent the whole (Creswell & Creswell, 2017:212). The sample size is critical to obtain accurate, statistically sound results that can be presented with a 90% confidence level and a 10% margin of error (Bryman, 2016:11). Hence, the ideal sample size was determined as 47 for CPF respondents and was determined with an online sample size calculator.

The study was executed within the Western Cape Provincial borders via DoCS, utilising the simple random sampling technique. The questionnaire was distributed to all employees of DoCS, as well as to 151 station commanders and CPF chairpersons. This simple random sampling technique gives every possible person in the sample population an equal possibility to be selected (Neill, 2018:5).

3.9 Research participants

The data were collected via a formal questionnaire and a FGD. DoCS staff, CPF chairpersons and SAPS station commanders were informed via email and requested to participate. The incentive to win a weekend away for two was offered to encourage participation but unfortunately did not increase the response rate as anticipated. The cover letter and questionnaire were sent via Survey Monkey to participants' email addresses.

3.10 Data collection and analysis

"Data collection is a key facet of the process; validity and reliability of the results are an important requisite for high-quality research outputs" (Sinha et al., 2018:369). A literature review was conducted to understand the topic and to articulate views and identify the gaps.

Several techniques and procedures were employed to collect and analyse the data. Two research instruments were decided on flowing from the research design. The primary data were collected through the quantitative method. A self-administered standardised survey distributed via Survey Monkey was chosen because of the large sample size and widely dispersed locations across the Western Cape Province. The completed online questionnaires were extracted into Excel spreadsheets and stored electronically. Reminders were sent to participants and telephonic follow-ups were done to remind potential participants to participate.

The survey was chosen as a strategy and a standardised questionnaire as a research instrument because in answering the research question, it required wide-ranging "representative answers to questions asked of a large group" as advocated by Vogt (2012:14). A data collection tool in the form of a questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was developed to collect quantitative data and measure independent variables. "The Likert scale is the most commonly used scale in survey research" and when filling out a Likert Scale questionnaire, a respondent must agree in levels of agreement with a statement (Remenyi, 2013:103). Participants' opinion on the factors of the change process was measured by the assessment of their own opinion.

A questionnaire consisting of 25 close-ended statements was developed based on the study's working assumption that key factors influence the institutionalisation of change management practice in a public sector department. The questionnaire was emailed to all staff in DoCS who directly and indirectly worked with the EPP system and related functionalities, as well as 151 CPFs and 151 SAPS station commanders across the Western Cape Province. A return date of two weeks was stipulated. Once captured, the data were analysed and evaluated against

the key factors influencing institutionalisation of change management practice in a public sector department.

In addition, qualitative data on the research question was obtained by asking structured questions. A further motivation for this research instrument was that it was the most cost-effective method, given the geographical area where participants were located.

Appointments were scheduled with selected research participants to assist in interpreting the findings of the quantitative research.

The data collection process was done in several stages. The first stage was to develop a questionnaire and submit it to DoCS to obtain approval. After approval was granted, ethical clearance had to be obtained from CPUT (see Appendix A). Thereafter the Community Police Forums' Chairperson's contact details and email addresses were sourced from DoCS. In addition, the email addresses of employees at DoCS and SAPS station commanders were sourced to invite them to participate in the study.

The questionnaire was uploaded on Survey Monkey as well as a cover letter introducing the study and requesting participation from research participants. Only after the response due date and telephonic follow-up with participants it was discovered that most of the email addresses provided for CPFs were incorrect. This necessitated that the CPFs be contacted via telephone to update their details. The questionnaire was resent to allow all CPFs to participate and respond.

A reminder was sent to those who had not responded. Some were followed up telephonically and their input was captured on an Excel spreadsheet and afterward captured on the Survey Monkey platform. The data were collected from 111 respondents.

One FGD was conducted consisting of selected employees from DoCS as well as CPF chairpersons and a SAPS representative. Due to COVID-19, they were invited to meet and discuss the topic via MS Teams, an online meeting platform. The meeting was recorded and transcribed.

Once captured and analysed, the data were analysed taking the 8-step change management theoretical model and key requirements for change into consideration. The quantitative data were collected from a large group in a standardised and systematic manner. The data gathered from the survey were captured in an Excel spreadsheet. The data were analysed using mathematical calculations to identify statistical patterns and to interpret the results. The calculations were presented in graphs to visually depict the data to the reader. Data analysis

was done by descriptive statistics and Chi-Square cross tabulations making use of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

The second research instrument chosen was a FGD with key implementation players to “gain access to informants willing to talk, either individually or in (focus) groups about issues that will help answer the research questions.” This was further motivated to obtain “in-depth exploration of participants’ meanings” as a key part of the research question (Vogt, 2012:14). Data was collected via a FGD that was audio recorded with the permission of the participants, transcribed and verbally coded. Verbal data coding involves organising and categorising data to uncover patterns, themes, and meanings. Labels (codes) were applied to segments of qualitative data (FGD transcripts) to make sense of the information and derive insights from participant’s experiences. The coded data was analysed and systematically categorised per theme and interpreted for manifest (explicit) and latent (underlying) content. This technique allows researchers to condense, organise and interpret data (Delve & Limpaecher, 2023:18-34). The qualitative results were used to triangulate the quantitative findings and further compared with literature.

Qualitative content analysis is a research technique used to analyse and interpret the content of textual data, such as written documents, interview transcripts, or other forms of communication. Qualitative content analysis allows for inferences about intentions, messages, and effects of communication. Insights were gained into producers and audiences of the analysed texts.

The textual data was divided into meaningful units, such as sentences or paragraphs (Smith, 2010:15). These units serve as the building blocks for further analysis. This step allows researchers to become familiar with the nuances, participant perspectives, and overall content of the data. Codes, representing specific themes or concepts within the data, were assigned to the identified units based on their content (Jones & Brown, 2015:221-222).

After coding, similar codes were grouped into categories, which represent broader themes that emerge from the coded data (Miller et al., 2018:135-137). The content was analysed within each category and interpreted (Garcia & Lee, 2019:189-191). Interpretation involves identifying trends, relationships, and insights.

The secondary data were collected from a systematic literature review (Sinha et al., 2018:369).

The results of the quantitative research data were discussed during the FGD session. Remenyi (2013:49) sums up the primary function of a focus group, that this non-quantitative research

technique serves to enable the researcher to listen to and witness discussions between well-informed informers. Detailed notes were taken at the FGD and permission to record the discussion was obtained at the commencement of the FGD.

The focus group was semi-structured based on the presented research questions to add more depth to the quantitative data. Participants were selected based on their detailed understanding and years of experience, as recommended by Mieg and Näf (2005) in Gupta and Awasthy (2015:22). The participants were individuals in decision-making positions and others on an operational level, e.g. information management managers and project management staff. The FGD was scheduled for 120 minutes. The quantitative data results were presented and participants' experiences of employee participation in the change process and their views concerning the integration of employees into the EPP IT system development were explored.

Gupta and Awasthy (2015:22) opine that "eliciting human experiences requires several demands from the mental and intellectual abilities of the researcher". Firstly, the ability to listen is fundamental. The researcher must hear, absorb, and comprehend the participant's answers to decide how to probe further. Second, it requires a clear and logical mind. The researcher needs to be able to think quickly to grasp the essential points of what the participant is saying, exercise judgement about what to pursue, and simultaneously formulate the relevant question. Third, curiosity – an enquiring mind – is an essential asset in a researcher" (Gupta and Awasthy, 2015:22).

Goundar (2012:17) describes qualitative research as concerned with a qualitative phenomenon, relating to or involving quality or kind. Attitude or opinion research that is designed to find out how people feel or what they think about a particular subject or institution is qualitative research.

Goundar, (2012:19) confirms that the qualitative paradigm is based on interpretivism and constructivism. Ontologically, there are numerous basic facts (realities), or numerous truths based on a person's development (construction) of reality. Furthermore Goundar, (2012:21) states that reality/basic facts are socially developed and continually changing. Goundar, (2012:21) indicates that epistemologically, there is no connection to reality separate from our consciousness, no extraneous referent through which to correlate claims of truth. Goundar, (2012:21) hold the view that the researcher and the phenomenon of study are inter-linked so that findings are commonly constructed against the background of the situation which forms the investigation.

Obtaining this kind of understanding into the hearts and minds of participants is foremost obtained by utilising fewer, highly selected samples. Specialist referees, free from the rigorous time and design pressures of a quantitative survey, practice a myriad of techniques to collect comprehensive information. Consultations are long-winded, usually as long as four hours, permitting the referee to extract acutely truthful, highly complicated feedback. The result is abundant, comprehensive data laden with understanding unattainable from quantitative research techniques (Gounder, 2012:21). Respectable, thorough qualitative research has numerous strengths. It is adjustable, highly focused, and planned to be concluded fast as the findings are perceived or listened to personally, and readers relate to the results comfortably (Gounder, 2012:21).

“Answers to surveys were coded numerically and answers to interview questions were coded verbally” (Vogt, 2012:7) and then translated into a graphical display utilising a mathematical method and augmented with the qualitative answers in the form of narrative and supported by secondary research sources.

Data analysis was done by Excel spreadsheets for the descriptive statistics and Pearson’s Chi-Square crosstabulations using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) v28. The Chi-Squared statistical test of Pearson was used to test the categorical data. This test determines if the data are significantly different from what was expected. Cross tabulations were used to determine the relationship between pairs of variables. The relationship between the pairs were found to be significant.

3.10.1 Validity

Pearson (1900) described the formula to compute Pearson’s (χ^2) statistic. Contingency tables (2x2 tables) has two categories for each variable. The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between all the pairs of questions tested. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table. To ensure that the expected count less than 5 was limited to 25% or less, the categories of agree and strongly agree and the categories disagree and strongly disagree were combined.

Serra, Rea, Di Carlo & Sergi (2019) argues that for Chi-squared tests to be valid a sample size based on reason not more than 20% of cells should have an expected count less than 5 and not one cell should have an expected count less than 1. Note “a.” below the Cross tabulated output Tables in Appendix D indicates that the analysis is valid, and no cells have expected counts less than 5.

3.11 Research ethics, validity, reliability and credibility

In line with research ethics, the research procedures were described to participants in advance, so that they were informed about what to expect. Written consent for conducting the study was obtained from the Head of DoCS in the Western Cape.

Participants were informed that they may withdraw from the research at any time and for any reason without any negative consequences. No participant was obliged to participate as participants were informed that their participation was voluntary. Participants were informed that their data will be treated with confidentiality and, if published, it will not be identifiable as theirs. Participants were debriefed at the end of their participation by providing them with a brief explanation of the study.

Clark, T., Foster, L., Bryman, A. & Sloan, L. 2021:35 argues that ethical research should not harm participants psychologically or physically. Therefore, caution was taken to avoid negative words in the questionnaires, because negative words may have influenced participants and caused psychological harm to participants. Furthermore, participants' identity was not disclosed in this study.

When research is evaluated, three questions are asked: Are the research findings 1) valid and 2) reliable and 3) can it be generalised? In other words, validity tests whether the data/information collection instrument that was used did in fact measure what it was supposed to measure. Reliability tests, whether the same results under the same circumstances would provide the same measurement. Radical opposing views of researchers towards validity, reliability and generalisability were noted by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009:244-145). Goundar, (2012:21) suggested standards described as "credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability" which is like one of the following theories called: validity, reliability and objectivity. Whilst quantitative studies are not assessed by the same rules as qualitative studies, Kvale and Brinkmann (2009:245) opine that the same terms are maintained as substantiation language nonetheless redefined to be applicable to the other (see Table 3.1 below).

3.12 Evaluation of the research

Table 3.1: A comparison of quantitative and qualitative research evaluation strategies

Criteria	Quantitative	Qualitative
General framework	Seek to confirm hypotheses about phenomena	Seek to explore phenomena
	Instruments use more rigid style of eliciting and categorising responses to questions	Instruments use more flexible, iterative style of eliciting and categorising responses to questions
	Use highly structured methods such as questionnaires, surveys, and structured observation	Use semi-structured methods such as in-depth interviews, focus groups, and participant observation
Analytical objectives	To quantify variation	To describe variation
	To predict causal relationships	To describe and explain relationships
	To describe characteristics of a population	To describe individual experiences
		To describe group norms
Question format	Closed-ended	Open-ended
Data format	Numerical (obtained by assigning numerical values to responses)	Textual (obtained from audiotapes, videotapes, and field notes)
Flexibility in study design	Study design is stable from beginning to end	Some aspects of the study are flexible (for example, the addition, exclusion, or wording of particular interview questions)
	Participant responses do not influence or determine how, and which questions researchers ask next	Participant responses affect how, and which questions researchers ask next
	Study design is subject to statistical assumptions and conditions	Study design is iterative, that is, data collection and research questions are adjusted according to what is learned

Source: Mack et al. (2005)

3.12.1 Objectivity

In the context of quantitative research, objectivity primarily correlates with the point of view of the scholar towards the study, lessening the scholar's prejudice to every point all through the study. Conversely, in the domain of qualitative studies, objectivity, also labelled confirmability, deliberates reliability in addition to validity, as well as the impartiality of facts created (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009:242).

3.12.1.1 Qualitative research

Reliability was labelled dependability by Goundar, (2012:21) who defines the degree to which the measurement procedure creates steady and reliable outcomes (Burns & Grove, 2010:21). Even though this notion originates from a positivist paradigm, it is still relevant in qualitative studies in which, for instance, it deciphers if respondents wish to alter their replies in the course of a question-and-answer session or provide varied replies to varied examiners (Burns & Grove, 2010:34). In qualitative research validity take into account if the research method is examining what it is meant to or not.

Miles et al. (2014:311) summarise objectivity as a subject of comparative impartiality besides independence from "misunderstood study prejudices" as well as propose the subsequent reflections for qualitative research:

- Define the research's methods and procedures clearly and rigorously.
- Describe the succession of data gathering, managing, breakdown and presentation unambiguously.
- Deductions must be clearly related to examined data.
- Retain a comprehensive evidence of approaches and measures for auditing purposes.
- Be unambiguous about self-bigotry besides own theories as well as their likely influence on the research.
- Study working assumptions opposing or in competition with each other.
- Hold on to the statistics for re-examining by others (Miles et al., 2014:311-312).

3.12.1.2 Quantitative research

Objectivity in quantitative studies, refers to the scholar's association with the overall study procedure. Throughout the study process, the effect of a "quantitative researcher's judgement is minimised" (Mertens, 2014:272) by:

- choosing a suitable study method;
- expert judgement of the data gathering tool;

- conduct operations with the data gathering tool in similar circumstances; and
- take advantage of numerical methods to examine the data.

3.12.2 Reliability

3.12.2.1 Qualitative research

A technique of guaranteeing reliability in qualitative studies is to keep a record of the whole process. This is accomplished by an audit inquiry, as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited by Babbie, 2010:417), to evaluate the process as well as the contents of what was detected. Pather, (2006:122) suggested the following:

i. preserve gathered proof in a straightforward retrievable form; and

ii. preserve a journal presenting conclusions and explanations for choices relating to study design.

3.12.2.2 Quantitative research

In quantitative studies, like using a survey to gather data, reliability defines the steadiness of replies and outcomes when the measurement instrument is administered in various settings (Burns & Grove, 2010:364). In the case of construct development, reliability can be statistically verified by making use of “Cronbach’s alpha coefficient which measures internal consistency”.

3.12.3 Validity

3.12.3.1 Qualitative research

In qualitative studies, validity focusses on the question of whether the study method examines what it is expected to examine. Validation comprises activities to make sure (check), query, hypothesise, deliberate in addition to sharing (Henning et al., 2004:147-149). Another concept of validity recounts the usefulness of the results and the enablement of study members.

In qualitative studies, Goundar, (2012:25) break validity up into two notions, termed credibility and transferability.

a. Credibility

Credibility relates to the “harmony or interchangeableness sandwiched between the created truths that is real in the way respondents think besides those that are ascribed to them” Pather, (2006:120). Strategies for strengthening the credibility of qualitative research consist of:

- Logical induction
- Continual comparative technique

- Deviant/ Non-standard situation analysis
- Thorough data handling
- By means of suitable tabularisations (Silverman, 2011:368-388).

The abovementioned procedures are not utilised on their own nor linearly nonetheless all remain intertwined in the qualitative data breakdown procedure (Silverman, 2011:368-388). Logical induction verifies the procedure of detecting relationships in the characteristics of the prodigy researched besides consisting of the techniques of i) continual comparison; and ii) probing for non-standard instances. The continual comparative method leads to continually probing for an additional instance, or entity, to trial run a spectacle (Silverman, 2011:368-388). This converts a minor segment of the dataset of a single researcher and put to the test the produced series of codes by analysing gradually additional data while waiting for all the data to be analysed. This is termed “comprehensive data treatment” (Silverman, 2011:368-388). The relative/ proportional method correspondingly guarantees non-standard-case breakdown, in which non-standard data (non-standard with reference to the conceptual model used) is known and attended to. In minor datasets, this implies continual breakdown of all portions of data from the study. Finally, thorough data treatment is assisted by appropriate tabularisation of codes and categories. This provides an understanding of the variance in the data besides checking the predominance of the phenomenon in the data.

b. Transferability

Transferability relates to the notion of taking a broad view (simplifying) of the outcomes of research to other circumstances (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009:260-261). The significant contemplation of the ability to generalise when conducting qualitative studies, is by determining if the facts yielded in a question and answer session or case study can be transmitted to other circumstances or not.

Silverman (2011:386) defines in Table 3.2 below, three methods to simplify in qualitative research. Thus, the ability to generalise or simplify is made possible by the case study option.

Table 3.2: How to generalise in qualitative research

Deductive inference	**Choosing a critical or deviant case to prove the refutability of an accredited theory**
Comparative inference	Identifying cases with extreme situations, or a wide range of situations as well as certain characteristics to maximise variation
The emblematic case	Choosing a typical case – e.g. a single case study that embodies one or more key aspects of social action or social process

Source: Silverman (2011:386)

Additionally, Pather, (2006:120) suggest two strategies for transferability:

i. Deep explanation –gathering comprehensive explanations of facts and writing with adequate detail and accuracy to let the person who reads make rulings around transferability,

ii. opt for research participants purposively – choosing diverse or alike participants.

3.12.3.2 Quantitative research

Burns and Burns (2008:425-431) distinguish between external, in-house, populace, as well as environmental legitimacy in quantitative studies. External legitimacy relates to the ability to generalise (i.e. if the analysed outcomes of the sample can be universally applied to the complete populace). Similarly, population validity, deals with the query of if the sample replies are a "correct evaluation of the intended populace" or not. Environmental validity attends to the query of if the outcomes can be universally applied to other environmental settings or not, and in-house validity relates to the degree to which the examiner can manipulate the circumstances in which the research is taking place. In-house validity comprises of five subtypes as demonstrated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Subtypes of internal validity

Content validity	**Does the measurement reflect the intended content?**
Face validity	Does the measure appear important and professional to participants?
Predictive validity	Can the measure be used for future performance predictions?
Concurrent validity	Can the measure predict the correct outcome now?
Construct validity	Does the measurement tap the theorised concept?

Source: Burns and Burns (2008:427)

It is imperative to find out the degree to which research ought to be generalised or exchangeable to other conditions.

3.13 Limitations of the study

Several limitations were identified and experienced whilst implementing the study. Limitations were the unwillingness of DoCS staff, provincial SAPS station commanders and CPF chairpersons to participate in the study, the unwillingness of DoCS to avail the staff for the completion of the questionnaire and attendance of the focus group, and no access to records. All CPFs are not equally computer literate which impacted their ability to respond to the call to complete the questionnaire.

Access to all 151 CPFs' email addresses posed a limitation in terms of time delays to receive and respond to the survey. It was only when telephonic follow-up reminders were done that it was discovered that the email addresses provided were outdated and some were no longer in use. This caused severe time delays as the questionnaire had to be manually delivered to them. Some preferred to participate telephonically in completing the questionnaire, after which it was loaded onto the Survey Monkey platform before being exported to an Excel spreadsheet.

The survey was not piloted and hence the reliability could not be tested.

The study was executed only in the Western Cape at DoCS and 151 CPFs across the province. This programme is unique to the Western Cape, which limits the generalisation of the study although the change management principles remain the same.

Whilst official approval was granted for the research to be conducted, access to the Survey Monkey platform was refused for months and when reported, this was met with more resistance. Access to the data was granted after months of negotiation, which further delayed the research process.

COVID-19 and the hard lockdown since March 2020 with no data or connectivity to access the Internet was a further limitation on the research process.

Non-probability sampling does aim to go deeper into the area, without consideration of the wider population (Qualtrics, 2022). The limitation with this method, however, is that despite the level of detail in qualitative data being greater, it is confined to the boundaries of that specific group and is hard to scale to other people in the population to make generalisations about the wider population. This method's largest disadvantage is the presence of sampling bias as the sample selection method gives an unfair advantage to certain members of a population. In some methods, such as volunteer or convenience sampling, samples can be filled with people who are more likely to agree to want to be part of the research because they hold strong views that they want to share. This can skew the validity of the results. As deliberate selection criteria are chosen and used to assess the suitability of participants for a sample, this can result in researcher or selection bias. The non-probability sampling technique used to select the target group was convenience sampling where the participants were chosen based on their convenience and availability.

3.14 Significance of the research

In terms of the research contribution, this study assisted and benefited public sector government Departments in understanding what key factors are required to implement and manage change to effect lasting change in a Western Cape Government Department and to highlight the importance of employing the key factors of change management methodologies when change in the organisation is introduced to ensure change is effective, institutionalised and lasting.

This research will contribute to the theoretical body of knowledge through the recommendation of policy guidelines for the public sector government Departments to effect strategic change management to gain insight into the factors that influence change management and how to

get key stakeholders, like employees and the CPFs, to cooperate in effecting the desired change.

The research topic is important to the discipline as it could potentially confirm the validity of Kotter's 8-step change model even in a governmental setting when looking at the key factors advocated by the model to implement change management to institutionalise lasting changes. However, one would need to understand the key factors that are required to successfully implement and institutionalise lasting and sustainable change.

The study discusses other change management models, i.e. Lewin and Morgan's change model and specifically looks at the differences and similarities when doing the comparison. Their relevancy is compared to Kotter's 8-step change management model. This study focuses on the addition of new technology within DoCS that impacts business processes, more specifically the lack of change management and the consequential results thereof. The EPP may be used as a blueprint to be implemented across the rest of South Africa and hence the lessons to be learned in terms of how to best manage this change in all other provinces will be available for all to learn from.

3.15 Chapter summary

A mixed-methods approach, triangulated with secondary sources, was employed. The research philosophy was pragmatic as it was a combination of both objectivist and constructivist ontological assumptions following a mixed method.

Pragmatics can integrate both positivist and interpretivist positions and research strategies within the scope of a single research according to the nature of the research question.

The research approach to theory development was abductive (which is a combination of the deductive and inductive approaches) and the ontological position is that of objectivist and subjectivist as a mixed method was followed. Saunders et al., (2007:145) opines that epistemologically, a focus on discovering observable and measurable facts and regularities and based on the assumption that only phenomena that you can observe and measure will lead to credible and meaningful data. The axiological assumption was followed by asking participants for their consent to participate in the research.

The research strategy entailed an electronic survey questionnaire and a FGD. The ontological position is that of objectivist and subjectivist and the epistemological approach is objective.

The next chapter presents the results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the research study and findings, the survey data captured, analysed and the interpretation thereof as well as the FGD outcome. The literature was compared to the actual experiences of respondents of the study. The chapter concludes with answers to the research questions. The quantitative data were captured on Survey Monkey and exported to an Excel spreadsheet, where after the data were calculated and translated into visual graphs depicting the results and interpretations were added to explain the data. The qualitative data were transcribed and coded verbally and used to triangulate the quantitative data.

4.2 Demographics

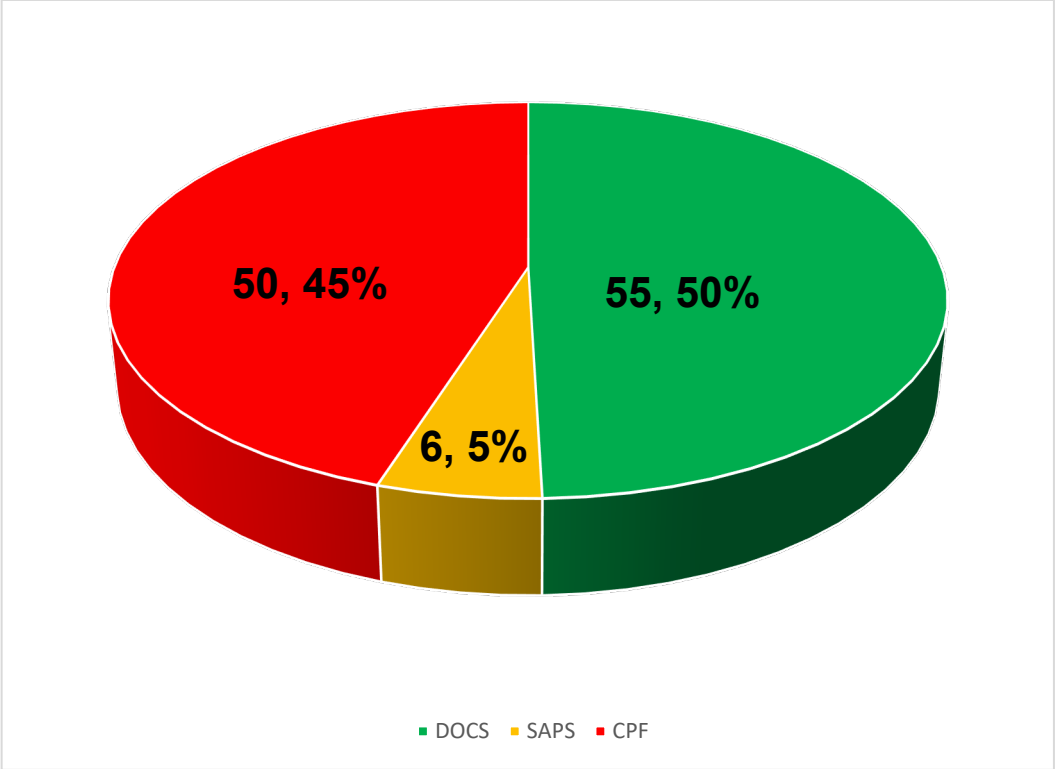

Figure 4.1: Stakeholder responses (n=111)

The questionnaire was distributed electronically via Survey Monkey to 592 respondents— 290 staff at DoCS, 151 CPFs and 151 station commanders at SAPS, of which 111 responded.

The breakdown of the respondents looked as follows: A total of 50% of DoCS employees responded, 45% of CPFs and only 5% of the SAPS. The changes mostly affected DoCS and the CPFs and the poor SAPS response thus was disappointing but to be expected as these officials completing the questionnaire acted as the secretariat for the CPFs.

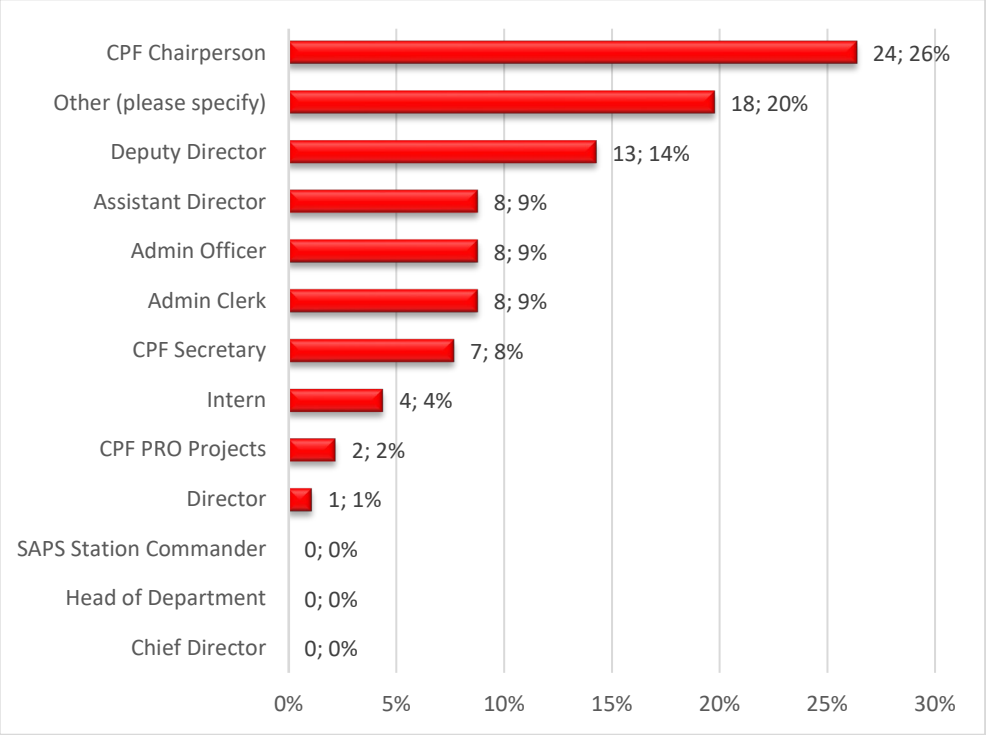

Figure 4.2: Stakeholder representation in terms of position held (n=91)

A wide spectrum of stakeholders representing different levels of responsibility within the organisations (DoCS, SAPS and CPFs) responded. The majority held the CPF chairperson position (26%), Others held other positions such as CPF deputy Chairpersons, CPF treasurers, CPF member, secretary and Executive Committee member of the Western Cape Police Board, DoCS financial officer, DoCS state accountant, DoCS accounts clerk and DoCS security officers (20%), CPF PRO project portfolio holders (2%), CPF Secretaries (8%), DoCS Interns (4%), DoCS Administrative Clerks (9%), DoCS Administrative Officers (9%), DoCS Assistant Directors (9%), DoCS Deputy Directors (14%) and DoCS Directors (1%). Regrettably no one from DoCS at top management level responded.

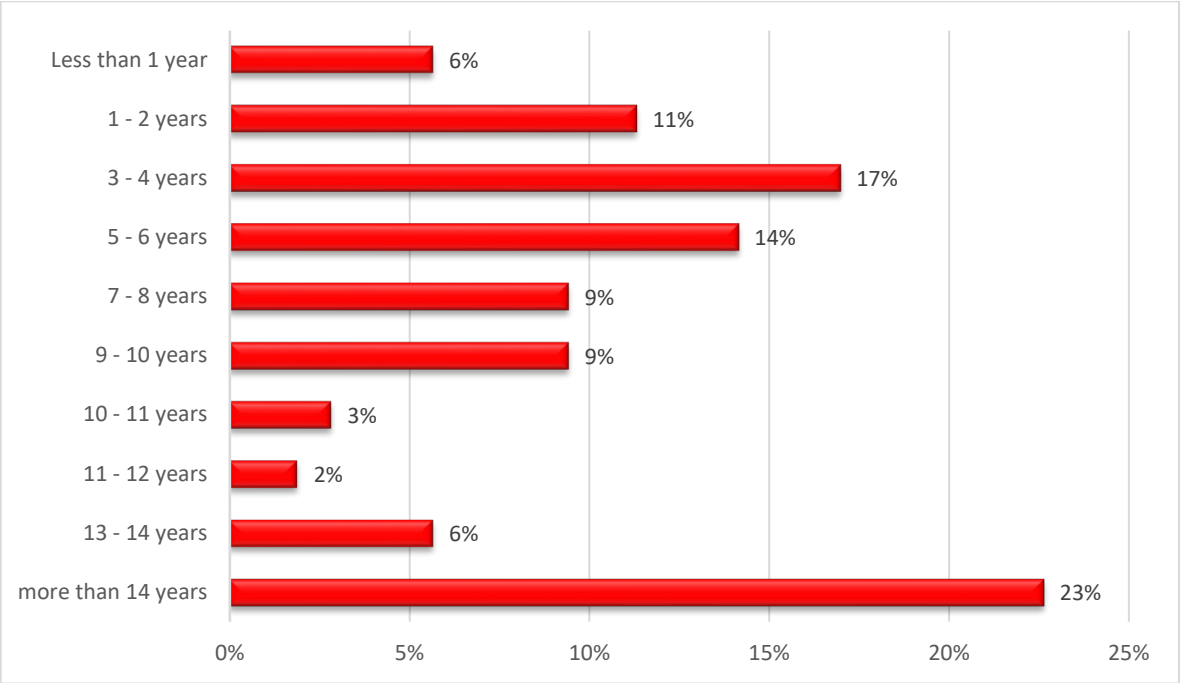

Figure 4.3: Number of years of service in the organisation (experience) (n=106)

The respondents had a wide number of years of experience ranging between less than one year to more than 14 years of experience whilst the majority of respondents (23%) had more than 14 years of experience. Another 6% had between 13 - 14 years of experience. A small percentage of 2% had between 11 - 12 years of experience and another 3% had 10 - 11 years of experience. A further 9% had 9 - 10 years of experience. Another 9% had 7 - 8 years' experience. 14% had 5 - 6 years of experience. This was followed by 17% who had 3 - 4 years of experience, and 11% had 1 - 2 years of experience. Only 6% had less than one-year experience.

Thus 66% of the respondents had more than 5 years' experience and can thus be regarded as relatively informed on the EPP system.

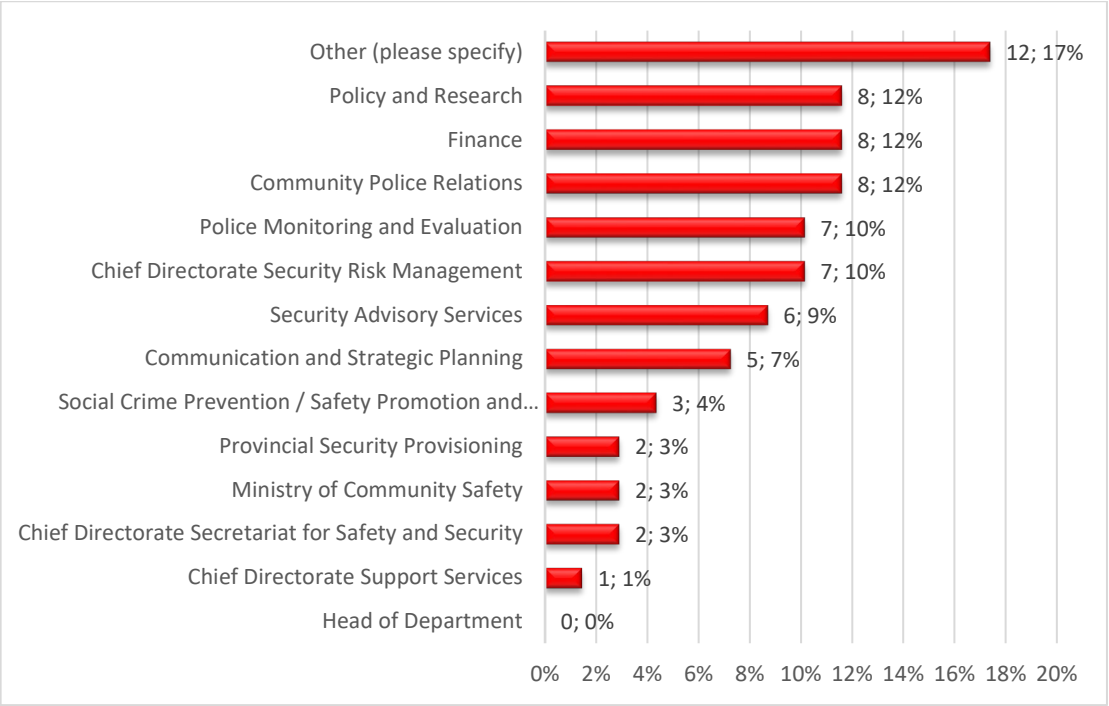

Figure 4.4: Unit/Portfolio representation within the Department of Community Safety (n=69)

A wide spectrum of portfolio holders within DoCS responded. The Directorates Policy and Research, Finance and Community Police Relations all had a 12% response rate. The Directorate Police Monitoring and Evaluation and the Chief Directorate Security Risk Management each had 10% respondents whilst the Directorate Security Advisory Services represented 9% responses. The Directorate of Communication and Strategic Planning had a 7% response rate. The Directorate Social Crime Prevention/Safety partnership promotions had a 4% response rate. The Directorate Provincial Security Provisioning, Ministry of Community Safety and Chief Directorate Secretariat for Safety and Security each had a 3% response rate. The Chief Directorate Support Services had a 1% response rate. The other 17% represented did not indicate their portfolios within DoCS.

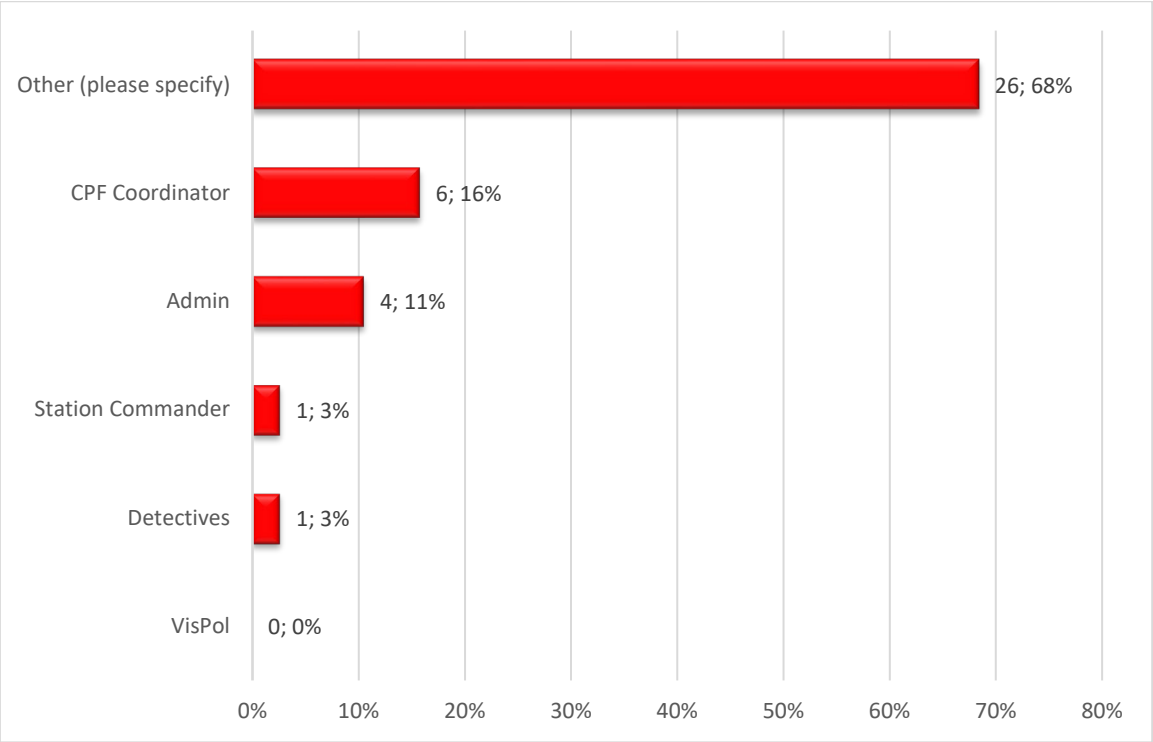

Figure 4.5: Unit/Portfolio representation within the South African Police Services n=38

Overall, the SAPS had the least responses. Whilst 68% of respondents who answered this question, were not from the SAPS the majority of SAPS responses came from SAPS CPF Coordinators (16%) who work with CPFs at police stations, followed by SAPS Admin officers (11%), station commanders (3%) and Detectives (3%). No responses were received from the Visible Police portfolio.

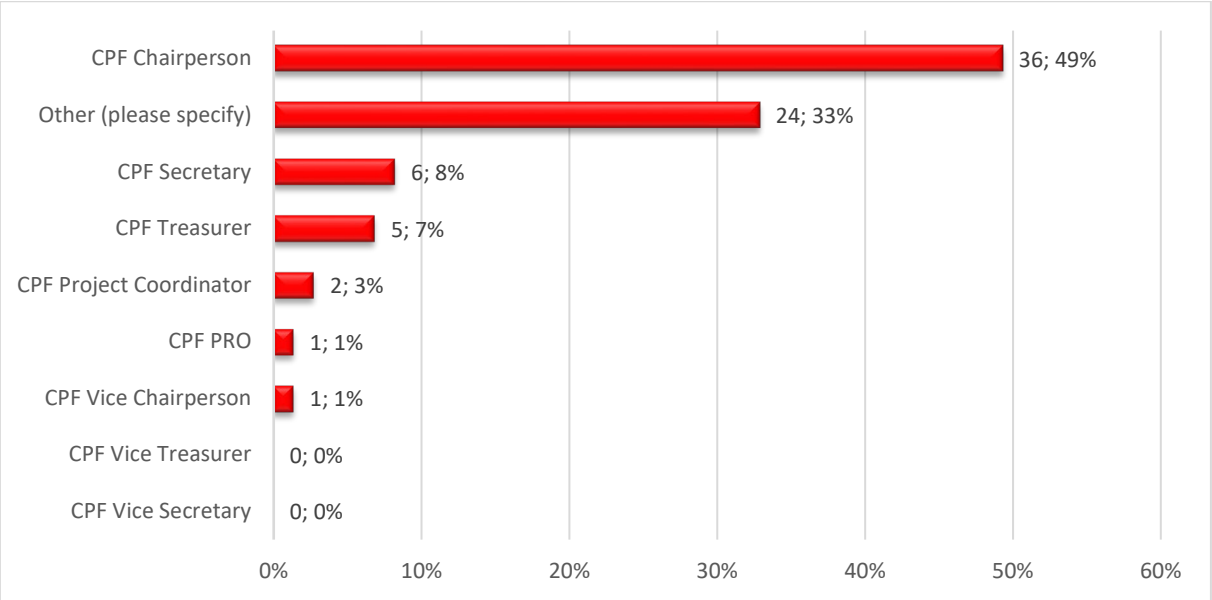

Figure 4.6: Unit/Portfolio representation within the Community Police Forums (n=73)

A wide spectrum of CPF portfolio holders responded. The majority of respondents were CPF chairpersons (49%), followed by the CPF Secretaries (8%), CPF Treasurers (7%). The CPF Project Coordinators were responsible for 3% of the responses, CPF PRO (1%) and CPF Vice-Chairpersons (1%). The other 33% were CPF Cluster Chairpersons, CPF Exco members, provincial CPF boards and fieldworkers.

4.3 Data analysis

Quantitative research involves collecting and analysing numerical data to test hypotheses and answer research questions. Several quantitative research analysis techniques are available, but the most commonly used method is Statistical Analysis. This involves using statistical tools to analyse the data and draw conclusions. For the purpose of this study the chi-square test was used to draw conclusions (Appendix D). The research instrument was a questionnaire using a Likert scale to collect quantitative data. “The Likert scale is the most commonly used scale in survey research” (Remenyi, 2013:103). Remenyi adds that when filling out a Likert-type scale questionnaire, a respondent must agree in levels of agreement with a statement. A questionnaire consisting of 25 close-ended statements was developed based on the study’s theoretical framework. The questions related to the key factors that influence change. The questionnaire was mailed to all 290 staff members in DoCS who directly and indirectly worked with the EPP system and related functionalities, as well as 151 CPF chairpersons and 151 SAPS station commanders. A return date of two weeks was stipulated, and a high response rate was anticipated. A survey was the most cost-effective method given the wide

geographical range of the participants' locations spread across the Western Cape Province. The data received from the survey were captured in an Excel spreadsheet and analysed using mathematical calculations to identify statistical patterns and to interpret the results.

Once captured, the data were analysed based on the key factors influencing institutionalisation of change management practice in a department of the Western Cape Government.

In addition, qualitative data on the research questions was obtained using a semi-structured questionnaire in an FGD with key implementation players to "gain access to informants willing to talk about issues that would help answer the research questions". This was further motivated to obtain "in-depth exploration of participants' meanings" as a key part of the research question (Vogt, 2012:14). Several qualitative analysis techniques are used to analyse the data collected from focus groups. These techniques allow researchers to explore nuances, uncover underlying meanings, and provide rich insights from focus group data. Detailed notes were taken at the FGD, which was recorded with permission obtained before the commencement of the FGD. The data obtained were transcribed, verbally coded and augmented and supported by secondary data. Verbal data coding involves organising and categorising data to uncover patterns, themes, and meanings. Labels (codes) were applied to segments of qualitative data (FGD transcripts) to make sense of the information and derive insights from participant's experiences. This technique allows researchers to condense, organise and interpret data (Delve & Limpaecher, 2023).

Qualitative content analysis was done to systematically examine textual data, uncover underlying meanings, and gain valuable insights. It's a powerful method for understanding complex information.

Qualitative content analysis is a research method used to analyse and interpret the content of textual data, such as written documents, interview transcripts, or other forms of communication. Data was collected via a FGD in audio recording. This was transcribed and coded. Codes represent recurring patterns, ideas, or topics found in the data. Thereafter it was systematically categorised per theme. The coded data was analysed to further refine themes and interpreted for manifest (explicit) and latent (underlying) content. Qualitative content analysis allows for inferences about intentions, messages, and effects of communication. Insights were gained into producers and audiences of the analysed texts.

The textual data was divided into meaningful units, such as sentences or paragraphs (Smith, 2010:15). These units serve as the building blocks for further analysis. This step allows researchers to become familiar with the nuances, participant perspectives, and overall content of the data. Codes, representing specific themes or concepts within the data, were assigned to the identified units based on their content (Jones & Brown, 2015:221-222).

After coding, similar codes were grouped into categories, which represent broader themes that emerge from the coded data (Miller et al., 2018:135-137). The content was analysed within each category and interpreted (Garcia & Lee, 2019:189-191). Interpretation involves identifying trends, relationships, and insights.

Secondary data were collected from a systematic literature review (Sinha et al., 2018:369) to augment the findings.

4.3.1 Creating urgency

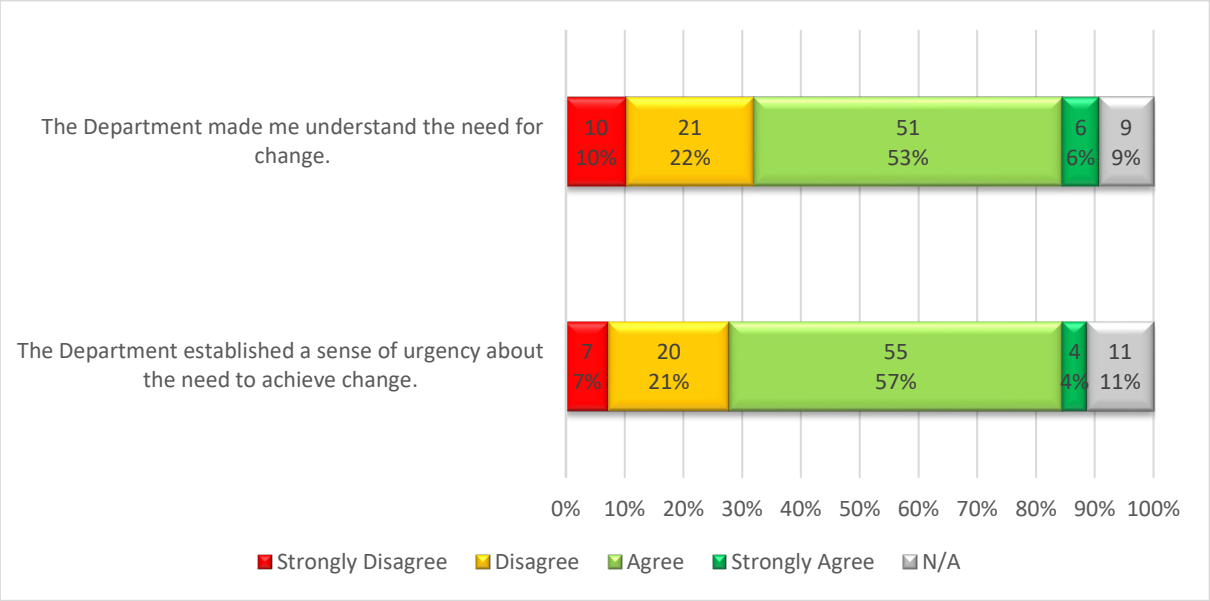

Figure 4.7: Creating urgency (n=97)

Over half (53%) of the participants agreed and a further 6% strongly agreed that DoCS tried to help Staff, CPFs and SAPS understand the need for change. A significant percentage disagreed with the statement (10% strongly disagreed and 22% disagreed) that DoCS made an effort to make them understand the need for the change. A further 9% indicated “not applicable”. This option was used when the respondents did not know or had not enough years of experience in giving the answer.

Participants in the FGD agreed that “there was some level of information, but not to the extent required” (P1). Another participant (P3) acknowledged that “most people are apprehensive of change, no matter what change it is. DoCS did not play its role in inviting the stakeholders directly affected to understand the need for change or get their input which created a lot of negative feedback”.

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:169) argue that change implementation failure would not take place if the organisation had prepared members to deal with change. The necessity for transformation must be verified and conveyed convincingly by managerial leaders. Research shows that the execution of planned transformation normally necessitates that managers verify the requirement for transformation and convince other members of the organisation and important external stakeholders that it is required (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:172). Researchers Fernandez & Rainey (2006:169) observed public sector leaders' endeavours to benefit from directives, political opportune occasions, and external guidance to validate and put the need to transform into words.

The majority of 61% (57% agreed, 4% strongly agreed) agreed that DoCS established a sense of urgency about the need to achieve change. However, 28% did not agree (7% strongly disagreed, 21% disagreed) that DoCS established a sense of urgency about the need to achieve change. A further 11% remained undecided on the question. Kotter (2012:37) emphasises that creating a sense of urgency is vital to achieving the required collaboration.

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:169), conclude that the successful implementation of new programmes depends on top management's ability to disseminate information about the change and convince employees of the urgency of change.

Kotter (2012:4) states that the most significant oversight that occurs during transformation processes in organisations is when change agents dive in without creating a strong awareness among managers and employees of the necessity to change. This mistake is deadly because change will fail at all times in achieving the change objectives when self-righteous/egotism/complacency levels are elevated.

4.3.2 Forming powerful coalitions

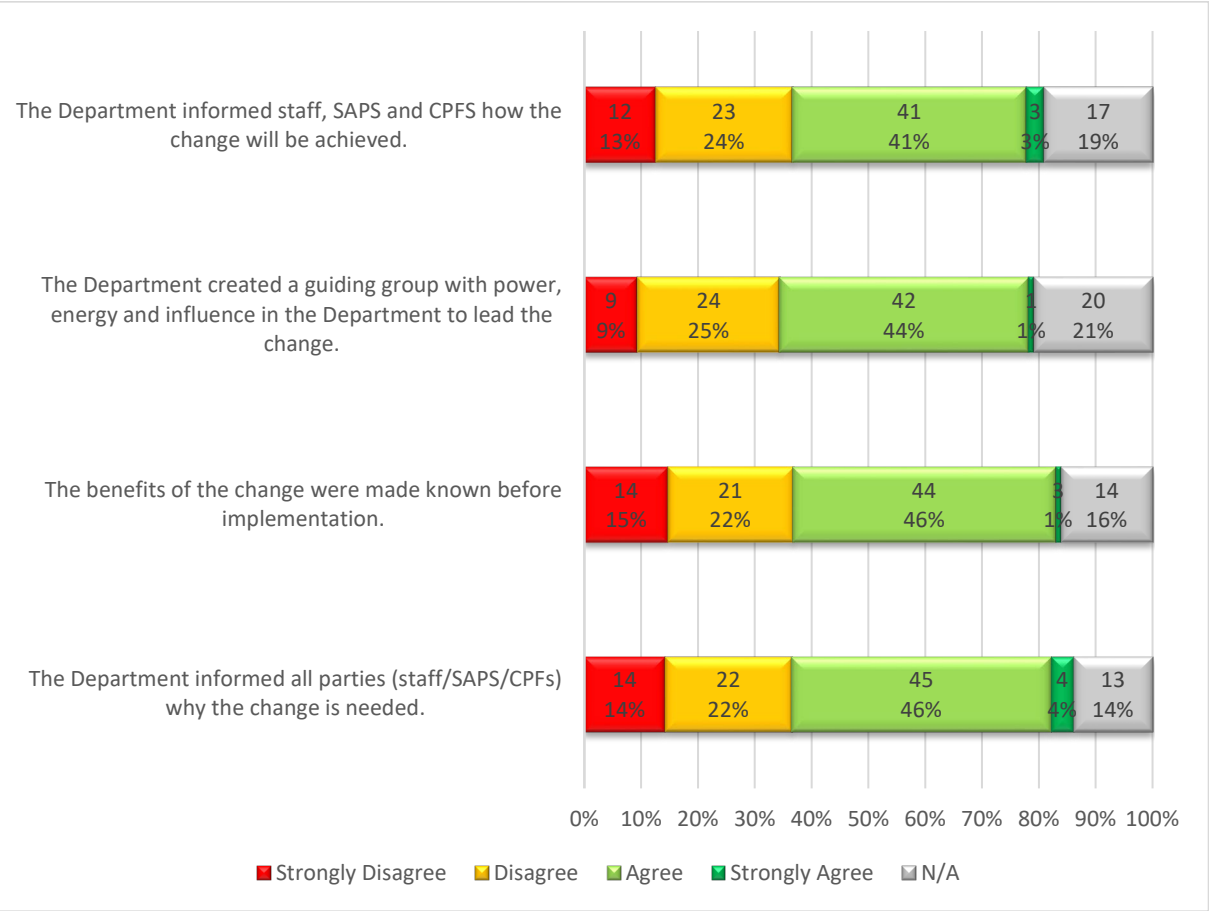

Figure 4.8: Forming powerful coalitions (n=96 and 98)

Only 44% of participants agreed (41% agreed, 3% strongly agreed) that DoCS did inform staff, SAPS and CPFs how the change will be achieved, while a significant 37% disagreed (13% strongly disagreed, 24% disagreed) with the statement. The remainder of participants (19%) remained neutral as they were either unaware or did not have the years of experience to express an opinion.

FGD Participants P2 and P3 said that literacy levels posed a challenge to CPFs and CPFs were not knowledgeable about the process and people do not take time to empower others when it comes to the system. P3 further highlighted that the "EPP was a challenge in the rural areas as they never had access/resources comparing to other CPFs that are well resourced. So, it had to be run from SAPS if they had the capacity". P3 also believed that "staff was not sufficiently informed. We keep on referring to CPFs as partners, but they were "informed" not partnered and not involved from the beginning. Other things came into play, like politics". P2

agreed and further highlighted that “CPFs were not involved or informed enough, where it was discussed in terms of vision to provide their input”.

Morgan (1921:155) opines that when you are aware of what you need to change in an organisation, the next step is knowing how to change it. The following rules apply to making any change: 1) Explain why the change is needed, 2) Name the benefits that could result from the change, 3) Seek questions and answer them, 4) Invite participation, 5) Avoid surprise, 6) Acknowledge the rough spots, 7) Set standards, 8) Contact informal leaders, 9) Praise: People in any new situation, but especially in reorganisation, are anxious. 10) Repeat: To put over something with the ramifications common to reorganisation, you must tell the story over and over, using fresh examples and different approaches. These rules are especially important for organisational change with its unusually strong cultural barriers to any shifts.

Less than half of the participants (45% — 44% agreed; 1% strongly agreed) agreed that DoCS created a guiding group with power, energy and influence to lead the change. A further 21% remained neutral, while a significant 34% of respondents disagreed (9% strongly disagreed, 25% disagreed) with the statement.

Kotter and Cohen (2012:3) found that steering teams with the necessary “credibility, skills, connections, reputations, and formal authority” to provide transformational leadership is established by more successful change agents whilst unsuccessful change agents depend on one individual or none, inadequate steering teams and committees or multifaceted governance structures, without the standing, skilfulness and authority to do the job. The remodelling process is cluttered with task teams inadequately prepared to produce the required change (Kotter & Cohen, 2012:3-4). Kotter (2012:6) confirms that attempts that lack enough persuasive guiding teams can make apparent progress for a brief time. A change in the organisational structure may occur, or a restructuring effort could be set in motion. However, inevitably counterbalance forces will subvert the initiatives. In a backstage struggle between an executive or a powerless committee and weak culture, the temporary self-interest – along with others, the winner tends to almost always be the latter. They prevent structural change from creating the behaviour change that was required.

Only 47% of participants agreed (46% agreed and 1% strongly agreed) that the benefits of the change were made known before implementation. A further 16% expressed no opinion on the matter. However, 15% strongly disagreed and 22% disagreed (37%) with the statement, indicating that the benefits of the change were not made known before implementation.

P3 stated “Staff did not fully understand the process nor were they involved to get a clear understanding of the benefits to be achieved”.

Kotter (2012:9-10) noted that no person is willing to make sacrifices, despite being unhappy with the status quo, unless the person feels that there are potential benefits of change and it is appealing, and they do believe that transformation is attainable.

Only 50% of respondents agreed (46% agreed and 4% strongly agreed) that DoCS informed all parties (DoCS staff, SAPs and CPFs) why the change is needed. A further 14% remained neutral, while a significant 36% of respondents disagreed (14% strongly disagreed and 22% disagreed) with the statement.

Justifying and backing the necessity for transformation is often supported by “communicating why transformation is unavoidable” (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:1546). Canada Life (2022) advocates that employers be explicit about why and how the change will be executed. Employers are encouraged to communicate multiple facts regarding the projected timeline and phases of the transformation. Employers should rather declare identified challenges in addition to fears before the personnel demonstrates that their experience is understood, and that the employer creates a constructive experience.

4.3.3 Creating a vision for change

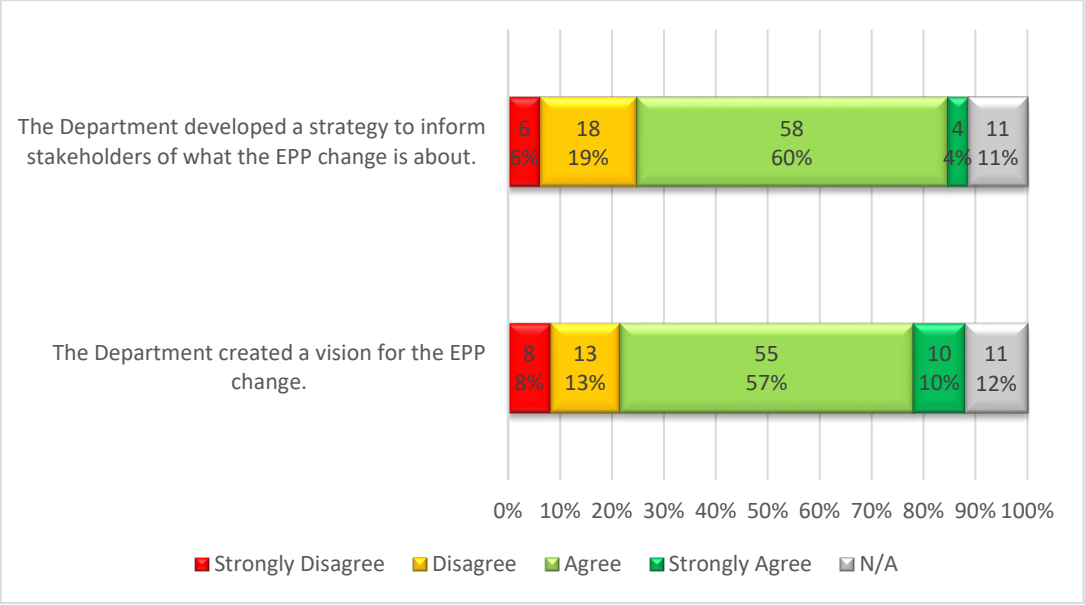

Figure 4.9: Creating a vision for change (n= 97)

The majority of respondents (67%) agreed (57% agreed and 10% strongly agreed) that DoCS created a vision for the EPP change, while 12% remained neutral. However, 21% disagreed (8% strongly disagreed and 13% disagreed) with the statement.

The process of convincing individuals of the need for change often begins with crafting a compelling vision. A vision presents a picture or image of the future that is easy to communicate and that organisational members find appealing (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169).

Kotter (2012:7-8) observed that “urgency” and a powerful leading team are required but these are not sufficient factors to achieve considerable change. A realistic vision is the most important factor that is without exception present in successful changes. A vision is key in creating advantageous transformation by assisting to manage, position and motivate achievements on behalf of significant numbers of people. In the absence of a suitable vision, a change endeavour can simply disintegrate into a list of perplex, irreconcilable and time-consuming projects headed in the wrong direction or not going anywhere at all. Through observing the challenge of making changes, there are those people that attempt to control affairs silently in the background and deliberately steer clear of any public discussion of prospective direction. However, in the absence of a vision guiding the decision-making, the choices faced by the employees can disintegrate into an endless debate. The most minuscule decisions can give rise to heated disputes that extract energy and tear down morale. Unimportant planned decisions/preferences tend to dominate discussions and squander valuable time.

The majority of respondents, 64%, agreed (60% agreed and 4% strongly agreed) that DoCS developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about while 1% remained neutral. The balance of 25% of participants disagreed (6% strongly disagreed and 19% disagreed) with the statement.

Fernandez & Rainy, (2006:169) highlight that managerial leaders must develop a strategy for implementing change as convincing the members of an organisation of the need for change is not enough to bring about actual change. The vision must be transformed into a strategy with aims as well as a plan for accomplishing it (Fernandez & Rainy, 2006:169). This strategy functions as a master plan for the organisation, suggesting by what method to come to the chosen model state, detecting stumbling blocks and recommending procedures to overcome those stumbling blocks. The key building blocks of the vision ought to be structured into a strategy for accomplishing that vision to prevent the transformation from disintegrating into a series of unconnected and unclear directives and activities (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:169).

The unambiguousness or level of specificity of the strategy besides the degree to which the strategy based on watertight causative theory are two aspects of a strategy that seem to be decisive for organisational change in state-run organisations. Policy implementation analysts have long noted the significance of unambiguous, detailed policy objectives and rational causative reasoning about the connection between the plan to be executed and the anticipated results (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:170). Detailed objectives assist in ensuring that the events executed in the field are aligned to the official policy by keeping a tight rein on the power of executing bureaucrats to transform the policy objectives and arrange for a standard of accountability. As Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:170) revealed that "policy ambiguity can sow confusion, allowing public managers to reinterpret the policy and implement it in a fashion that brings about few of the changes that policy makers intended".

4.3.4 Communicating the vision

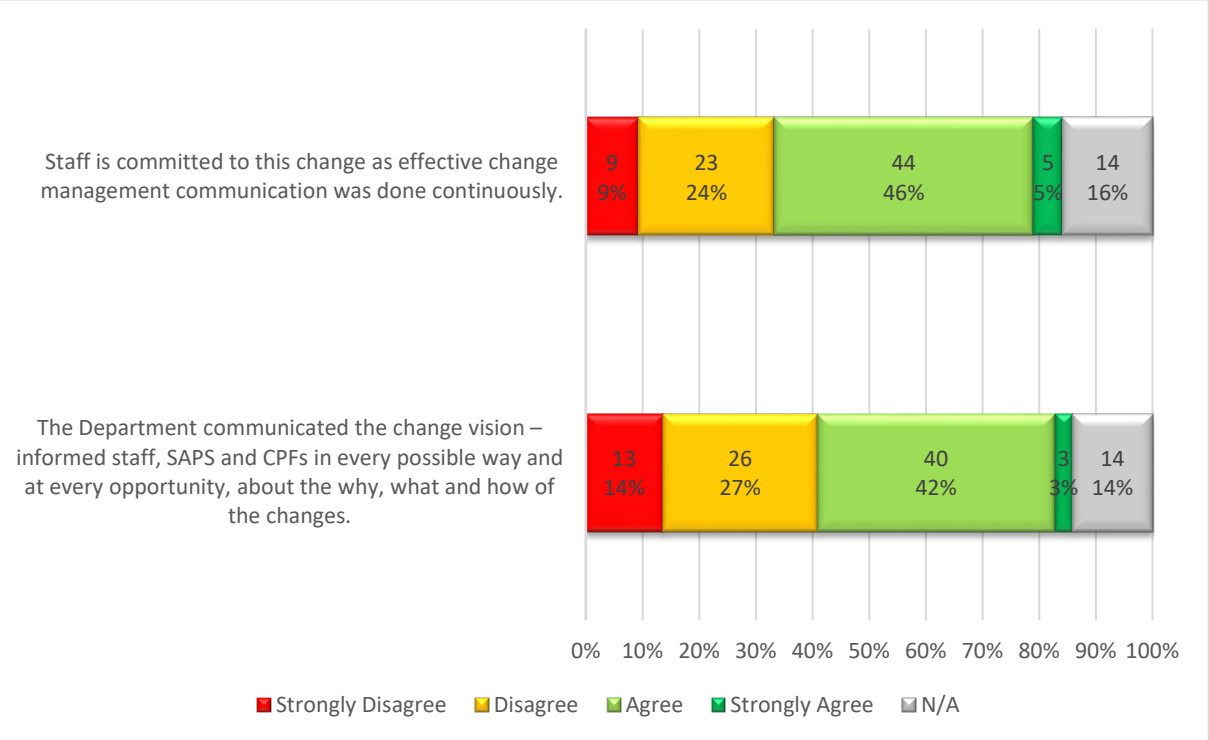

Figure 4.10: Communicating the vision (n=96 and 95)

Slightly more than half agreed (51%, of which 46% agreed and 5% strongly agreed) that DoCS staff is committed to this change as effective change management communication was done continuously. A further 16% of participants remained neutral. However, 33% disagreed (9% strongly disagreed and 24% disagreed) with the statement.

Kotter (2012:9-10) noted that the hearts and minds of staff members will not be conquered in the absence of lots of trustworthy communication. Communication dialogue possibly will lessen resistance amongst involved stakeholders whilst fostering a positive attitude to accept the institutional transformation. A strong transformation-orientated communication system must be implemented.

Fernandez and Rainy (2006:169), all agree that the public management literature contains evidence of the importance of determining the need for change and persuasively communicating it through a continuing process of exchange with as many stakeholders and participants as possible. Muluneh and Gedifew (2018:37) argue that communication should not only focus on creating an optimistic attitude and readiness among stakeholders but also equip workers with the essential competencies to do “adaptive work through change-oriented training”.

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:169) argue that to convince individuals of the need for and desirability of change and to begin the process of "unfreezing" an organisation requires effective written and oral communication and forms of active participation among employees. Every single party needs to be certain about the category and effects of changes being presented in the organisation. A clear exchange of ideas lessens disagreement and improves the change implementation process. Starting a resourceful communication system where ideas can be exchanged is an intense manner in which to confidently persuade staff of the transformation programmes. The communication system had better not be limited to create a helpful approach and preparedness amongst parties; it should also support “frontline workers” with the essential expertise to do “adaptive work through change-oriented training”.

Only 45% of the respondents agreed (42% agreed and 3% strongly agreed) that DoCS communicated the change vision by informing staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity about the why, what and how of the changes. A further 14% remained neutral, while 41% of participants disagreed (14% strongly disagreed and 27% disagreed) with the notion.

Crucial to an effective systems method and managing change of any kind is a satisfactory flow of information. Information forms the basis of managing change as only with good facts can you forecast change, and thus successfully manage it (Morgan, 1921:101). Similarly, Muluneh and Gedifew (2018:37) argue that communication reduces resistance, can sway staff to comprehend and support the change initiatives and improves the carrying out of the transformation process.

Sawitri and Wahyni (2018:259-267) consider readiness to change as a driving factor for change. Sawitri and Wahyni (2018:261) agree about the role leaders play in directing readiness to change. Managers must initiate beneficial transformations on the other hand deal with predictable opposition and conflict. Sawitri & Wahyni, (2018:261) found that conflict ensues usually when the interest group is distressed since they are of the opinion that their means, know-how, and competences are incapable of keeping up with the goal of transformation. The part of the manager in willingness to transform is to influence the members of staff's comprehension and confidence that transformation is required (Sawitri & Wahyni, 2018:261).

Stumbling blocks are the absence of a plan, altering plans, transformation exhaustion and many "cultures, missions and priorities" (Neill, 2018:1). Neill, (2018:1) report that 70% of change programmes grind to a halt, and the reason is frequently ascribed to weak communication, which suggests there might be a chance for public relations to play a role. Clear internal communication adds to staff members' confidence, loyalty and fulfilment (Neill, 2018:2). They agree that contentment with internal communication can influence staff members' engagement.

4.3.5 Removing obstacles

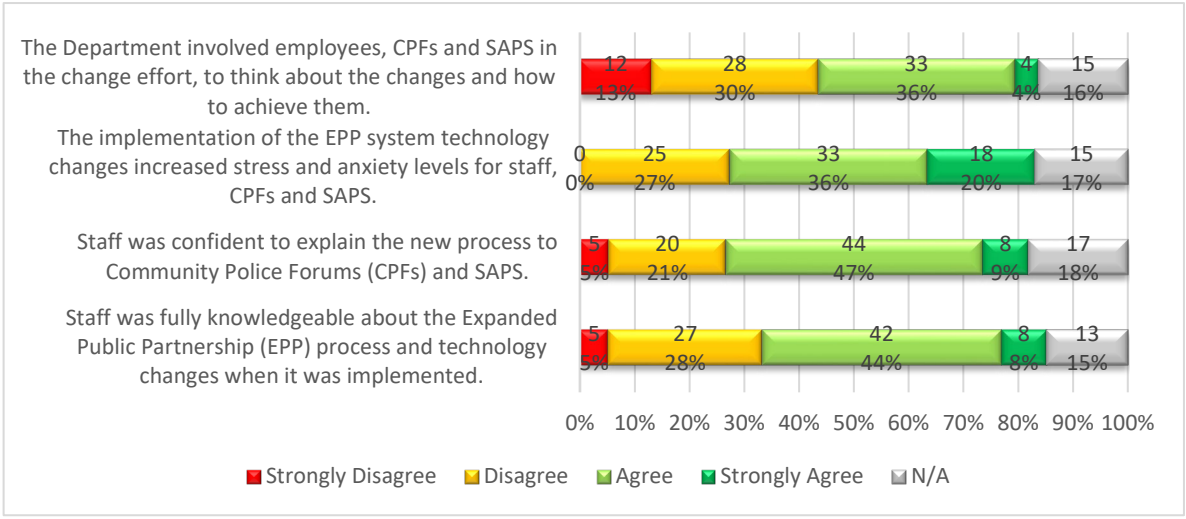

Figure 4.11: Removing obstacles (n=95, 94,91, 92)

Only 40% of participants agreed (36% agreed and 4% strongly agreed) that DoCS involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them, while 16% remained neutral. A significant 43% disagreed (13% strongly disagreed and 30% disagreed) with the statement.

FGD highlighted that “SAPS were not informed or involved at all and did not know that change was coming. SAPS had a problem with the EPP system and felt DoCs was overstepping its boundaries by paying CPFs to do oversight and how to do it, so it became a problem for SAPS and CPFs as SAPS is officially mandated to ensure that CPFs are established and DoCS assisted with funding and that is great to better implement their projects and fulfil their function as CPFs so a positive and negative connotation was created with the introduction of the EPP project and how to get the funding”.

Participant P1 indicated that “on the job training was provided and it was expected of junior staff to train seniors on the system”.

Kotter (2012:9-10) notes that significant change is not possible unless most employees are in support and eager to assist, very often having to make short-term sacrifices.

Some experts underscore the necessity to take on board gradual or incremental transformation on a small scale to develop impetus and validate the advantages of transformation is underscored by some experts whilst others contend that a fast rate of transformation can conquer inactivity and opposition (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173). Gradual implementation, however, may pose more of a challenge in the public sector than in business because frequent shifts in political leadership and short tenures for political appointees can cause commitment for change to wane (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173).

More than half of the respondents agreed (56%, of which 36% agreed and 20% strongly agreed) that the implementation of the EPP system technology changes increased stress and anxiety levels for DoCS staff, CPFs and SAPS. A further 16% remained neutral, while 27% of respondents disagreed (5% strongly disagreed and 21% disagreed) with the statement.

“Technology has the power to revolutionise the way an organisation does its business, such as by increasing productivity or reducing the workforce” (Baker, 2007:9). “Any change in an organisation or to an employee's role has the potential to cause stress. The stress can be overwhelming when an employee is also dealing with mental health issues (The Canada Life Assurance Company, 2022).

Kotter and Cohen (2012:2) found, after extensive research across 130 organisations, that the predominant challenge throughout the eight stages in the change process is to transform how people behave – not the “culture, systems or strategy, but what people do and the need for significant shifts in what people do”.

A significant 56% of participants agreed (47% agreed and 9% strongly agreed) that DoCS staff was confident to explain the new process to CPFs and SAPS, while 18% remained neutral. However, 26% disagreed (5% strongly disagreed and 21% disagreed) with the statement.

Participant P4 highlighted that staff were not adequately informed or involved by the managers, resulting in staff having to create their own storylines to introduce the EPP system to stakeholders. P3 agreed. P5 said that 20-25% of the time up to 100 CPFs submitted monthly reports and added that “especially after the first three years or so, I would say, staff were confident to explain the new process re the EPP to CPFs and SAPS”.

Slightly more than half (52%) of respondents agreed (44% agreed and 8% strongly agreed) that staff was fully knowledgeable about the EPP process and technology changes when it was implemented. A further 15% remained neutral and 33% disagreed (5% strongly disagreed and 28% disagreed) with the statement.

P3 confirmed that “staff were not sufficiently informed about the whole process, only what they needed to know. SAPS were not informed at all and did not know that change was coming. P5 added that “especially after the first three years or so, I would say, staff were confident to explain the new process re the EPP to CPFs and SAPS”.

Baker (2007:8-9) emphasises that whilst technology is a key driver for change, technological developments necessitate that organisations “need to respond to technology challenges such as increased automation of processes and systems, re-skilling staff and a whole range of other demands brought about by new or improved technology”. Baker (2007:11) further states that “technology should ideally be the enabler as much as the driver, and technology application will not be successful if it is not part of a broader strategic change management approach”. The author confirms that the potential of new technology applications is only fully realised if the organisation can embrace all the other changes “in roles and responsibilities, hierarchies, networks, and even physical estate”.

4.3.6 Creating short-term wins

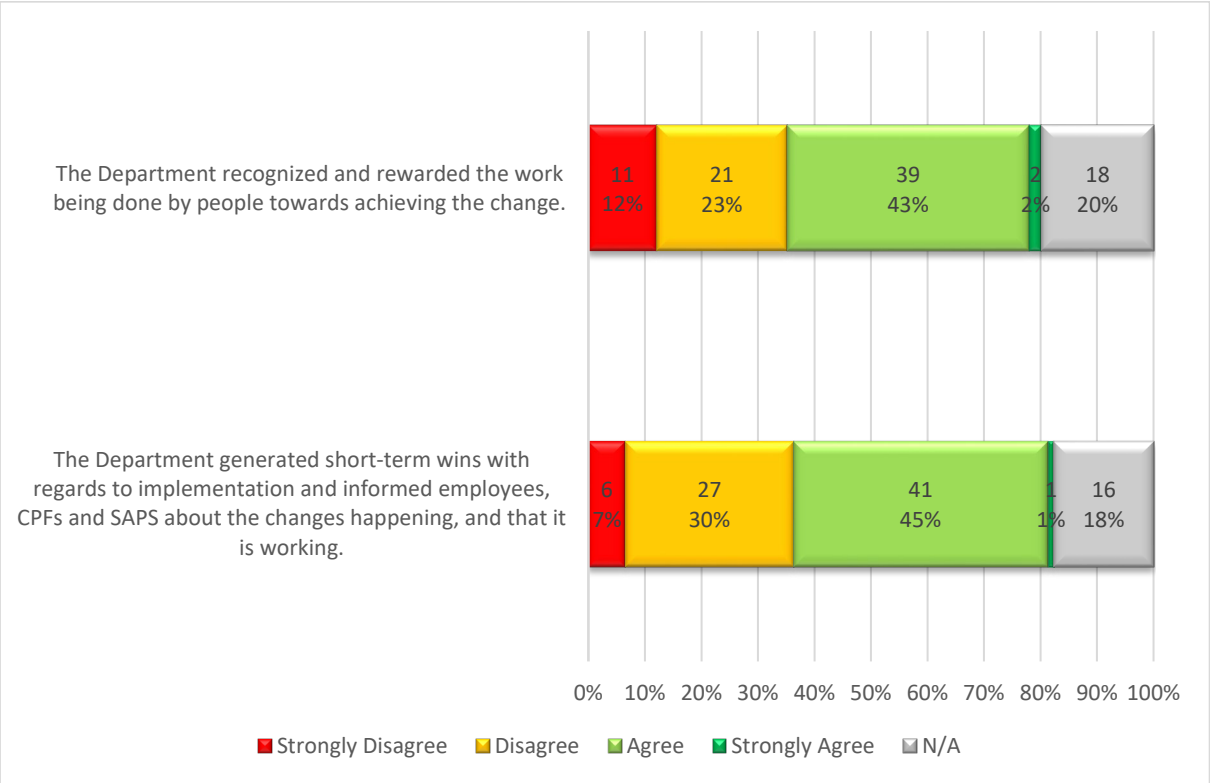

Figure 4.12: Creating short-term wins (n=91)

Only 45% of participants agreed (43% agreed and 2% strongly agreed) that DoCS recognised and rewarded the work being done by people towards achieving the change, while 20% remained neutral. A significant 35% disagreed (12% strongly disagreed and 23% disagreed) with the statement.

Participant P5 stated: “I believe more could have been done to celebrate CPFs that performed well in the EPP. However, there was a shortage of coordination and administrative capacity (in the Knowledge Management unit, at the time), to keep up with the EPP processes. The modernisation and upgrading of staffing levels should have been done in the early stages of the EPP, but this was never done. Consequently, fieldworkers had to perform dual roles (liaising with CPFs and doing administrative tasks relating to the EPP reports to process these). This resulted in a lack of capacity to improve turnaround times and fund the CPFs timeously. In turn, this created much frustration for CPFs, with DoCS. This became a never-ending cycle”.

The Canada Life Assurance Company (2022) offers several strategies to care for all employees during change, one of which is to “celebrate or recognise the good work that was

done under the old system". They claim that this step is "missed" every so often in change management. To promote the change, bosses will occasionally "dismiss or minimise any successes of the past". This possibly will result in long-term tenured employees "feeling" unacknowledged or discouraged. Acknowledging in what way they were able to achieve so much under the preceding system, is seemingly to leave them open to engaging in change.

Less than half of the participants agreed (46% - 45% agreed and 1% strongly agreed) that DoCS generated short-term wins with regards to implementation and informed DoCS employees, CPFs and SAPS about the changes happening and that it is working. However, a significant 37% of respondents disagreed (7% strongly disagreed and 30% disagreed) with the statement.

Participant P4 stated that "The Department did not inform staff that the changes are working" and P5 said "The EPP mainly had more medium- to long-term wins as the benefits could be seen over a period of time; in terms of patterns and trends at particular police stations, e.g. vehicle resource allocations and sick leave trends. Over time, the relationships between CPFs and SAPS officials improved, but this was not necessarily widely communicated."

Kotter (2012:11) confirms that complicated attempts in changing strategies or re-engineering businesses risk losing drive or impetus if there are no short-term objectives to achieve and proclaim. Most employees will not journey on a lengthy process except if receiving proof within 6-18 months that the migration is generating the anticipated outcomes. In the absence of short-term wins, disproportionate numbers of employees either quit or associate with those resisting.

Neill, (2018:5) believe that Directors (managers) ought to undertake the part of sense-makers by sharing with staff what the transformation intends and try to obtain their cooperation for those transformations. Furthermore Neill, (2018: 5) opines that managers can make the connotation clear "by connecting in words the fresh and the long-standing by revealing sections of overlay," harmonising factors or even inspiring workers to discard "one set of routines for another". In addition, Neill, (2018:5) advise that public relations experts have a responsibility in these efforts as they "write, edit, produce, and deliver a variety of sensemaking scripts" or important messages about the transformation. Simultaneously, Neill, (2018:5) continue that staff will have their own explanations of the transformations and will decide which messages to agree to take or discard—a process referred to as sense negotiating.

4.3.7 Building on the change

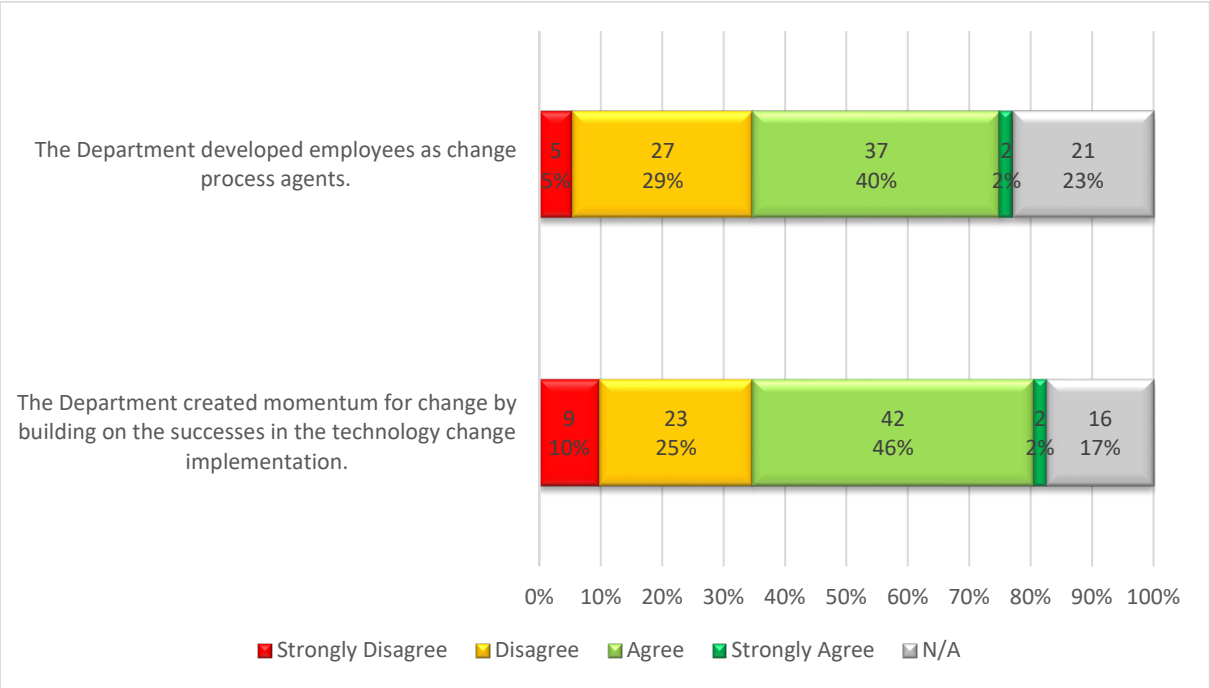

Figure 4.13: Building on the change (n=92)

Respondents were undecided whether DoCS built on the change. Only 42% agreed (40% agreed and 2% strongly agreed) that DoCS developed employees as change process agents, while 34% disagreed (5% strongly disagreed and 29% disagreed) with the statement. A significant 23% of participants remained neutral on this notion.

Participant P4 said the Department did not develop employees as change process agents and stated: “No, we were just thrown in it and had to go do and was expected to do training but was not trained and not developed as change agents”. This was echoed by (P5) who said that ”there wasn’t much support from DoCS to develop employees as change process agents. Employees had to find their own way, which was stressful”.

Lewis (1999, cited by Neill, 2018:6) found companies were not asking for responses from staff about the change. Proctor and Doukakis (2003, cited by Neill, 2018:6) researched change in a public organisation and discovered numerous difficulties amongst middle and front-line managers as well as “facts were held back, altered, manoeuvred, supplied unfairly delayed”.

O’Brien, (2002: 442-455) found that employee participation is essential in the public sector to guarantee approval of the change and effective support to their organisation. Several other

studies acknowledged the influence of employees' involvement in the change process on their agreement of this change (Fernandez & Rainey:168-176, 2006; Reid, Riemenschneider, Allen, & Armstrong, 2008:41-61).

Less than half of the participants agreed (48% – 46% agreed and 2% strongly agreed) that DoCS created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation, while 17% remained neutral and 35% disagreed (10% strongly disagreed and 25% disagreed) with the statement.

Participant P5 said that minimal momentum for change was created by the Department as the capacity at the Centre for E-Innovation (CeI) could only manage to implement new improved systems after years. P4 agreed and said some momentum was created as DoCS needed information. P3 also agreed that "DoCS received some information and used the budget, we did support and fund CPFs but what momentum for change was created? None. What was done about the information? It was sent from the Information and Knowledge Management (IKM) unit to provincial SAPS but it did not change anything". Processes were not formalised in several Directorates to action the information received.

Judson (1991, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173) strongly emphasises the need to collect data and monitor the implementation process to keep managers aware of the extent to which organisational members have adopted the change. Evaluation and monitoring efforts should continue even after the change is fully adopted to ensure that organisational members do not lapse into old patterns of behaviour (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173).

4.3.8 Anchor the changes in corporate culture

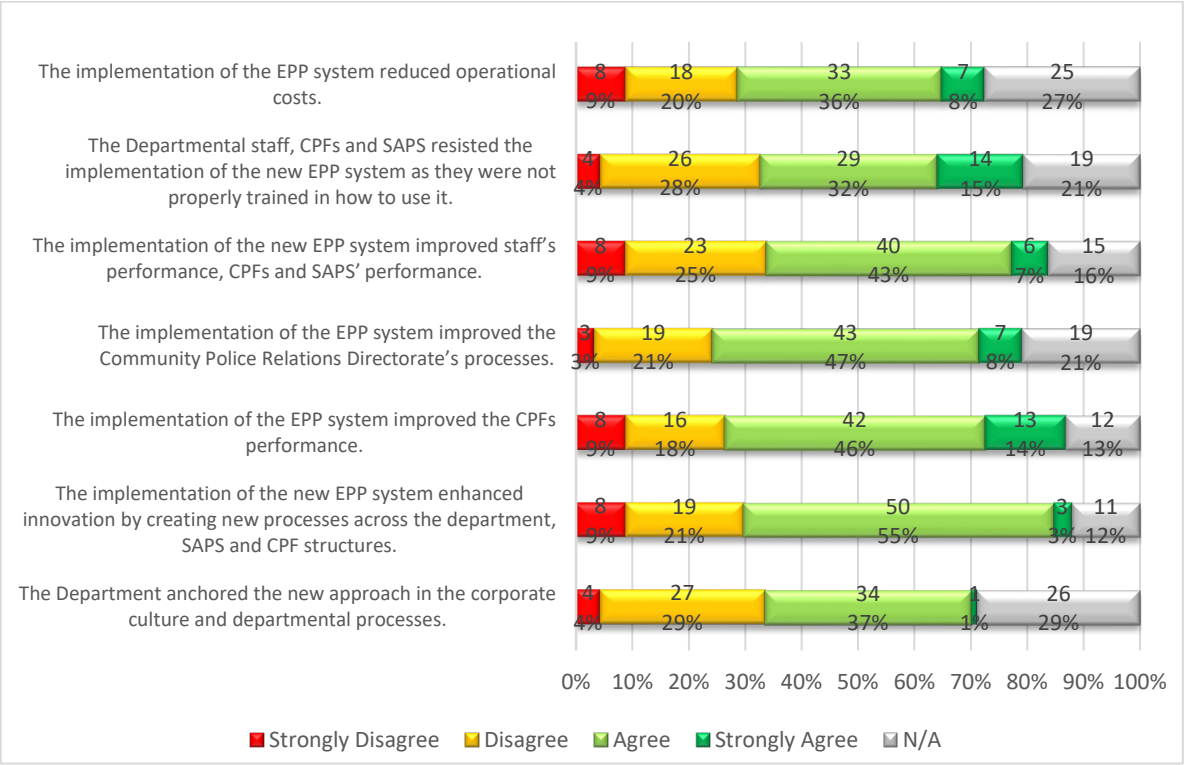

Figure 4.14: Anchor the changes in corporate culture {n=92,91,92,91,91,91,92,92,91)

Only 44% of respondents agreed (36% agreed and 8% strongly agreed) that the implementation of the EPP system reduced operational costs for DoCS, while 27% remained neutral and 29% disagreed (9% strongly disagreed and 20% disagreed) with the statement.

P3 indicated that "the cost was definitely more as processes were more and administratively intensive, and the Department had to pay CEI. Even driving was more as you had to go to CPFs several times".

Tolero Solutions (2020) note that when change management is implemented successfully, the following can be achieved: least resistance, augmented engagements, better performance, a reduction in cost and improved innovation.

Transformation in market conditions, labour force demographics and multiplicity, technological inventions, an improved client and value emphasis, scarcity of talent and economical transformations are some of the many types of transformations that organisations have to manage (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:7). As soon as managing these changes commences,

organisations are confronted with stumbling blocks concerning their effortless execution. Stumbling blocks might consist of several management blunders, such as insufficient planning of transformations, neglecting the schooling of members of staff in the field the transformation is taking place, not allowing adequate time required to become accustomed to carry out the transformation, stand up for members of staff opposing the transformation, an unsuitable culture of the establishment or failing to implement safeguards and authentications into the transformation procedure (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6). Most respondents agreed (47%–32% agreed and 15% strongly agreed) that DoCS staff, CPFs and SAPS resisted the implementation of the new EPP system as they were not properly trained in how to use the system. A further 21% remained neutral and 32% disagreed (4% strongly disagreed and 28% disagreed) with the statement.

Participants P3 and P4 said there was resistance when the EPP was instituted but over time it was accepted but not by everybody in the CPFs and SAPS. Up to now, CPFs have not participated. If there were true acceptance there would have been greater participation and less resistance. P3 said that whilst “staff cannot really resist, as you just have to do your job, but staff resisted because of the change process followed”. P4 stated that “staff were confused as to whose work they should be doing. CPF reports were only funded based on information provided and in some instances in the beginning the staff were not happy but afterward started accepting the system”.

Maurer (2010, cited by Fadzil et al., 2019:88) highlights that the biggest critical element determining successful organisational change is still resistance to change. Currently, the organisational change failure rate is 70% plus.

Zaltman and Duncan (1977, cited by Fadzil et al., 2019:88) describe resistance to change as deeds that are determined to guard a person from the impacts of actual or imaginary or any deed defending the status quo, all through the force to change the status quo. Folger and Skarlicki (1999) and Smollan (2011) cited by Fadzil (2019: 88) describe resistance as all staff actions that aim to disturb, confront or turn round existing traditions, dialogues and power relations; resistance is action shown by employees to reject the effect and control of their employers.

Numerous studies found that the majority of transformation processes fail. Beer and Nohria (2020:88) state that “the brutal fact is that about 70% of all change initiatives fail”. According to Kotter (2012:6), failure rates may be as high as 93% and one of the most-cited reasons for failure of organisational change is employee resistance. Kotter adds that restructuring can be destroyed through passive resistance from employees and managers. Quality programmes

are converted into sources of bureaucracy rather than a satisfactory customer-centric approach. Irrespective of how efficient or committed the head of staff members may be, guiding teams in the absence of powerful line leadership hardly ever secure the power needed to overcome what are often big sources of inactivity (Kotter 2012:6).

Kotter and Cohen (2012:3) confirm that unsuccessful change leaders aim their efforts at too few “relevant” people permitting “too much complacency, fear or anger, or all three, which can undermine” the transformation process. No matter how big or small the change, the receivers of change are people who normally determine whether change is succeeding or failing (Cameron & Green 2019:2). One of Lewin’s beliefs was that companies experienced a sense of being restrained in their current positions by what was called a combination of opposing forces. Furthermore, Lewin believed that for the organisation to experience change, the integral lethargy of individuals needed to be overcome. Lewin highlighted that there are two factors involved in the resistance to permanent change, namely: 1) the accumulation of habits, customs and personal behaviour patterns over a long period (years) and people’s resistance to change because it would alter to what they may be accustomed; and 2) the inclination for individuals to return to familiar behavioural patterns. Lewin adds that if change merely lasts for a short period, individuals will possibly revert to the established practices. In this, Lewin observed that if the three steps are followed it will lead to permanent and successful change (Leontiades, 1980:50). For any organisation, including a government Department to therefore effect lasting change, attention should be given to these phases of the change management process.

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:173) stress that both managers and employees must effectively institutionalise and embed changes. To make the change permanent, members of the organisation must incorporate the new policies or innovations into their daily routines. Virtually all organisational changes involve changes in the behaviour of organisational members. Employees must learn and make these behaviours routine in the short term, and leaders must institutionalise them over the long haul so that new patterns of behaviour displace old ones (Lewin, 1947; Greiner, 1967; Kotter, 1995; Edmondson et al., 2001, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173). Armenakis et al. (1999, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:174) developed a model for reinforcing and institutionalising change. According to the model, leaders can modify formal structures, procedures, and human resource management practices; employ rites and ceremonies; diffuse the innovation through trial runs and pilot projects; collect data to track the progress of and commitment to change; and engage employees in active participation tactics that foster "learning by doing".

The leadership have to develop in-house backing for transformation besides reducing opposition to it by means of extensive involvement in the transformation procedure in addition to other methods. Scholars of most important organisational transformations often state that effective leaders realise that transformation comprises a politically aware procedure of strengthening and cultivating backing from main stakeholders and organisational members of staff. Those that oppose transformation in organisations do so for diverse motives (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1999, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:176) - for example, certain designs for transformation are just ill-conceived, unfounded, or present damaging outcomes for members of the organisation. Though it may seem strange when taking on a valid besides well-conceived transformation plan, the leadership have to develop in-house backing in addition to overcoming opposition. Kotter (1995:60) warns managers against the risk of "playing it too safe" and noted that "when the urgency rate is not pumped up enough, the transformation process cannot succeed".

For years on end, social scientists have laid emphasis on the significance of successful and proper involvement, and other methods, in backing group and organisational transformation besides in lessening opposition to it (Lewin, 1947; Coch & French, 1948, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:177). Specialists have investigated additional methods of decreasing opposition to transformation. Judson (1991, cited by Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:173) pinpoints several approaches that supervisors can use to effectively minimise opposition to transformation: intimidations and coercion, critique, inspiration, incentives and remunerations, finding the middle ground and bartering, and guarantees against individual harm (e.g. offering job security or retraining to employees), mental support, members of staff involvement, ceremonials including celebrating members of staff’s endeavours to develop dependability, appreciation of the suitability of the change besides validity of historical attempts, and slow and flexible execution of transformation.

Apart from the others, intimidations, coercion, and critique could be counterproductive and increase opposition further. Wide-spread participation in the change process is perhaps the most frequently cited approach to overcoming resistance to change (Rainey, 2006:175). The literature reveals that including members of staff assists in reducing stumbling blocks to the transformation process by initiating mental ownership, advocating the distribution of noteworthy information, in addition to inspiring employee feedback for finetuning the transformation during execution. Involvement represents a significant possibility in state-run organisations. Career civil servants, who are supposedly inspired by carefulness and safety measures, can exploit the regular staff renewal rate amongst “top political appointees” to their benefit by basically refusing to accept innovative inventiveness up until another administration

comes into power. However, their partaking in the steps of transformation can assist in reducing this type of opposition. Fernandez & Rainey, (2006:170) narrate a constant practise of engagements with all categories of stakeholders - frontline members of staff, labour leadership, taxpayers and taxpayer groupings, executives, executives from the Treasury Department, members of Congress, and others.

Members of staff who are not ready for the transformation process are inclined to pay little attention to the transformation programmes. Hence five significant messages that ought to be addressed in the transformation process are included in the transformation factors. Discrepancy is the first message and is described as the change sandwiched between the present and model state. Organisational employees need to be put in the picture of the existing adverse state of affairs. If the gap is not brought to employees' attention, the transformation will fail as the urgency to make the change is not evident. Unaware that transformation is required will present a risk that can result in the organisation's rapid non-competitiveness. Accuracy is the second message and responds to the likelihood that a transformation programme is a suitable one. Once transformation introduction commences, it is essential to constantly communicate so that the transformation is not occurring in a vacuum. Questions around "changes for what" are likely and should be met with effective responses to make applicable and in-depth information available even to employees who are in agreement to the proposed transformation since members of staff who agree to the transformation process do not automatically come to an agreement with the transformation programme (Sawitri & Wahyni, 2018:262).

The level of agreement dropped slightly when prompted on whether the implementation of the EPP system improved the performance of DoCS staff, CPFs and SAPS. Half of respondents agreed (43% agreed and 7% strongly agreed) that it did improve performance but 16% rmained neutral 34% disagreed (9% strongly disagreed and 25% disagreed) with the statement.

Participant P4 stated that the EPP system improved the performance of DoCS staff, CPFs and SAPS as information was sent to the Provincial SAPS office and it created a partnership that improved the performance of CPFs. P1 agreed that performance levels improved for all parties, especially on complaints received from CPFs against SAPS and it improved performance overall. It also improved in terms of partnerships and improving the functionality of SAPS and CPFs and DoCS met its Annual Performance targets. P3 added that it improved the Community Police Relations Directorate's processes and to some extent SAPS' in assisting them in ensuring that legislatively the CPFs were doing what they were requested to do but for CPFs it was only to obtain the money". P5 felt that the system improved the performance of DoCS, as it was more structured and compliance-driven: CPFs were only paid after they

submitted the completed questionnaires. Compare this to project funding, whereby DoCS approves and then the funds are transferred, for CPFs to then still implement the planned projects. So, there was a reduced risk of DoCS not getting what it funded. For SAPS, it probably did improve performance, as SAPS had to show their compliance to CPFs, during, e.g. observation visits. For CPFs, it improved engagement in oversight and partnership activities due to the structured nature of the EPP questionnaire/tool.

Over half of the participants (55% – 47% agreed and 8% strongly agreed) that the implementation of the EPP system improved the Community Police Relations (CPR) Directorate's processes, while 21% remained neutral and 24% disagreed (3% strongly disagreed and 21% disagreed) with the statement. They indicated that the EPP system did not improve the Directorate CPR processes. This is the responsible Directorate within DoCS responsible for the implementation of the EPP and related technology and process changes.

Participants P1, P2 and P4 said it did improve processes within the CPR directorate as there were monthly structured reports from CPFs which increased DoCS' intelligence. In the absence of the reports but the Department is out of the information loop. P1 added that whilst IKM was the central custodian of the information, it was not clear if it was ever further referred to DoCS or SAPS for processing. Furthermore, the participant only knew about one enquiry from a sister directorate called Police Monitoring and Evaluation that enquired about Klawer police station's EPP report as the information was required for a State of Safety report that was drafted. Thus, in terms of internal processes, no new processes were formally created to utilise the information to improve the efficiency of SAPS. (P3) said "there were one or two requests for reports, but the reports were just filed or sent to finance to process for payment".

A 60% majority agreed (46% agreed and 14% strongly agreed) that the implementation of the EPP system improved the performance of CPFs while 27% disagreed (9% strongly disagreed and 21% disagreed) with the statement and 13% remained neutral.

Participant P1 stated that CPFs started doing police cell visits and SAPS had to give OB numbers and added to the Department's oversight function. I think the reason why the CPFs are saying that the EPP improved their performance is because they were able to measure their functionality in terms of being compliant within the EPP system. P4 said that with the EPP CPFs had to check and SAPS had to confirm that the report was done and was in a better place to do their duties. The EPP system gave CPFs more power/influence, while P3 believed that when the EPP system came in, it was for CPFs to know what they are supposed to do and they did not. And did not get funding. P3 disagreed that the EPP was to be used to measure the CPFs' functionality as they were measured based on their participation on the

EPP system and there were a lot of difference on opinion on this". participants P1 and P5 said that there was a marginal improvement in CPFs' performance as opposed to no improvement. There was a structured questionnaire that gave CPFs some direction and it was even praised by a few CPFs. Some CPFs started complying and some were impressed that DoCs did actually take note of it but other CPFs did a copy and paste job as they noted it was not closely monitored.

The majority of 58% agreed (55% agreed and 3% strongly agreed) that the implementation of the new EPP system enhanced innovation by creating new processes across DoCS, SAPS and CPF structures, while 12% remained neutral and 30% disagreed (9% strongly disagreed and 21% disagreed) with the statement.

From the FGD, it was clear that staff did not experience that the EPP system enhanced innovation by creating new processes across DoCS and it certainly did not impact most CPFs or SAPS. Participant P1 stated that DoCS did not move positively in terms of skills transfer for CPR staff and added that they worked on the EPP system and learned a lot but disappointing was that it took an extremely long time to develop parts of the system and got a sense that the CEI unit should have been more bolstered with capacity and it was realised that innovation costs lots of money. P3 added that the Department needs to take a new look at technology and how it is developed and implemented. In addition, P3 stated that the EPP system was not utilised enough, partly because we need to change our approach as a Department as SAPS is being examined and critiqued, don't take the Department too seriously as we could have done more with that information, and need innovative technology to generate reports which could have been sent out monthly to all the stations and taken seriously by station management.

Only 38% agreed (37% agreed and 1% strongly agreed) that DoCS anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and DoCS processes. A significant number of respondents (29%) remained neutral, while 33% disagreed (4% strongly disagreed and 29% disagreed) with the statement.

Participant P3 said that skills transfer did take place in terms of technology, but in terms of impact, the EPP system made no impact as DoCS regional managers also asked if any impact on SAPS is made as nothing was done about the information submitted and there were no outcome on the information provided. CEI's limited resources are all relevant in developing something but there was no outcome.

Kotter (2012:14) confirms that change is only anchored in corporate culture if it becomes the "way we do things around here" or institutionalised, when it becomes part of the "bloodstream" of the organisation. Kotter continues, that until innovative actions are entrenched in "social norms and shared values", they are continuously at risk of being degraded the second the pressures affiliated with a transformation effort are removed. There are two aspects of importance in making fresh approaches stick in organisational culture, one of which is a mindful effort to demonstrate to people how precise actions and attitudes have aided in the improvement of functioning.

Several authors agree that managerial leaders must develop an integrative, comprehensive approach to change that achieves subsystem congruence (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6). Academia lay emphasis on the leadership having to construct systematic alterations to the subsystems of organisations in alignment with the anticipated change for essential transformation in conduct to occur. If only a few subsystems are changed it cannot produce the required pressure to effect organisational change. Other academia cautioned that when several amendments are applied short of insight into or grasping the "structure and nature of the interconnections among subsystems" it may cause further expenses as well as a prolonged execution phase than estimated (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:7). Research done in the public sector also backing this line of reasoning. Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) also found attempts to put into practise an interactive culture in the U.S. Postal Service failed for the reason that management failed to amend organisational subsystems for the anticipated cultural change. Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) highlights the futility of trying to transform "attitudes and behaviours" in the direction of further joint effort and involvement when the organisational structure continues to be firmly ranked and fall short to endorse a team alignment. Notwithstanding the good judgment of this strategy, Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) advocates that subsystem compatibility may be more challenging to accomplish in state-run organisations than in the private sector since change agents in state-run organisations exercise less discretion than their private sector counterparts.

4.4 Findings

"If changes are occurring in your organisation—strategic, tactical, leadership or technology changes—then those changes are going to impact and have effects on your people, processes and performance. To help minimise those impacts and effects, from having unintended negative outcomes, it is necessary to have "change management" methodologies in place with skilled resources delivering and executing those methodologies, principles and processes. This helps to minimize possible negative outcomes and increase positive results. Change itself is a process – managing it, leading it, achieving it is also a process and one that should not be

viewed and managed with a one size fits all approach. Approaches and actions should be customised to fit your organisational circumstances" (Tolero Solutions, 2020).

Data analysis was done by Excel spreadsheets for the descriptive statistics and Pearson's Chi-Square crosstabulations using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 28. The Chi-Squared statistical test of Pearson was used to test the categorical data. This test determines if the data are significantly different from what was expected. Cross tabulations were used to determine the relationship between pairs of variables. The relationship between the pairs were found to be significant.

4.4.1 Validity

Pearson (1900:157-175) described the formula to compute Pearson's (χ^2) statistic. Contingency tables (2x2 tables) have two categories for each variable. The "Asymptotic Sig" which is the p-value, shows whether there is a significant relationship between all the pairs of questions tested. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square's Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table. To ensure that the expected count less than 5 was limited to 25% or less, the categories of agree and strongly agree and the categories disagree and strongly disagree were combined.

Serra et al (2019) argues that for Chi-squared tests to be valid a sample size based on reason not more than "20% of cells should have an expected count less than 5 and not one cell should have an expected count less than 1. Note "a." below the Cross tabulated output Tables in Appendix D indicates that the analysis is valid, and no cells have expected counts less than 5.

4.5 Research questions answered

Based on both qualitative and quantitative research results, the researched questions (as the key factors required for institutionalised change) are answered below:

A summary of the findings on the Chi-Square test conducted for the quantitative data, the content analysis technique conducted on the qualitative data and the eight key factors influencing change management is listed in Table 4.1 below. Positive ratings are highlighted in green and negative ratings in red.

Table 4.1: Summary of findings

Change management process	Data analysis/ratings	Summary of findings
Creating urgency 	More than half (59%) agreed that DoCS made effort to help DoCS Staff, CPFs and SAPS understand the need for change.	Most respondents thought that DoCS made effort to help stakeholders understand the need for change and the urgency thereof. The relationship between Q01 and Q04 is significant (χ^2= 27.202, p < 0.001).
	A combined majority of 61% agreed that DoCS established a sense of urgency about the need to achieve change. The Department created a vision for the EPP change (Q1) and made stakeholders (SAPS, CPFs and DoCS staff) understand the need for change (Q4).	
Forming powerful coalitions 	44% agreed that DoCS informed DoCS staff, SAPS and CPFs how the change will be achieved.	The relationship between Q07 and Q08 is significant (χ^2= 16.446, p < 0.001). The relationship between Q06 and Q11 is significant (χ^2= 9.836, p < 0.002). Respondents felt that powerful coalitions were not formed. Neither did DoCS inform key stakeholders how the change will be achieved, nor what the benefits of the change are and less than half acknowledged that a guiding group with power, energy and influence was
	Less than half (45%), agreed that DoCS created a guiding group with power, energy and influence in DoCS to lead the change (Q7). The Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved (Q8).	
	47% of participants agreed that the benefits of the change were made known before implementation (Q6). Staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented (Q11).	
	Half of the respondents (50%) agreed that DoCS informed all parties (DoCS staff, SAPs and CPFs) why the change is needed.	

Change management process	Data analysis/ratings	Summary of findings
		created. DoCS also did not inform stakeholders why the change is needed.
Creating a vision for change 	Most respondents (67%) agreed that DoCS created a vision for the EPP change Q1).	Most respondents believed DoCS created a vision for the EPP and developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the change is about.
	The majority (64%) agreed that DoCS developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about (Q2). The Department created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation (Q17). The Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved (Q08). The Department developed employees as change process agents (Q18).	The relationship between Q02 and Q17 is significant (χ^2= 15.428, p < 0.001). The relationship between Q02 and Q08 is significant (χ^2= 26.165, p < 0.001). The relationship between Q02 and Q18 is significant (χ^2= 11.704, p < 0.001).
Communicating the vision 	Just over half (51%) agreed that DoCS staff is committed to this change as effective change management communication was done continuously (Q10).	The relationship between Q09 and Q10 is significant (χ^2= 14.618, p < 0.001). DoCS did not perform well in communicating the vision and staff were divided in terms of their commitment to the change as change management communication was not done continuously.
	Less than half (45%) agreed that DoCS communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes (Q9). The Department generated short-term wins with regards to implementation and informed employees, CPFs and SAPS about the changes happening, and that it is working (Q15).	The relationship between Q09 and Q15 is significant (χ^2= 20.264, p < 0.001).
Removing obstacles 	40% agreed that DoCS involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them (Q14).	The relationship between Q14 and Q03 is significant (χ^2= 11.641, p < 0.001). DoCS did not perform well in removing the obstacles to change. Stakeholders felt
	More than half of the respondents (56%) agreed that the implementation of the EPP system	

Change management process	Data analysis/ratings	Summary of findings
	technology changes increased stress and anxiety levels for DoCS staff, CPFs and SAPS.	left out of the process when it came to think about the changes and how to achieve them. Their stress and anxiety levels increased significantly. However, they believed that DOCS staff was confident to explain the new process to CPFs and SAPS but were not fully knowledgeable. The relationship between Q07 and Q08 is significant (χ^2= 16.446, p < 0.001). The relationship between Q12 and Q11 is significant (χ^2= 31.667, p < 0.001). The relationship between Q12 and Q24 is not significant but a notable relationship (□2= 3.375, p < 0.066).
	The Department established a sense of urgency about the need to achieve change (Q03). More than half (56%) agreed that DoCS staff was confident to explain the new process to Community Police Forums (CPFs) and SAPS (Q12). The Departmental staff, CPFs and SAPS resisted the implementation of the new EPP system as they were not properly trained in how to use it (Q24).	
	Slightly over half (52%) agreed that staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented (Q11).	
Creating short-term wins 	45% agreed that DoCS recognised and rewarded the work being done by people towards achieving the change (Q16).	DoCS did not perform well in terms of creating short-term wins by recognising and rewarding work done by people towards achieving change and did not inform stakeholders that the change is working.

Change management process	Data analysis/ratings	Summary of findings
	whilst it created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation (Q17).	The relationship between Q16 and Q17 is significant (χ^2= 27.217, p < 0.001).
	Less than half (46%) agreed that DoCS generated short-term wins with regards to implementation and informed DoCS employees, CPFs and SAPS about the changes happening and that it is working.	
Building on the change 	42% of participants agreed that DoCS developed employees as change process agents.	Respondents were of the view that DoCS did not perform well in building on the change process by developing employees as change process agents, nor did DoCS create any momentum.
	48% agreed that DoCS created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation.	
Anchor the changes in corporate culture 	Only 44% of the respondents believed the implementation of the EPP system reduced operational costs for DoCS (Q25). The Department informed all parties (staff/SAPS/CPFs) why the change is needed (Q5).	The relationship between Q05 and Q25 is significant (χ^2= 6.692, p < 0.010). Respondents were of the view that DoCS did not manage to anchor the changes in the corporate culture of DoCS. Neither did the change reduce operational costs for DoCS. There was resistance to the implementation of the change, due to lack of training in how to use the system. Respondents were undecided whether the
	Almost half of participants (47%) agreed that DoCS staff, CPFs and SAPS resisted the implementation of the new EPP system as they were not properly trained in how to use the system.	
	Half of the respondents (50%) agreed that the EPP system improved the performance of DoCS, SAPS and CPFs.	
	Slightly more than half (55%) agreed that the implementation of the EPP system improved the Community Police Relations Directorate's processes.	

Change management process	Data analysis/ratings	Summary of findings
	The majority (60%) agreed that the implementation of the EPP system improved the performance of CPFs (Q21). Q21 had a significant relationship with the improved performance of staff, CPFs and SAPS (Q23).	change improved the performance of the stakeholders. Only a few more than half believed the change improved the processes of CPR. Most believed the change improved the performance of CPFs. The relationship between Q21 and Q23 is significant (χ^2= 37.539, p < 0.001).
	More than half (58%) agreed that the implementation of the new EPP system enhanced innovation by creating new processes across DoCS, SAPS and CPF structures. The implementation of the EPP system improved the Community Police Relations Directorate's processes (Q22) had a significant relationship with the performance of staff, CPFs and SAPS (Q23).	The relationship between Q22 and Q23 is significant (χ^2= 39.487, p < 0.001).
	Only 38% agreed that DoCS anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and Departmental processes (Q19).	The relationship between Q01 and Q19 is significant (χ^2= 12.322, p < 0.001).
	The implementation of the new EPP system enhanced innovation by creating new processes across the department, SAPS and CPF structures (Q20). The Department anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and departmental processes (19).	The relationship between Q19 and Q20 is significant (χ^2= 16.776, p < 0.001).

4.5.1 What are the different change management models available to institutionalise change management practices in a government department?

Whilst the literature did not show preference for once specific model used by government departments, many well established models are available to institutionalise change management practices in a government department as outlined in Chapter 2.

4.5.2 What are the key factors required to institutionalised change management practices to implement additional and new technologies in a government department?

Eight key factors were explored as requirements to institutionalise change management practices namely: creating urgency for the envisaged change, forming powerful coalitions, formulating and communicating a vision, removing obstacles for change to happen, creating short term wins during the implementation process, building on changes and anchoring/ institutionalise change in corporate culture.

4.5.3 Whether there was any focus on the key factors required for effective, sustainable change to be institutionalised?

The data showed that only two of the eight key factors required to implement sustainable change were followed and DoCS did not focus on the other key factors required for effective sustainable change to be institutionalised.

4.5.4 Whether an urgency for change was created?

Most respondents thought that DoCS made an effort to help stakeholders (SAPS, CPFs and DoCS employees) understand the need for change and the urgency thereof but focus group respondents could not articulate what the urgency was.

4.5.5 Whether powerful coalitions were formed?

Respondents felt that powerful coalitions were not formed, neither did DoCS inform key stakeholders why the change is needed or how the change will be achieved, nor what the benefits of the change are and less than half was aware that a guiding group with power, energy and influence was created.

4.5.6 Whether a vision was formulated and communicated?

Most respondents believed DoCS created a vision for the EPP and developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the change is about. However, that vision was ill-defined and not communicated well nor consistently. DoCS did not perform well in communicating the vision and staff were divided in terms of their commitment to the change as change management communication was not done or continuously so.

4.5.7 Whether obstacles were removed for change to happen?

Respondents indicated that DoCS did not perform well in removing the obstacles to change. Stakeholders felt left out of the process when it came to thinking about the changes and how to achieve them. Their stress and anxiety levels increased

significantly. However, they believed that DOCS staff was confident to explain the new process to CPFs and SAPS but were not fully knowledgeable to do so.

4.5.8 Whether short-term wins were created during the change management process?

Respondents indicated that DoCS did not perform well in terms of creating short-term wins by recognising and rewarding work done by people towards achieving change nor did not inform stakeholders that the change is working. Academics found that efficient in-house communication have a positive effect on “engagement and commitment”, however sub-standard communication can give rise to detachment (Welch, 2011:115-116). The damages related to deprived employee relations are substantive and projected at $450 to $550 billion per annum together with non-attendance, work force complaints, manufacturing disruptions, overhaul as well as service contract costs, and deficits (Gallup, 2013; Lloyd, 2002:44-46; Saks, 2006:600-619). It is to be expected that keeping members of staff actively involved during times of organisational transformation will be challenging because of the vagueness existing in the place of work including the variety of reactions members of staff are going through like “anger, resentment, and frustration” (Luo & Jiang, 2014:162-163).

4.5.9 Whether building on changes were done?

Respondents were of the view that DoCS did not perform well in building on the change process by developing employees as change process agents, nor did DoCS create any momentum or created or changed subsystems in the Department to support the change.

4.5.10 Whether change was anchored or institutionalised in corporate culture?

Respondents were of the view that DoCS did not manage to anchor the changes in the corporate culture of DoCS. Neither did the change reduce operational costs for DoCS. There was resistance to the implementation of the change, amongst others due to a lack of training in how to use the system or explain to others how it works.

Respondents were undecided whether the change improved the performance of the stakeholders. Only a few more than half believed the change improved the processes of the Directorate Community Police Relations. Most believed the change improved the performance of Community Policing Forums.

4.5.11 What change management guidelines a government department need to implement additional and new technologies to improve performance.

The training or reskilling of staff and relevant stakeholders with especially IT related changes are crucial to ensure it is institutionalised. Public sector departments must create a change vision and strategy to inform stakeholders what the change is about, create a sense of urgency for the envisaged change and make effort to ensure stakeholders and staff (internal and external) understand the need for change and or why the change is needed.

Planned, consistent, continuous, appropriate and clear communication internally and externally is required and essential throughout the change management process addressing the why, the what and the how of the change/s in every possible way and at every opportunity. In addition, all relevant stakeholders must be informed of the kind of change envisaged, the urgency thereof, why it is needed and the potential benefits it will have, how it will be achieved, and short-term wins with regards to change implementation and that it is working.

Obstacles must be removed by allowing stakeholders to be involved in the change effort, to think about the change/s and how to achieve them and more importantly be properly trained in how to use new technology/any other changed processes/procedures.

The change/s must be anchored in corporate culture and Departmental processes and procedures. Successful and institutionalised change can only be achieved if subsystem congruence across the organisation is achieved. Change should be institutionalised by ensuring that all processes in different directorates are changed and mostly that behaviour change to sustain lasting change.

The change/s must reduce operational costs, improve the performance of the department or that of its stakeholders and enhance innovation by creating new processes across the Department and its stakeholder structures.

4.5.12 What are the different change management models available to institutionalise change management practices in a government department?

There are many change models (Lewin, Kotter, Jick and Kanter, Hamel, Judson, Lueke and Insurrection to name a few) available as discussed in Chapter 2 which can be applied to institutionalise change management practices in a government department. Professor Kotter's Leading Change model is the most widely used model.

4.6 Conclusion

Muluneh & Gedifew, (2018:24) confirms that change is an undeniable portion of organisational life, as is resistance to change. How the public sector Departments manage this, will to a large extent determine the success of change management.

The failure to effectively implement and institutionalise the EPP system has hindered the department's ability to improve performance through technology. Resistance to change among staff and CPFs as “end-users of new technology”, inadequate training, and a lack of stakeholder involvement from the onset were key issues (Cameron & Green, 2019:2; Rehouma et al., 2020:52). Muluneh and Gedifew (2018:24) highlight that change is a constant in organisational life, driven by factors such as globalisation and technological transformation. However, the DoCS has struggled to adapt to these changes, impacting the sustainability and functionality of CPFs, as well as the effectiveness of their oversight roles.

The primary reason this situation is problematic is that the intended outcomes of the EPP namely to increase CPF sustainability, effectiveness, active citizenship, and police accountability, are not being realised (Western Cape Department of Community Safety, 2014:31). The inability to fully engage CPFs and staff in the new system undermines these goals and leads to a failure in leveraging the potential benefits of the technology (Baker, 2007:11). Furthermore, the lack of a systematic change management process means that resistance to change persists, and the necessary adjustments in roles, responsibilities, and skills are not being made (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6; Fernandez & Rainey, 2006:168-173). This has resulted in a significant waste of resources and missed opportunities for improving community safety and police oversight in the Western Cape.

Rehouma et al., (2020:52) found that in the public sector, staff involvement is dealt with when needed, with no explicit understanding of the situation, or guiding principles or intentions.

Dobrovič & Timková, (2017:6) argues that behind each transformation, there ought to be discontent with the way things work. Therefore, organisations need to consider and reflect on whether transformation is required. Organisations must agree on their situation, where they would prefer to be, and the envisaged position as soon as the transformation transpires (Dobrovič & Timková, 2017:6).

The next chapter presents the recommendations and conclusion.

CHAPTER 5: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 discussed the results of the research study, findings and the interpretation thereof based on the addition and implementation of new technology (a new web-based Police Oversight application) called the Expanded Partnership Programme (EPP) within the Western Cape Department of Community Safety to boost the Department's oversight role. The literature was used to augment the existing body of knowledge. The chapter concluded with answers to the research questions.

This final chapter concludes the research study. It provides an overview of the research, revisits the research questions, objectives and suggests recommendations.

5.2 Overview of the research

This study focused on the addition of technology (a new web-based Police Oversight application) called the EPP within the Western Cape DoCS to strengthen DoCS' oversight role. The study looked at how the changes were managed within DoCS to ensure lasting and institutionalised change.

The research philosophy is pragmatic as it is a combination of both positivist and interpretivist or objectivist and subjectivist as a mixed method approach was followed.

This study utilised qualitative and quantitative research methods to answer the research questions.

Goundar (2012:7) highlights that quantitative research. is more appropriate to determine the extent of a problem, issue, or phenomenon by quantifying the variation, whilst qualitative research is more appropriate to explore the nature of a problem, issue, or phenomenon without quantifying it.

5.3 Research objectives revisited

The research objectives were:

a) To identify different change management models to institutionalise change management practices in a government department,

b) To determine the key factors of change management practices required to implement additional and new technologies in a government department,

c) To recommend general change management guidelines for government departments for the implementation of additional and new technologies to improve performance.

5.3.1 Research questions

To address the above-stated objectives, the following research questions were applied:

a) What are the different change management models available to institutionalise change management practices in a government department?

b) What are the key factors required to institutionalised change management practices to implement additional and new technologies in a government department?

c) What change management guidelines a government department need to implement additional and new technologies to improve performance.

5.4 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to test theory and develop policy guidelines for government Departments to effect strategic change management. Tolero Solutions (2020) define change management as “a framework used to support and understand the change and its effect on the organisation, processes and its people”. This study aimed to explore different change management models available, the key factors required to institutionalised change management practices for sustainable change in a Western Cape Government Department and to recommend management guidelines needed to implement new technologies to improve performance.

Research is defined by several authors. Gaundar (2013:4) defines research as a “process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information to answer questions” and Gupta and Awasthy (2015:4) define it as a method “to get deeper insight into any concept, issue or process”. Gupta & Awasthy, (2015:5) defines research as a “process of gathering data, information and facts for the advancement of knowledge”.

Gaundar, (2013:3) confirm that research is a coherent and methodical exploration of novel and helpful data on a specific subject. It is a study of discovering answers to scientific and social problems through impartial, empirical and methodical breakdown. It is a hunt for facts,

a detection of unknown realities. At this point, facts imply data around topics. The data may be gathered from diverse informants such as knowledgeable people, manuscripts, journals and natural surroundings. Studies can cause novel add-ons to the current facts/information. Merely through investigation it is likely to make headway in a field. Investigations are completed through learning, conducting tests, watching, breaking down, contrasting and deduction. Investigations inquire about the likelihoods of occurrences and clarifications, correlations and assumptions for them (Gaundar, 2013:3).

When a research study is implemented to find solutions to a query it is implied that the procedure is carried out surrounded by a structure of a collection of philosophies, investigative methodologies utilising techniques, approaches and procedures which were assessed for their legitimacy (validity) and dependability (reliability) and are invented to be impartial and verifiable.

Gaundar (2013:4) states that “to qualify as research, the process must be controlled, rigorous, systematic, valid and verifiable, empirical and critical”.

Change management factors, available models of change management were researched, and findings and views were cited in support of the study. Several recommendations (policy guidelines) are made for government departments to consider when changes are planned.

5.5 Recommendations

a) Government Departments must at the very least follow change management theories to achieve sustainable change.
b) When change is introduced and implemented the key factors required to institutionalised change should be incorporated into the strategy.
c) State-run organisations should consider when or under what circumstances change is required and not just when the political leadership change.
d) Public sector departments must create a change vision and strategy to inform internal and external stakeholders what the change is about, create a sense of urgency for the envisaged change and make effort to ensure stakeholders understand the need for change and or why the change is needed.
e) Planned, consistent, continuous, appropriate and clear communication internally and externally is required and essential throughout the change management process addressing the why, the what and the how of the change/s in every possible way and at every opportunity. In addition, all relevant stakeholders must be informed of the kind of change envisaged, the urgency thereof, why it is needed and the potential benefits

it will have, how it will be achieved, and short-term wins with regards to change implementation and that it is working.

f) Any change within public sector Departments must be accompanied by a strong communication plan throughout the change process steps to ensure meaning and purpose. All change processes should clearly communicate the vision and what the intended outcomes are. Departments and communication plans must be very explicit about why and how the planned changes will be executed.

g) Powerful coalitions /capable guiding group need to be formed with power, energy and influence to lead the change, to communicate how the change will be achieved and what the benefits of the change are and to ensure momentum is created and maintained.

h) Public sector departments must create momentum for change by celebrating milestones achieved and building on the successes in the change implementation.

i) Short-term wins of work being done by people towards achieving the change should be recognised and rewarded.

j) Employees must be developed and empowered as change process agents.

k) Obstacles must be removed by allowing stakeholders to be involved in the change effort, to think about the change/s and how to achieve them and more importantly be properly trained in how to use new technology/any other changed processes/procedures.

l) The change/s must be anchored in corporate culture and Departmental processes and procedures. Successful and institutionalised change can only be achieved if subsystem congruence across the organisation is achieved. Change should be institutionalised by ensuring that all processes in different directorates are changed and mostly that behaviour change to sustain lasting change.

m) The change/s must reduce operational costs, improve the performance of the department or that of its stakeholders and enhance innovation by creating new processes across the Department and its stakeholder structures.

n) It is recommended that all middle, senior and top management members within DoCS and government Departments be trained in change management processes as it is vital for the leadership of public sector Departments to familiarise themselves with the latest practices and theories around change management to ensure sustainable change.

o) Departments should consider adding the change management function to their Strategic Planning Departmental structures or create a new structure for this function and an Organisational Development work study should be launched into the feasibility thereof.

p) Active involvement of staff should be used as a strategy to reduce resistance to change.
q) The training or reskilling of staff and relevant stakeholders with especially IT related changes are crucial to ensure it is institutionalised.
r) A channel for regular feedback must be created and implemented and change managers must act on suggestions to create meaningful change.

5.6 Contribution of the study

The study contributed to the body of knowledge in highlighting key factors required to implement a successful change process within an organisation/government department utilising a change management model. The implementation of change management practices can help facilitate transformation by providing a structured approach for managing change, identifying potential resistance to change, and ensuring that employees are engaged and supportive of the change process (Cameron & Green, 2019:61-63).

5.7 Limitations and challenges of the study

The limitations were weighed against the benefits to determine the most suitable approach for this specific study and a mixed method approach was chosen. Mixed methods research offers valuable insights by integrating both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

There are several limitations and challenges to a mixed methods study which are briefly outlined below:

Conducting a mixed methods study can be more complex than using a single research method. It requires expertise to collect and analyse data from both quantitative and qualitative sources (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018:55-56; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010:29-30). The unwillingness of staff, SAPS station commanders and CPF chairpersons to participate in the study was a limitation. The unwillingness of DoCS to avail the staff for the completion of the questionnaire and attendance of the focus group and access to records were further limitations. All CPFs are not equally computer literate which impacted their ability to respond to the call to complete the questionnaire.

Access to the 151 CPFs' email addresses was a limitation and caused significant time delays in receiving and responding to the survey. At the time of sending out the questionnaire, DoCS only acknowledged 82 CPFs as functional and provided only these email addresses.

The Provincial South African Police Commissioner was not asked to grant permission for the station commanders to complete the study, which might have limited their responses.

Combining different methods demands extra resources, such as time and money. Researchers need to allocate resources for data collection, analysis and interpretation across both quantitative and qualitative domains (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018:45-46).

Sometimes, mixed methods research lacks a clear purpose or substantive focus. It's essential to define the research question and ensure that both quantitative and qualitative components align with the study's objectives (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018:65-66).

Properly quantifying qualitative data (coding) can be challenging. Researchers must use appropriate techniques to translate qualitative insights into quantifiable data for meaningful analysis (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013:2134-2156).

While quantitative research allows for generalisability (external validity), qualitative research often has a smaller sample size and is less generalisable. Combining both methods can mitigate this limitation, but it requires careful consideration (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018:209-210).

The study was executed only in the Western Cape Province as this programme is unique to the Western Cape, which inevitably limits the generalisation of the study although the change management principles will remain the same.

The COVID-19 pandemic and the hard lockdown implemented in 2020 and different levels of lockdown up to 2022 hampered the study.

5.8 Recommendations for future research

Public relations research on "internal communication in the context of change management is scarce" (Neill, 2018:5). Neill, (2018:5) wrote, "we have little knowledge of the communicative actions taken by implementers in disseminating information about change" and "research to date provides scant insight into the patterns of use of various channels". Hence research into "change management communication can provide additional insight into the importance of organisational identity and the communication strategies that are effective to reinforce and transform it" (Neill, 2018:5). The importance of change of subsystems and communication thereof in state-run organisations to anchor the change in corporate culture should be further investigated.

5.9 Conclusion

"Technology should ideally be the enabler as much as the driver of transformation, and technology applications will fail if it is not part of a broader strategic change management approach" (Baker, 2007:11). The author adds that the potential of new technology applications

is only fully realised if the organisation can embrace all the other changes – “in roles and responsibilities, hierarchies, networks, and even physical estate”.

Baker (2007:11) found that “technology has the power to revolutionise the way an organisation does its business, such as by increasing productivity or reducing the work force”. The research results showed that Departmental and CPF performance deteriorated as only one third of the 151 CPFs actively participated in the EPP programme. Baker (2007:8) emphasises that whilst technology is a key driver for change, technological developments mandate organisations “to respond to technological challenges such as increased automation of processes and systems, re-skilling staff and a whole range of other demands brought about by new or improved technology”.

The research results further confirmed that a lack of implementation of the key factors of change management, caused a lack of understanding of the rationale for this new system; a lack of knowledge of how the EPP system operates (re-skilling of staff), lack of knowledge on how to apply the technology, the staff were not adequately trained in using the new web-based EPP system, hence resisted implementing the EPP web-based system technology. Staff, SAPS and CPFs were, as key stakeholders, not consulted nor involved from the start when the change was planned. Staff felt ill-prepared due to a lack of training on the system to enable them to support CPFs. Staff hence lacked in supporting CPFs in terms of the new processes and technology which in turn lead to the unintended consequences of the majority of CPFs not making use of the EPP system and consequently the budget earmarked for CPR not being spent.

The research results confirmed the working assumption that the lack of implementation of the key factors of change management (creating urgency, creating and communicating a vision for change, forming powerful coalitions, removing obstacles and creating short term wins, building on the change and anchoring the changes in corporate culture) meant both implementers and beneficiaries found it difficult to embrace the envisaged change.

Tolero Solutions (2020) noted that when change management is implemented successfully, the following can be achieved: least resistance, augmented engagements, better performance, a reduction in cost and improved innovation. However, when measured against Tolero Solutions’ position and the findings above, it seems that DoCS experienced a significant amount of resistance to changes implemented and certainly did not achieve a significant reduction in operational cost. It did however seem to have improved the performance of CPFs, at least for those who grasped the vision and who participated fully in the changes implemented.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: CPUT ETHICAL CLEARANCE

P.O. Box 1906 • Bellville 7535 South Africa •Tel: +27 21 4603291 • Email: fbmsethics@cput.ac.za
Symphony Road Bellville 7535

Office of the Chairperson **Research Ethics Committee**	**Faculty:** **BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES**

At a meeting of the Faculty's Research Ethics Committee on **21 August 2018**, Ethics **Approval** was granted to **Theresha S Hanekom (186003447)** for research activities of **M Tech: Business Administration** at Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Title of dissertation/thesis/project:	A CRITICAL LOOK AT THE KEY FACTORS REQUIRED TO IMPLEMENT CHANGE MANAGEMENT TO INSTITUTIONALIZE CHANGES IN A WESTERN CAPE GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT. Lead Researcher/Supervisor: Prof A Slabbert

Comments:

Decision: Approved

Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee	**08 October 2018** **Date**

Clearance Certificate No | 2018FBREC580

APPENDIX B: COVERING LETTER

Dear Participant

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

I am currently a student at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology. In order to complete my master's degree in Business Administration (MBA) I am conducting research on the critical factors required to implement effective change management (in this case) at the Department of Community Safety (DoCS) in the Western Cape, South Africa.

Radical changes were introduced since 2010 in the way government (the Western Cape Department of Community Safety) interacted with and funded CPFs in the Western Cape. This also necessitated that internal processes had to change within the Department and SAPS.

Approximately R18 million was spent (inclusive of staff and stakeholder salaries) on the development of the Expanded Partnership Programme (EPP) web-based application that the Department of Community Safety implemented over the past eight (8) years. But seven (7) years later this system continues to display challenges.

As Kurt Lewin said: "If you want to truly understand something, try to change it".

With the above quote in mind, this study will focus on the addition of new technology through the EPP system within the Department that impacted on business processes, more specifically, how the changes were managed within the Department to ensure lasting and institutionalised change.

This study is intended to assist public sector decision-makers in the development of change management strategies and policies to achieve an effective and lasting change. Kindly find attached questions that I would like you to answer about your experiences concerning the Expanded Partnership Programme technology changes that were implemented in the Department and specifically the Directorate Community Police Relations (CPR).

This is not an evaluation of your work. There is no right or wrong answer. The purpose of the research will be to assess your views and experiences in terms of change management when new technology was introduced by means of the implementation of the EPP programme for CPFs. Your honest and critical view is important.

The questionnaire will take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Participation in this research project is completely voluntary. All information provided through your participation in this study will be kept confidential. Your name and personal details will not appear in any part of this thesis or in this research report. You will not be penalised for your participation in this study, nor your opinions and it will not affect your employment record.

You may choose not to participate in the questionnaire or choose to answer all or only certain questions. You may stop the questionnaire at any time.

You may ask me any question about the research, and I will answer you honestly. If you require any further assistance or need clarity, please do not hesitate to contact me on 0825637682 or via email: Theresha.Hanekom@westerncape.gov.za.

Your participation in this study will be highly appreciated. By participating you could win a weekend away for 2-4 people! Please submit your feedback by latest 31 April 2019.

Theresha Hanekom

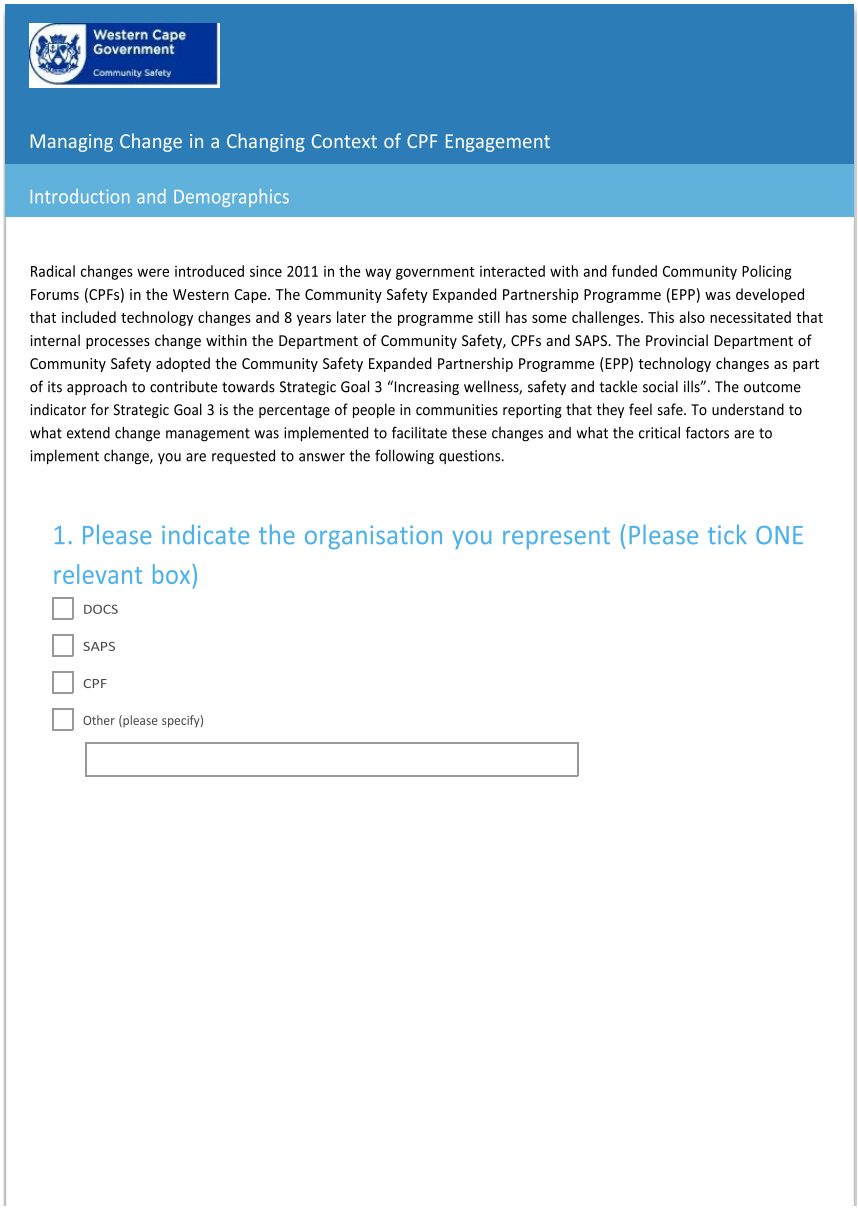
Deputy Director: Safety Planning

Directorate: Policy and Research

Department of Community Safety

Date: 17 April 2019

APPENDIX C: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE



Western Cape Government
Community Safety

Managing Change in a Changing Context of CPF Engagement

Introduction and Demographics

Radical changes were introduced since 2011 in the way government interacted with and funded Community Policing Forums (CPFs) in the Western Cape. The Community Safety Expanded Partnership Programme (EPP) was developed that included technology changes and 8 years later the programme still has some challenges. This also necessitated that internal processes change within the Department of Community Safety, CPFs and SAPS. The Provincial Department of Community Safety adopted the Community Safety Expanded Partnership Programme (EPP) technology changes as part of its approach to contribute towards Strategic Goal 3 "Increasing wellness, safety and tackle social ills". The outcome indicator for Strategic Goal 3 is the percentage of people in communities reporting that they feel safe. To understand to what extend change management was implemented to facilitate these changes and what the critical factors are to implement change, you are requested to answer the following questions.

1. Please indicate the organisation you represent (Please tick ONE relevant box)

- ☐ DOCS
- ☐ SAPS
- ☐ CPF
- ☐ Other (please specify)

2. Please indicate the position/rank you hold in that organisation. Please tick ONE relevant box.

- [ ] Head of Department
- [ ] Chief Director
- [ ] Director
- [ ] Deputy Director
- [ ] Assistant Director
- [ ] Admin Officer
- [ ] Admin Clerk
- [ ] Intern
- [ ] SAPS Station Commander
- [ ] CPF Chairperson
- [ ] CPF Secretary
- [ ] CPF PRO Projects
- [ ] Other (please specify)

3. Please indicate your years of service in the Organisation

- [ ] Less than 1 year
- [ ] 1 - 2 years
- [ ] 3 - 4 years
- [ ] 5 - 6 years
- [ ] 7 - 8 years
- [ ] 9 - 10 years
- [ ] 10 - 11 years
- [ ] 11 - 12 years
- [ ] 13 - 14 years
- [ ] more than 14 years

4. Which unit/portfolio do you represent within DOCS?

- [ ] Chief Directorate Secretariat for Safety and Security
- [ ] Chief Directorate Support Services
- [ ] Chief Directorate Security Risk Management
- [ ] Communication and Strategic Planning
- [ ] Community Police Relations
- [ ] Finance
- [ ] Head of Department
- [ ] Ministry of Community Safety
- [ ] Police Monitoring and Evaluation
- [ ] Policy and Research
- [ ] Provincial Security Provisioning
- [ ] Security Advisory Services
- [ ] Social Crime Prevention / Safety Promotion and Partnerships
- [ ] Other (please specify)

5. Which unit do you represent within SAPS?

- [ ] Admin
- [ ] CPF Coordinator
- [ ] Detectives
- [ ] Station Commander
- [ ] VisPol
- [ ] Other (please specify)

6. What unit do you represent within the CPF? (Please tick ONE relevant box)

- [ ] CPF Chairperson
- [ ] CPF Vice Chairperson
- [ ] CPF Secretary
- [ ] CPF Vice Secretary
- [ ] CPF Treasurer
- [ ] CPF Vice Treasurer
- [ ] CPF Project Coordinator
- [ ] CPF PRO
- [ ] Other (please specify)

Western Cape Government
Community Safety

Managing Change in a Changing Context of CPF Engagement

Understanding the Need for Change

To record the answers, we will use a 5-point likert scale. There is no right or wrong answer; the purpose of the questionnaire will be to assess your views and experience in terms of change management when new technology was introduced with the implementation of the Expanded Partnership Programme. If you have no experience or do not know the answer, please choose **N/A**

7. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	N/A
01. The Department created a vision for the EPP change.	○	○	○	○	○
02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about.	○	○	○	○	○
03. The Department established a sense of urgency about the need to achieve change.	○	○	○	○	○
04. The Department made me understand the need for change.	○	○	○	○	○
05. The Department informed all parties (staff/SAPS/CPFs) why the change is needed.	○	○	○	○	○
06. The benefits of the change were made known before implementation.	○	○	○	○	○

Western Cape Government
Community Safety

Managing Change in a Changing Context of CPF Engagement

Preparing for Change

To record the answers, we will use a 5-point likert scale. There is no right or wrong answer; the purpose of the questionnaire will be to assess your views and experience in terms of change management when new technology was introduced with the implementation of the Expanded Partnership Programme. If you have no experience or do not know the answer, please choose **N/A**

8. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	N/A
07. The Department created a guiding group with power, energy and influence in the Department to lead the change.	○	○	○	○	○
08. The Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved.	○	○	○	○	○
09. The Department **communicated** the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes.	○	○	○	○	○
10. Staff is committed to this change as effective change management communication was done continuously.	○	○	○	○	○
11. Staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented.	○	○	○	○	○
12. Staff was confident to explain the new process to Community Police Forums (CPFs) and SAPS.	○	○	○	○	○

Western Cape Government
Community Safety

Managing Change in a Changing Context of CPF Engagement

Implementing Change

To record the answers, we will use a 5-point likert scale. There is no right or wrong answer; the purpose of the questionnaire will be to assess your views and experience in terms of change management when new technology was introduced with the implementation of the Expanded Partnership Programme. If you have no experience or do not know the answer, please choose **N/A**

9. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	N/A
13. The implementation of the EPP system technology changes increased stress and anxiety levels for staff, CPFs and SAPS.	○	○	○	○	○
14. The Department involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them.	○	○	○	○	○
15. The Department generated short-term wins with regards to implementation and informed employees, CPFs and SAPS about the changes happening, and that it is working.	○	○	○	○	○
16. The Department recognized and rewarded the work being done by people towards achieving the change.	○	○	○	○	○
17. The Department created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation.	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	N/A
18. The Department developed employees as change process agents.	○	○	○	○	○
19. The Department anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and departmental processes.	○	○	○	○	○
20. The implementation of the new EPP system enhanced innovation by creating new processes across the department, SAPS and CPF structures.	○	○	○	○	○
21. The implementation of the EPP system improved the CPFs performance.	○	○	○	○	○
22. The implementation of the EPP system improved the Community Police Relations Directorate's processes.	○	○	○	○	○
23. The implementation of the new EPP system improved staff's performance, CPFs and SAPS' performance.	○	○	○	○	○
24. The Departmental staff, CPFs and SAPS resisted the implementation of the new EPP system as they were not properly trained in how to use it.	○	○	○	○	○
25. The implementation of the EPP system reduced operational costs.	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX D: CHI SQUARE CROSSTAB SPSS OUTPUT

I had to combine the Disagree with Strongly disagree, to get statistical valid results.

Similarly, I combined Agree with Strongly agree.

01. The Department created a vision for the EPP change. * 04. The Department made me understand the need for change.

Crosstab

Count

		04. The Department made me understand the need for change.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
01. The Department created a vision for the EPP change.	Disagree	11	1	12
	Agree	9	47	56
Total		20	48	68

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.202[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	23.682	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	26.129	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	26.802	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	68				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.53.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 1 and 4.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 1 and question 4. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q01 and Q04 is significant (c^2= 27.202, $p < 0.001$).

01. The Department created a vision for the EPP change. * 19. The Department anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and departmental processes.

Crosstab

Count

		19. The Department anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and departmental processes.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
01. The Department created a vision for the EPP change.	Disagree	10	1	11
	Agree	13	28	41
Total		23	29	52

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.323[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	10.040	1	.002		
Likelihood Ratio	13.471	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.086	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	52				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.87.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 1 and 19.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question1 and question 19. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q01 and Q19 is significant (c^2= 12.322, p < 0.001).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about. * 08. The	61	64.2%	34	35.8%	95	100.0%

Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved.						
02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about. * 17. The Department created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation.	59	62.1%	36	37.9%	95	100.0%
02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about. * 18. The Department developed employees as change process agents.	54	56.8%	41	43.2%	95	100.0%

02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about. * 08. The Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved.

Crosstab

Count

		08. The Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about.	Disagree	14	0	14
	Agree	11	36	47
Total		25	36	61

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.165[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	23.094	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	31.423	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	25.736	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	61				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.74.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 2 and 8.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 2 and question 8. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q02 and Q08 is significant (c^2= 26.165, p < 0.001).

02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about. * 17. The Department created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation.

Crosstab

Count

		17. The Department created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about.	Disagree	12	2	14
	Agree	12	33	45
Total		24	35	59

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.428[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	13.078	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	16.053	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.167	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	59				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.69.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 2 and 17.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 2 and question 17. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig <

0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q02 and Q17 is significant (c^2= 15.428, p < 0.001).

02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about. * 18. The Department developed employees as change process agents.

Crosstab

Count

		18. The Department developed employees as change process agents.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
02. The Department developed a strategy to inform stakeholders of what the EPP change is about.	Disagree	11	1	12
	Agree	15	27	42
Total		26	28	54

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.704[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	9.570	1	.002		
Likelihood Ratio	13.154	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.487	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	54				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.78.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 2 and 18.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 2 and question 18. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q02 and Q18 is significant (c^2= 11.704, p < 0.001).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
14. The Department involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them. * 03. The Department established a sense of urgency about the need to achieve change.	60	63.2%	35	36.8%	95	100.0%
14. The Department involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them. * 13. The implementation of the EPP system technology changes increased stress and anxiety levels for staff, CPFs and SAPS.	56	58.9%	39	41.1%	95	100.0%

14. The Department involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them. * 03. The Department established a sense of urgency about the need to achieve change.

Crosstab

Count

		03. The Department established a sense of urgency about the need to achieve change.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
14. The Department involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them.	Disagree	15	13	28
	Agree	4	28	32
Total		19	41	60

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.641[a]	1	<.001		

Continuity Correction[b]	9.821	1	.002		
Likelihood Ratio	12.133	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.447	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	60				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.87.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 14 and 3.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 14 and question 3. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q14 and Q03 is significant (c^2= 11.641, p < 0.001).

14. The Department involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them. * 13. The implementation of the EPP system technology changes increased stress and anxiety levels for staff, CPFs and SAPS.

Crosstab

Count

		13. The implementation of the EPP system technology changes increased stress and anxiety levels for staff, CPFs and SAPS.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
14. The Department involved employees, CPFs and SAPS in the change effort, to think about the changes and how to achieve them.	Disagree	16	13	29
	Agree	7	20	27
Total		23	33	56

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.941[a]	1	.026		
Continuity Correction[b]	3.807	1	.051		
Likelihood Ratio	5.042	1	.025		

Fisher's Exact Test				.033	.025
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.853	1	.028		
N of Valid Cases	56				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.09.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 14 and 13.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 14 and question 13. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q14 and Q13 is significant (c^2= 4.941, p < 0.026).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
05. The Department informed all parties (staff/SAPS/CPFs) why the change is needed. * 09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes.	65	68.4%	30	31.6%	95	100.0%
05. The Department informed all parties (staff/SAPS/CPFs) why the change is needed. * 25. The implementation of the EPP system reduced operational costs.	52	54.7%	43	45.3%	95	100.0%

05. The Department informed all parties (staff/SAPS/CPFs) why the change is needed. * 09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes.

Crosstab

Count

		09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
05. The Department informed all parties (staff/SAPS/CPFs) why the change is needed.	Disagree	24	2	26
	Agree	6	33	39
Total		30	35	65

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.143[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	34.112	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	42.135	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	36.571	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	65				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 5 and 9.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 5 and question 9. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q05 and Q09 is significant (c^2= 37.143, p < 0.001).

05. The Department informed all parties (staff/SAPS/CPFs) why the change is needed. * 25. The implementation of the EPP system reduced operational costs.

Crosstab

Count

		25. The implementation of the EPP system reduced operational costs.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
05. The Department informed all parties (staff/SAPS/CPFs) why the change is needed.	Disagree	12	10	22
	Agree	6	24	30

Total	18	34	52

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.692[a]	1	.010		
Continuity Correction[b]	5.253	1	.022		
Likelihood Ratio	6.743	1	.009		
Fisher's Exact Test				.017	.011
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.564	1	.010		
N of Valid Cases	52				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.62.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 5 and 25.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 5 and question 25. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q05 and Q25 is significant (c^2= 6.692, p < 0.010).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
06. The benefits of the change were made known before implementation. * 11. Staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented.	62	65.3%	33	34.7%	95	100.0%

06. The benefits of the change were made known before implementation. * 11. Staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented.

Crosstabulation

Count

		11. Staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
06. The benefits of the change were made known before implementation.	Disagree	16	10	26
	Agree	8	28	36
Total		24	38	62

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.836[a]	1	.002		
Continuity Correction[b]	8.249	1	.004		
Likelihood Ratio	9.976	1	.002		
Fisher's Exact Test				.003	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.677	1	.002		
N of Valid Cases	62				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.06.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 6 and 11.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 6 and question 11. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q06 and Q11 is significant (c^2= 9.836, p < 0.002).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
07. The Department created a guiding group with power, energy and influence in the Department to lead the change. * 08. The Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved.	58	61.1%	37	38.9%	95	100.0%

07. The Department created a guiding group with power, energy and influence in the Department to lead the change. * 08. The Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved.

Crosstabulation

Count

		08. The Department informed staff, SAPS and CPFS how the change will be achieved.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
07. The Department created a guiding group with power, energy and influence in the Department to lead the change.	Disagree	16	5	21
	Agree	8	29	37
Total		24	34	58

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.446[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	14.273	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	16.986	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	16.162	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	58				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.69.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 7 and 8.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 7 and question 8. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q07 and Q08 is significant (c^2= 16.446, p < 0.001).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases		
Valid	Missing	Total	

	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
12. Staff was confident to explain the new process to Community Police Forums (CPFs) and SAPS. * 11. Staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented.	60	63.2%	35	36.8%	95	100.0%
12. Staff was confident to explain the new process to Community Police Forums (CPFs) and SAPS. * 24. The Departmental staff, CPFs and SAPS resisted the implementation of the new EPP system as they were not properly trained in how to use it.	55	57.9%	40	42.1%	95	100.0%

12. Staff was confident to explain the new process to Community Police Forums (CPFs) and SAPS. * 11. Staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented.

Crosstab

Count

		11. Staff was fully knowledgeable about the Expanded Public Partnership (EPP) process and technology changes when it was implemented.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
12. Staff was confident to explain the new process to Community Police Forums (CPFs) and SAPS.	Disagree	19	2	21
	Agree	6	33	39
Total		25	35	60

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31.667[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	28.653	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	34.807	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	31.139	1	<.001		

N of Valid Cases	60				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.75.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 12 and 11.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 12 and question 11. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q12 and Q11 is significant (c^2= 31.667, p < 0.001).

12. Staff was confident to explain the new process to Community Police Forums (CPFs) and SAPS. * 24. The Departmental staff, CPFs and SAPS resisted the implementation of the new EPP system as they were not properly trained in how to use it.

Crosstab

Count

		24. The Departmental staff, CPFs and SAPS resisted the implementation of the new EPP system as they were not properly trained in how to use it.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
12. Staff was confident to explain the new process to Community Police Forums (CPFs) and SAPS.	Disagree	7	14	21
	Agree	20	14	34
Total		27	28	55

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.375[a]	1	.066		
Continuity Correction[b]	2.432	1	.119		
Likelihood Ratio	3.425	1	.064		
Fisher's Exact Test				.097	.059
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.314	1	.069		
N of Valid Cases	55				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.31.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 12 and 24.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is not a significant relationship between question 12 and question 24. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q12 and Q24 is not significant but a notable relationship (c^2= 3.375, p < 0.066).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes. * 10. Staff is committed to this change as effective change management communication was done continuously.	60	63.2%	35	36.8%	95	100.0%
09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes. * 15. The Department generated short-term wins with regards to implementation and informed employees, CPFs and SAPS about the changes happening, and that it is working.	56	58.9%	39	41.1%	95	100.0%

09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes. * 10. Staff is committed to this change as effective change management communication was done continuously.

Crosstab

Count

		10. Staff is committed to this change as effective change management communication was done continuously.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes.	Disagree	17	10	27
	Agree	5	28	33
Total		22	38	60

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.618[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	12.632	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	15.193	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.374	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	60				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.90.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 9 and 10.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 9 and question 10. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q09 and Q10 is significant (c^2= 14.618, p < 0.001).

09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes. * 15. The Department generated short-term wins with regards to implementation and informed employees, CPFs and SAPS about the changes happening, and that it is working.

Crosstab

Count

		15. The Department generated short-term wins with regards to implementation and informed employees, CPFs and SAPS about the changes happening, and that it is working.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
09. The Department communicated the change vision – informed staff, SAPS and CPFs in every possible way and at every opportunity, about the why, what and how of the changes.	Disagree	18	7	25
	Agree	4	27	31
Total		22	34	56

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.264[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	17.862	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	21.552	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	19.902	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	56				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.82.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 9 and 15.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 9 and question 15. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q09 and Q15 is significant (c^2= 20.264, p < 0.001).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent

16. The Department recognized and rewarded the work being done by people towards achieving the change. * 17. The Department created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation.	55	57.9%	40	42.1%	95	100.0%

16. The Department recognized and rewarded the work being done by people towards achieving the change. * 17. The Department created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation.

Crosstabulation

Count

		17. The Department created momentum for change by building on the successes in the technology change implementation.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
16. The Department recognized and rewarded the work being done by people towards achieving the change.	Disagree	19	3	22
	Agree	5	28	33
Total		24	31	55

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.217[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	24.398	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	29.756	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	26.722	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	55				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.60.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 16 and 17.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 16 and question 17. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q16 and Q17 is significant (c^2= 27.217, p < 0.001).

Crosstabs

Notes

Output Created		20-OCT-2022 21:41:37
Comments		
Input	Data	C:\Users\uysc\OneDrive - Cape Peninsula University of Technology\CPUT MTech\2022\HanekomTheresa\DataSurveyMonkey recoded.sav
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	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	95
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
	Cases Used	Statistics for each table are based on all the cases with valid data in the specified range(s) for all variables in each table.
Syntax		CROSSTABS /TABLES=Q19 BY Q20 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES /STATISTICS=CHISQ /CELLS=COUNT /COUNT ROUND CELL.
Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.00
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.01
	Dimensions Requested	2
	Cells Available	524245

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
19. The Department anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and departmental processes. * 20. The implementation of the new EPP system enhanced innovation by creating new processes across the department, SAPS and CPF structures.	51	53.7%	44	46.3%	95	100.0%

19. The Department anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and departmental processes. * 20. The implementation of the new EPP system enhanced innovation by creating new processes across the department, SAPS and CPF structures.

Crosstabulation

Count

		20. The implementation of the new EPP system enhanced innovation by creating new processes across the department, SAPS and CPF structures.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
19. The Department anchored the new approach in the corporate culture and departmental processes.	Disagree	16	8	24
	Agree	3	24	27
Total		19	32	51

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.776[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	14.484	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	17.961	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	16.447	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	51				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.94.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 19 and 20.

The “Asymptotic Sig” which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 19 and question 20. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square’s Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q19 and Q20 is significant (c^2= 16.776, p < 0.001).

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
21. The implementation of the EPP system improved the CPFs performance. * 23. The implementation of the new EPP system improved staff's performance, CPFs and SAPS' performance.	61	64.2%	34	35.8%	95	100.0%
22. The implementation of the EPP system improved the Community Police Relations Directorate's processes. * 23. The implementation of the new EPP system improved staff's performance, CPFs and SAPS' performance.	55	57.9%	40	42.1%	95	100.0%

21. The implementation of the EPP system improved the CPFs performance. * 23. The implementation of the new EPP system improved staff's performance, CPFs and SAPS' performance.

Crosstab

Count

		23. The implementation of the new EPP system improved staff's performance, CPFs and SAPS' performance.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
21. The implementation of the EPP system improved the CPFs performance.	Disagree	18	2	20
	Agree	4	37	41
Total		22	39	61

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.539[a]	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	61				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.21.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 21 and 23.

The "Asymptotic Sig" which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 21 and question 23. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square's Asymptotic Sig

< 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q21 and Q23 is significant (c^2= 37.539, p < 0.001).

22. The implementation of the EPP system improved the Community Police Relations Directorate's processes. * 23. The implementation of the new EPP system improved staff's performance, CPFs and SAPS' performance.

Crosstab

Count

		23. The implementation of the new EPP system improved staff's performance, CPFs and SAPS' performance.		
		Disagree	Agree	Total
22. The implementation of the EPP system improved the Community Police Relations Directorate's processes.	Disagree	16	0	16
	Agree	4	35	39
Total		20	35	55

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39.487[a]	1	<.001		
Continuity Correction[b]	35.704	1	<.001		
Likelihood Ratio	46.310	1	<.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				<.001	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	38.769	1	<.001		
N of Valid Cases	55				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.82.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The first row is important in the interpretation of the relationship between statement 22 and 23.

The "Asymptotic Sig" which is the p-value, shows that there is a significant relationship between question 22 and question 23. Whenever the Pearson Chi-Square's Asymptotic Sig < 0.05, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between the two questions in the table.

The relationship between Q22 and Q23 is significant (c^2= 39.487, p < 0.001).

APPENDIX E: GRAMMARIAN LETTER

22 Krag Street
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7270
Overberg
Western Cape

08 October 2022

LANGUAGE & TECHNICAL EDIT

Cheryl M. Thomson

KEY FACTORS TO INSTITUTIONALISE SUSTAINABLE CHANGE THROUGH CHANGE MANAGEMENT IN A WESTERN CAPE GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT

Supervisor: Professor André Slabbert

Co-supervisor: Dr Michael Twum-Darko

This is to confirm that I, Cheryl Thomson, executed the language and technical editing of the above-titled Mini-dissertation of THERESHA SPANGENBERG-HANEKOM, student number 186003447, at the CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY in preparation for submission of this Mini-dissertation for assessment.

Yours faithfully

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