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The Emotional Rollercoaster of Organisational Change:
Affective Responses to Organisational Change, their Cognitive Antecedents and
Behavioural Consequences

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ABSTRACT

Change is a potentially emotional event as people anticipate or experience its outcomes and processes. Managers and researchers often ignore the emotional aspects of organisational change, yet it is precisely these aspects that can promote acceptance of change or resistance to it.

The focus of the research is on the many factors that contribute to cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change. A model of individual responses evolved from the literature review and helped guide the research questions. It indicates that responses to change depend on factors in four categories: those in the change itself (outcomes, scale, temporal issues and justice); those in the employee (their emotional intelligence, disposition, previous experience of change, and change and stress outside the workplace); those in the employee's perceptions of the leaders/managers/agents (their leadership ability, emotional intelligence and trustworthiness); and those in the employee's perception of the organisation (its culture and change context).

Two main research approaches underpinned the thesis. Firstly, cognitive appraisal theory takes the position that emotion derives from cognition as people contemplate the importance of events (such as organisational change) to their wellbeing and consider how they will cope. Secondly, social constructionism was used as a theoretical platform because it combines the individual experience of emotions during change with the social forces that help shape them.

Twenty-four interviews were conducted in Auckland, New Zealand. The participants were from a variety of industries, organisations, hierarchical levels, change roles, functional departments and ethnic, gender and age groups. They reported on many different types of change, small and large, with many focussing on some element of organisational restructuring. The study showed that people played different roles in change events - as leaders, managers, agents and recipients - and at times took on a combination of these roles, which did not always depend on hierarchy. The roles they played to some extent influenced their responses.

Findings show that all 13 factors in the model produced some responses, but not in all participants. The most prevalent of these, and those that often provoke emotions of the greatest intensity, were personal outcomes and the fairness of change. Two additional factors surfaced, control over the change and support from colleagues and people outside the organisation, and the model was revised to include them. The study

confirmed that organisational change is indeed an emotional event, and that these emotions arise from a host of factors that have individual, social and wider contextual origins.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Aims

According to Cameron (2006, p. 317), “not only is change ubiquitous and unpredictable, but almost everyone also assumes that its velocity will increase exponentially.” From a managerial perspective it is necessary for organisations to adapt to changes in their external and internal environments, and thereby take advantage of opportunities, ward off threats and improve performance. For change to be successful it needs to be the right type of change, implemented at the right time and in the right way. What is considered ‘right’ needs to take account of the human element and ‘right’ is a concept that is both subjective and objective. Moreover, change leaders, managers and agents often mistakenly assume that their conceptions of the purposes and processes of change are shared by others at all levels. Similarly, they often do not understand how each person involved in change responds on an individual level.

Those involved in change likewise tend to assume that the way people react on a cognitive basis is, or should be, rational, and that emotional responses are not rational (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Those who plan and implement change may not foresee emotional responses to organisational change - and to most aspects of organisational life - and even if they do, may ignore them. However, as this thesis will seek to demonstrate, affective responses to change can play a crucial role in the success or failure of change initiatives, as they do in other areas of employee and organisational performance. Emotions are generally rational and have cognitive antecedents. The cognitive and affective responses tend to operate together to influence, but not necessarily determine, behaviour. People who have high levels of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), the ability to understand and manage their own and others’ emotions, should be able to play a constructive role in managing and experiencing organisational change.

The aims of this research study are to investigate the impact of emotion on the experience of change at the individual level, to examine these experiences from the perspectives of people who play different change-related roles, to identify the causes and consequences of emotional responses, and to explore the strategies individuals use to cope with the change events and the ensuing emotions.

1.2 The Emotional Rollercoaster of Organisational Change

Emotions are phenomena that are experienced in many areas of human existence, and a change in these spheres is frequently emotional, sometimes intensely so. Life changes, such as births, marriages and deaths, as well as political, economic, social, technological and ecological changes, can create favourable and/or unfavourable conditions. Happiness, pride, sadness, anger and fear are universal responses to environmental conditions and inter-personal relations and changes to them. As much as managers (and some scholars) would wish to exclude emotions from the organisational sphere, they are naturally present there too, particularly during times of change.

Change can be an emotional rollercoaster. It has different phases and surprising twists and bends. It varies between slower and faster paces. It moves at different trajectories, upwards to dizzying heights and downwards to what Elrod and Tippett (2002) call the 'death valley' where negative emotions and poor performance occur. It can be exciting and scary and leave one buzzing or drained. The rollercoaster concept has been used in practitioner publications (e.g. Goss, Pascale & Athos, 1993; Schneider & Goldwasser, 1998) and is widely referred to by organisational change consultants, as web searches indicate. It has also entered the academic literature. Kochan (1999, p. 320), for example, describes change as "like riding a rollercoaster, with many up and down periods and thrilling moments punctuated with stress." She writes eloquently of the range of positive and negative emotions that occur during change and how participants can experience self-doubt:

When these moods come upon me, it is as if the rainclouds are hovering overhead, threatening to burst and pound on me as I swirl around in the rollercoaster seat, wondering what kind of condition I will be in when the ride is ended and I can debark. However, it seems that whenever the clouds are their darkest and I am weary of the thrill, the sun comes up and the cars begin their exhilarating ascent.

However, the rollercoaster metaphor has several limitations. Firstly, a rollercoaster ride has a distinct beginning and end while many types of organisational change do not. Secondly, in a metaphorical sense the upward phases are representative of positive emotions (as the various models in Elrod and Tippett's (2000) article depict) whereas on a funfair ride they are less thrilling than the downward phases, which in terms of the metaphor indicate negative emotions. Thirdly, the funfair ride is aimed at entertainment whereas organisational change is certainly not. However, what the two have in common is that there are definite ups and downs over time even though the ride

does not necessarily create positive emotions on the upward phases and negative emotions on the downward phases. A telling point is that four of the participants in my research study directly referred to the rollercoaster of change that they or others had experienced, and other participants used terms, such as ‘grief cycle’, that are evocative of oscillations between the positive and negative emotions of change. The responses of others bore testimony to the emotional ride that organisational change had delivered. With this evidence and the literature cited in mind, I amended the earlier working title of this thesis to read as: *The Emotional Rollercoaster of Organisational Change: Affective Responses to Organisational Change, their Cognitive Antecedents and Behavioural Consequences*.

1.3 Contributions to the Literature

Having researched empirical studies into emotions in organisational life fairly recently, Briner and Kiefer (2005) found the surprisingly small number of 32 articles or book chapters. Therefore this thesis will add to the empirical literature on the experience of emotion in work-related settings and the even smaller body of research into the emotional aspects of organisational change. In certain parts of the literature, for example, on emotional intelligence and personality, qualitative research is exceptionally rare, let alone in the context of organisational change. This thesis seeks to break new ground in presenting the participants’ views on how these factors influenced their cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change.

The second contribution to the literature lies in the analysis of the experience of change from the perspective of a variety of individual stakeholders who are involved in an organisational change. While previous studies have usually focused on leaders and managers of change (e.g. Caldwell, 2003), consultants in change (e.g. Furnham, 2001), or recipients of change (e.g. Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006), this study will examine the experience of people in *all* of these categories, and reveal how an individual may play any one of these roles, or a combination of them, in a change initiative. It will also show how at times the role they played contributed to their responses.

A third contribution lies in the presentation of a model of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change that seeks to include a wide-ranging set of factors that impact on how people perceive the outcomes of change, and the processes that design and deliver them (see Figure 4). An earlier version of the model was published in the *Journal of Change Management* (Smollan, 2006b). It is informed

by models of emotional reactions to change presented by Gibson (1995), Paterson and Härtel (2002), Paterson and Cary (2002), Brotheridge (2003), Kiefer (2005), Piderit (1999), Szabla (2007) and others, some of which have been influenced by the Affective Events Theory of Weiss and Cropanzano (1996). This last theory posits that events at work are proximal causes of emotional reactions which in turn lead to affect- and judgement-driven behaviours. Change is potentially an affective event and therefore this model, and the other 'emotions-of-change' models, will be analysed in more depth in the literature review.

My model will seek to show a larger number of factors that could impact on the affective reactions to change, and in a wider range of contexts, than those presented by the authors cited above. For example, Paterson and Härtel (2002) and Paterson and Cary (2002) focus on downsizing and Kiefer's (2005) investigates only negative emotions. Holt, Armenakis, Feild and Harris (2007) have developed a useful framework of readiness for change that incorporates four elements - context, content, process and individual attributes - all of which are present in aspects of my model. However, they are curiously silent on affective responses. The new model will also make a contribution to understanding how various affect constructs, such as emotional intelligence and emotional labour, relate to the experience of organisational change at the individual level. The literature in these areas is minimal but beginning to blossom.

My model indicates that a change event (or set of events) triggers cognitive reactions. Following Lazarus' (1991, 1993, 1999) cognitive appraisal theory, cognitive responses unleash emotional reactions as people contemplate the significance of the change for themselves and consider a variety of coping mechanisms (Latack, 1986; Fugate, Kinicki & Prussia, 2008). Together the cognitive and affective responses tend to produce congruent behavioural responses. However, as the literature review and model will show, people often consider the ramifications of their actions and, despite their desire to act in certain ways, may modify their preferred behaviour. On the other hand, some people are unable to control their affective impulses and act rashly and irrationally.

A number of variables that potentially moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change are presented in the model. They are grouped into four sets of factors. The first relates to the nature of the change, the second to individual attributes of the employees, the third to employee perceptions of aspects of their leaders and the fourth to employee perceptions of aspects of the organisations in which they

work. Employee reactions may result in the demise of, or modifications to, the original change plan, demonstrating the potentially circular nature of the model. Each of these variables provides the foundation for the research questions that are presented, and which the empirical work will seek to answer.

While the nature of the change context will be discussed in more detail in the literature review, it should be noted here that models attempt to simplify what is often a complex set of interacting relationships. Given that people may respond differently to a single change, the nature of the change itself can produce vastly differing dynamics. Some changes will have primarily negative outcomes, such as in downsizing, while others might be predominantly positive, such as a more lucrative remuneration system. Implementing the former will clearly present more difficult challenges for most of the people concerned. 'Selling the vision' of a major international expansion or the development of a new product line has different connotations for leadership than a major redundancy exercise would. The concept of vision is also difficult to apply to some changes, such as the introduction of a new form of invoice or the cancellation of the office plant maintenance service. However, it should be emphasised that even small changes may elicit emotional reactions and these can impact on the success of the change - and the job satisfaction and performance of individuals in other areas of their jobs.

1.4 Intended Audience

The research is ultimately aimed at several types of readers. Firstly, it should help scholars to understand not only what emotions were experienced by the respondents, but also why they experienced them, what actions they took, and why they took them. In doing so, scholars will get a deeper understanding of the psychological processes that are reported with regard to change events, and in particular the affective responses.

Secondly, people in employment could be stimulated into thinking of the dynamics that occurred when they, and others at work, experienced organisational change, specifically what they thought, what they felt and what they did. This could be used to help them understand the range of reactions they could experience during a current or future change event, and more specifically how they could deal with the emotional aspects. It should also produce greater insight into the emotional responses of others inside and outside the organisation.

Thirdly, leaders, managers and other facilitators of change will be better able to

identify the emotional components of change processes and how they are related to cognitive and behavioural factors. This should help them to predict employee reactions to change (and their own) and to respond appropriately, for the benefit of both the organisation and its employees.

1.5 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is organised as follows. Chapter 2 is the literature review which begins with an analysis of emotions and their influence in organisational life. The study of emotions lies primarily in the field of psychology - clinical, social, educational, counselling and organisational - but also draws on publications in the fields of philosophy, sociology, religious studies, management and organisational behaviour. The nature of organisational change is then introduced. Following this, emotions and organisational change are integrated in a model of individual cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change. Chapter 3 is about the methodology used for this study, and introduces the participants. In Chapter 4 I present and analyse the findings from the deductive phase of the empirical work, the responses to the 13 research questions embedded in the model. Chapter 5 is a discussion of the factors that emerged in the inductive phases of data analysis and in Chapter 6 I present a revised model to integrate the deductive and inductive aspects of the study. Chapter 7 identifies the limitations of the study while Chapter 8 contains a discussion of the contributions of the study, suggestions for further research, implications for practice and conclusions.

1.6 A Comment on Methodology

This research study employs idiographic and social constructionist approaches, which lie within the interpretive school of thought, since they allow for an in-depth exploration of the ways in which individuals make sense of life events and of the social forces that mould their responses. Social constructionist approaches have been used in the study of emotions and change, as well as in a number of the factors that appear in the model. Semi-structured interviews sought to uncover how various people reacted to organisational change events and why. Given that the use of models in qualitative studies is not common I here outline why and how I developed a model and used it.

A model has the purpose of presenting an array of relationships that seek to establish the causes and consequences of constructs such as cognition, emotion and behaviour. Veal (2005) suggests that a theoretical framework might be termed a model

particularly when quantitative techniques are being used. In this light Thomas (2006, p. 57) directly focuses on the statistical features in model building, which conventionally “involves specifying variables and their relations and formulating mathematical equations that will depict the various states of the system under varying conditions.” Silverman (2001, p. 3) uses the word model as the equivalent of an idiom or paradigm, in that “Models provide an overall framework for how we look at reality.” According to Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2000, p. 41):

A model...is a representation of reality: It outlines those aspects of the real world the scientist considers to be relevant to the problem investigated, it makes explicit the significant relationships among those aspects, and it enables the researcher to formulate empirically testable propositions regarding the nature of these relationships...Models are also used for gaining insights into phenomena that the scientist cannot readily observe directly.

The definitions above identify a model as a representation of ‘reality’. These definitions allow researchers to investigate phenomena, or relationships between them, with qualitative methodologies, even though quantitative testing of models is more common. Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 153), in their sourcebook on analysing qualitative data, use the term causal network, which is a “display of the most important independent and dependent variables in a field study (shown in boxes) and of the relationships among them (shown by arrows).” The authors provide a very detailed explanation of how causal networks, which look identical in shape and form to quantitatively testable models, can be used to qualitatively depict the multifarious facets of the phenomena under study. Causal networks can be constructed in inductive or deductive ways, which they maintain are “dialectical, rather than mutually exclusive research procedures” (p. 155). Furthermore, and again using language that is typical of quantitative research, they argue that causal networks can be used to make - and test - predictions of cause and effect. Given the complex nature of the relationships between the variables being studied, qualitative approaches seek to explain how individuals respond to events and issues, and what underlies both their similarities and differences (Patton, 2002; Hyde, 2000).

In the elucidation of the model I have used the terms moderators and mediators, which are the conventional terminology of a quantitative paradigm. However, Zerbe and Härtel (2000, p. 157) point out that “Although borrowed from quantitative approaches to organizational studies, the relationships they [i.e. moderators and mediators] denote apply just as well to the result of qualitative studies.” Therefore, they suggest,

qualitative researchers are justified in exploring factors that mediate and moderate relationships at work, not in an attempt to “squeeze our understanding of emotions into the straightjacket of quantitative methodology” (p. 157) but rather to facilitate understanding of the role of emotion in these relationships. For example, if perceptions of fairness are considered to mediate evaluations of the positive or negative nature of an organisational change, an in-depth interview could reveal which aspects of fairness were the most salient, and which emotions were evoked in the individual. The interview questions for the current study were formulated to examine the relevance of the factors embedded in the model.

The data analysis went through two phases of development - deductive and inductive. According to Hyde (2000), a deductive approach seeks to *test* theory and is traditionally believed to be the province of quantitative research, while an inductive approach aims to *develop* theory, and is generally considered a qualitative approach. Hyde, however, argues that deductive and inductive methodologies approaches can be profitably used in both types of research, and that, in fact, researchers frequently oscillate between the two. Similarly, Patton (2002, p. 55) feels that “Qualitative enquiry is particularly oriented toward exploration, discovery and inductive logic”, but also argues that deductive reasoning helps to determine the nature of some of the research questions. The findings and discussion from the deductive stage revolve around the factors built into the model. I anticipated an inductive phase from the beginning. While the aim of the model was to include all relevant factors influencing emotional responses to change I was keen to find out whether other factors may have played a part. Further analysis of the interview transcripts did reveal additional issues. An integration of both phases of the findings led to a review and revision of the model.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This study focuses on the emotions triggered by organisational change. Emotions arise from both the actual and anticipated consequences of the change and the various processes through which the changes are introduced and implemented. The aim of this study is to gain a deeper understanding of the emotions that occur as a result of change outcomes and processes, of their antecedents and consequences, and of how employees at various levels and in various change roles experience and manage these emotions.

In one sense the antecedents of affective reactions are the various incidents, issues and relationships that are present in organisational life, and in this specific context, organisational change. In another sense the antecedents of affective reactions are the cognitive responses to change initiatives. The cognitive and affective elements combine in some form to produce or constrain behavioural reactions.

This chapter consists of three main parts. The first is a review of the literature on emotions, including the key concepts of emotional intelligence and emotional labour. The second is a review of the literature on organisational change, with an emphasis on responses at the individual level. The third part integrates the first two with the development of a model of individual cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change. Emerging from the literature review and the model are the research questions which in turn drive the empirical work.

2.2 Emotions

In this section of the literature review I start with a broad understanding of the nature of emotions, move on to the role of emotion in organisational life and finally explore the nature of emotional intelligence. In various parts of these sections I refer to the emotional aspects of change and provide a fuller review at the end of each section.

The Nature of Emotions

To lay the foundation for an understanding of how emotions arise during change, I will distinguish between emotion and other affect constructs, examine definitions of emotions from various perspectives, explore the debate about the nature and number of basic or discrete emotions, investigate the arguments for and against various emotion dimensions and measures, and identify the links between emotion and cognition.

Finally, I analyse the emotional aspects of change.

Emotion and Other Affect Constructs

Watson and Clark (1994, p. 89) define emotion as “an organized and highly structured reaction to an event that is relevant to the needs, goals or survival of an organism.” Emotions are immediate responses to environmental stimuli and tend to be short in duration (Frijda, 1988; Gray & Watson, 2001). They are also considered to be shaped by culture and are “instrumental in defining relations of deference, position, status and authority” (Antonacopoulou & Gabriel, 2001, p. 437). The term emotion is often equated with that of feeling (Frijda, 2000; Feldman Barrett, 2004), yet Solomon (2003), in an article originally written in 1976, indicates that feelings tend to have a physiological component and are less sophisticated than emotions, which have a stronger cognitive basis. Parrott (2002, p. 342) likewise considers emotions to embrace a wider range of psychological mechanisms, including “appraisal, readiness to think and act in certain ways, physiological changes, and social signals and dispositions, as well as feelings.”

Moods are more diffuse in nature, not always specifically linked to events or objects, lower in intensity and longer lasting (Frijda, 1993; Gray & Watson, 2001; Weiss, 2002). Moods influence what people think and how they think (Forgas & Vargas, 2000). They tend to have multiple inputs and shape the way in which people encounter their environments (Gray & Watson, 2001). Moods can be state (a temporary condition) or trait (a dispositional inclination to respond in certain ways) (Meyer & Shack, 1989). The latter can influence the former in that a predisposition to negative affectivity (Watson & Tellegen, 1985), for example, would likely result in more negative state moods than those with positive affectivity. Positive Affect (PA) “represents the extent to which a person avows a zest for life” while Negative Affect (NA) is the “extent to which a person reports feeling upset or unpleasantly aroused” (Watson & Tellegen, 1985, p. 221). A later article (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988, p. 1063) provides a more elaborate definition in which high PA is “the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active and alert,” with low PA referring to emotions such as sadness and lethargy. In contrast, NA is a “general dimension of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement that subsumes a variety of aversive mood states, including anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear and nervousness, with low NA being a state of calmness and serenity.”

Temperament is a facet of personality that predisposes a person to act in a certain way and is a relatively stable and largely biologically-rooted pattern of individual differences (Bates, 2000). According to Allport (1937, p. 54):

Temperament refers to the characteristic phenomena of an individual's emotional nature, including his susceptibility to emotional stimulation, his customary strength and speed of response, the quality of his prevailing mood, and all peculiarities of fluctuation and intensity of mood; these phenomena being regarded as dependent on constitutional makeup and therefore largely hereditary in origin.

Eliasz (1990) queries the generally-accepted notion that temperament is stable across time *and* situations by suggesting that while the former is true, people may act differently in different situations. Bates (2000) believes that the emotional components of temperament can be modified by social interaction. For example, tendencies towards anger and aggression may be regulated by the individual when rewards and punishment for certain types of behaviour are considered.

Disposition is a term used in personality research to denote a tendency (through heredity or environmental influence) to think, feel and act in patterned ways. House, Shane and Herold (1996, p. 205) describe dispositions "as psychological, as opposed to physical or other objectively assessed characteristics of individuals - personality characteristics, need states, attitudes, preferences and motives." The constructs of mood and disposition intersect when trait mood is dependent on tendencies towards, for example, positive and negative affect (Watson & Tellegen, 1985).

Affect is an overarching construct that encompasses emotions, feelings, moods and temperament (Weiss, 2002; Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Isen (2000) uses the term as a broad concept of emotional well-being and has linked positive affect to creativity, problem solving and negotiation.

The constructs of emotion, feeling, temperament and mood, while conceptually different, can impact on each other. For example, intense anger or fear evoked by an incident can evolve into a general mood of irritability or anxiety. Disposition, such as trait negativity or anxiety, can result in emotions being readily felt and contribute to nervous or irritable moods (Fisher, 1997; Gray & Watson, 2001). Briner and Kiefer (2005) warn that confusing emotion and mood obscures the true nature of emotional experience. In recalling the affective components of a change, a person cannot always distinguish between the sudden onset of feeling that is characteristic of an emotion from the more diffuse nature of mood that follows. For example, a mood of anxiety may have other causes apart from, say, the announcement of a change at work. Moods may derive

from events and issues outside of the workplace, and even within the workplace may relate to issues unrelated to a change. Given that change takes place over time, moods and emotions themselves change and research subjects, and the researchers themselves, may find it difficult to ascertain whether a response derives from emotion or mood, or both.

Perspectives on Emotions

The study of emotions has been characterised by Weiss (2002) to comprise three main traditions: evolutionary, cognitive and physiological. Other authors (e.g. Fineman, 1993b; 2000b; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995) have taken a social constructionist approach which they say has superseded the psychodynamic approach of Freud and others. There are considerable overlaps in the varying perspectives with a general agreement that emotion is fundamentally concerned with the ways in which people react to their environments. Given that the model of responses to changes presented in Figure 4 has a strong cognitive focus with an equally strong orientation towards social influences, these two perspectives will be accorded a deeper treatment in various parts of this study.

The evolutionary approach

The evolutionary approach draws on the work of Darwin (1872, cited in Weiss, 2002), who took the position that emotions are adaptive functions in humans that help them react to a wide range of stimuli. Izard (1992, p. 35) indicates that this school of thought assumes emotions to be “specific neuropsychological phenomena, shaped by natural selection, that organize and motivate physiological, cognitive and action patterns that facilitate adaptive responses to the vast array of demands and opportunities in the environment.” Emotions play a role in the functioning of consciousness, facilitate social behaviour and interaction, contribute towards the ability to solve problems and enhance memory (Izard, 2002). Emotions communicate information from one person to another, regulate individual reactions and contribute towards survival (Plutchik, 1994). Frijda (2000) speculates that the evolutionary approach to emotion may now have run its course and that the physical and social environments of the modern age (at least for most people) do not require the same adaptive strategies.

Cosmides and Tooby (2000, p. 93) outline a range of processes that occur in the experience of an emotion and the wide range of “mental programs” that accompany it,

such as shifts in perception, goal evaluation and motivation, information gathering, conceptual frame shifts, memory, communication, inference activation, learning, physiology changes and behaviour. The process of evolution has provided people with “superordinate programs - the emotions” that direct their responses to environmental stimuli (p. 94).

The role of facial expression in the study of emotions has been an important area of research but the universality of emotional expression across cultures has been the subject of some controversy (Ekman, 1994a). Evolutionary theories on emotion posit that facial expressions are biological responses to stimuli that, inter alia, communicate important information to others (Turner & Ortony, 1992; Izard, 1992). Given that the evolution of the human species is to large extent a physiological process, a school of research has focused on how emotions arise from bodily sensations (such as pain or pleasure) and move along neural and chemical pathways. This is discussed in the next section.

The physiological approach

Theorists of the physiological bases of emotions have focused on the location of emotion in the brain and central nervous system and on the chemical relationship between perceptions of events and biological responses (Ledoux, 1994; Panksepp, 1994b). Levenson (1994) differs from some of the other researchers in claiming that specific emotions are accompanied by different physiological patterns. For example, disgust produces a lower heart rate than fear, sadness or anger, but anger has a greater affect on skin temperature than fear. One promising line of research was highlighted in a special edition on the brain in *Time* magazine (Lemonick, 2007, p. 80), in which McGaugh, an academic neurobiologist, states, “Any kind of emotional experience will create stronger memory than would otherwise be created.” If emotions enhance memory, there is a direct connection to the evolutionary approach that emotions strengthen the ability to survive difficult experiences or repeat pleasurable experiences, and to the cognitive tradition that relates cognition to emotion. Research by Talarico, Labar and Rubin (2004) showed clearly that the intensity of an emotion plays a far stronger role in recall than valence or age of memory.

While research into the evolutionary and physiological aspects of emotion is broadening understanding of the nature of emotion, the relevance of this line of investigation is peripheral to this thesis. A wide range of perspectives on the physiology

of emotion is found in Ekman and Davidson (1994), Harré and Parrott (1996) and Lewis and Havilland-Jones (2000) and a recent overview of developments is provided by Feldman Barrett, Mequita, Oschner and Gross (2007). Organisational psychologists (e.g. Weiss, 2002; King, 2001) note that research into physiology paints a wider picture of the nature of emotions but naturally these scholars have been more concerned with the way in which emotions occur in organisational settings and how people make sense of emotional experience.

The cognitive approach

Cognitive approaches to the study of emotion focus on the interpretive processes people engage in when faced with certain stimuli. Ortony, Clore and Collins (1988, p. 13) define emotions as “valenced reactions to events, agents or objects, with their particular nature being determined by the way in which the eliciting event is construed.” They propose a general theory of the cognitive antecedents of emotions and delineate the cognitive processes that generate discrete emotions and their effects. Theorists such as Scherer (1999) and Smith and Kirby (2001) have also focused on the processes used in determining meaning from emotion-eliciting events. The study of emotions from the standpoint of some philosophers also identifies the central role of cognition in emotion (e.g. Solomon, 2003).

Cognition usually precedes emotion and Frijda (1988) has developed what he terms a ‘law of situational meaning’ in which an emotion is a likely outcome of a chain of thought that assigns meaning to events. Lazarus (1991, p. 353) is blunt in his assertion that “emotions cannot occur without some kind of thought” and that the process may be bi-directional, a view supported by Craib (1995). Cognitive processes may be quick and semi-automatic or more considered (Elfenbein, 2007; Leventhal & Scherer, 1987; Lazarus, 1991; Zajonc, 1998; Bargh & Chartrand, 1999). Parrott (2002, p. 342) considers appraisal to be “cognitive in a way that is more like perception than like reasoning or knowledge”, and focuses on the potential wellbeing of the individual. He further points out, “From this perspective positive and negative emotions are not so much pleasant and unpleasant hedonic states as they are favorable and unfavorable assessments of one’s personal circumstances” (p. 343).

Emotion alerts the individual to factors in the environment which are potentially significant. For example, a feeling of anxiety heightens awareness of the need to take action; guilt and anger produce thoughts that may lead to redress of injustice. Weick

(1995, p. 45) suggests that an interruption to work flow “induces an emotional response, which then paves the way for emotion to influence sense-making.” However, critics of a narrow cognitive approach (Izard, 1992; Zajonc, 1980) assert that emotion can occur without cognition, such as the anxiety and surprise that occur from a sudden experience of pain, and that people can experience an emotion without knowing why (Craib, 1995). The literature on mood is more tolerant of the view that affect can occur without the individual always being aware of the cause (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Weiss, 2002).

Lazarus and colleagues (Lazarus, 1991; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen & DeLongis, 1986) describe the relationship between cognition and emotion as occurring in two stages. Primary appraisal refers to a perception of a potentially emotion-inducing event and focuses on the relevance of the issue to the individual. Secondary appraisal is a process of considering how the person might cope. Support for this approach has been given by Elfенbein (2007, p. 323), who states that cognitive appraisal theory is “underappreciated for its power to shed light on phenomena central to organizations.”

Folkman and Lazarus (1985, 1988) identified two forms of coping with stressful encounters. Problem-focused coping is an action-oriented response whereby a person seeks to address the issues causing the emotion, for example by using ‘confrontive coping’ and ‘planful problem-solving’. While their study was not done in an organisational change context, Folkman and Lazarus (1988, p. 473) speculate that people “who experience distress when receiving notification of imminent layoffs are likely to feel better when they begin to make plans for finding new work”, a view corroborated by Paterson and Härtel (2002) in their model on downsizing. Emotion-focused coping is a mechanism that is used to manage the emotional effects of the event, such as distancing, self-control and positive reappraisal, the last being a perception that the person has grown through the experience.

Folkman and Lazarus (1988) point out that one cannot always designate an action as only problem-focused or emotion-focused. Steps taken to solve the problem (for example, by talking to the person responsible for causing it) can also have the effect of reducing the negative emotion associated with it. Some approaches are considered adaptive, others maladaptive, but as the authors point out, it depends on the context. For example, while ‘planful problem-solving’ is generally adaptive it will become maladaptive if the person stubbornly persists with an ineffective strategy. Conversely, ‘confrontive coping’, which they see as essentially maladaptive, might on occasion

produce a beneficial outcome and reduce a negative emotion. Folkman and Moskowitz (2000) note that the coping literature has focused mainly on negative emotions, and comment on how the use of positive emotions helps to mitigate the negative emotions caused by stressful events. Coping through positive reappraisal - or looking on the bright side - is a reframing of a situation that allows for more productive action and a reduction in negative emotions such as anxiety and helplessness.

Latack (1986) divides coping with stress into three main strategies: avoidance (absenteeism, sick leave, turnover), control (taking charge, working harder and longer, asking for help) and managing the symptoms (getting more sleep, exercising). She found that people who adopted control strategies coped best but acknowledged that the nature of the situation has to be taken into account. If people cannot control an issue or event they resort to the other two strategies. According to Smith and Ellsworth (1985), control over a situation helps a person deal with the emotions that arise. Negative emotions eventuate when events are controlled by others or lie beyond anyone's control (such as in natural disasters or economic crises). Emotions such as guilt or embarrassment occur when a person has control over events but takes no action or the wrong action.

Not only has emotion been viewed as “an underprivileged area in psychology” (Frijda, 1988, p. 349), it has also been seen as the opposite of reason, with researchers reporting that emotion has been considered irrelevant, counter-productive and dysfunctional (Domagalski, 1999). The philosopher Solomon (2003, p. 3), sought to counter this view by firmly stating that “emotions are rational and purposive rather than irrational and disruptive.” He pours scorn on the notion that emotions are irrational:

The emotions are said to be stupid, unsophisticated, childish, if not utterly infantile, primitive or animalistic - relics from our primal past and perverse and barbaric origins. The emotions are said to be disruptions, interfering with our purposes in life, embarrassing us and making fools of us, destroying careers and marriages, and ruining our relationships with other people (p. 34).

The debate has penetrated the study of the role of emotion in organisational life, which will be dealt with later in the literature review, as will the nature of emotional intelligence, which has been considered as the ability to reason with and about emotion (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

The psychodynamic approach

Psychoanalytical and psychodynamic theories of emotion, according to Fineman

(1993b, p. 3), are based on Freudian approaches to the interpretation of emotion as emerging from the unconscious “and invisible world of personal anxieties, fears and yearnings.” Here “we are unaware of some of our most basic motivations and feelings; they are repressed, pushed from consciousness, because of the anxiety, guilt or shame arising from the events with which they are associated” (Fineman, 1993c, p. 24).

Psychodynamic treatments of organisational life have pointed to the range of emotions that emerge as people come to grips with concepts of identity, power and, notably for this thesis, change (Carr, 1999, 2001). According to Carr (2001, p. 429), “the processes involved in the relationship between employee and organization are deep-seated, largely unconscious, intimately connected to the development of identity; and have emotional content.” He suggests that change ‘dislodges’ identity and leads to anxiety and grieving. French (2001, p. 485) also believes that a psychoanalytical perspective on organisational change produces useful insight into people’s emotional responses as they manifest themselves in patterns of “denial, avoidance and resistance”. Antonacopoulou and Gabriel (2001) indicate that psychoanalytical studies of emotions have focused on irrationality and ambivalence, as people try to reconcile conflicting thoughts and feelings, which the authors suggest is typically done during organisational change.

A number of authors have related psychodynamic approaches to emotions, including those arising from change, to social constructionist approaches. As Vince (2006, p. 346) puts it, “Psychodynamic theory offers the insight that feelings are not only private experiences, but are shaped by, and linked to, the internalization or denial, of self-other relations.” He also notes that meanings and feelings emerge during change events and are influenced by political, social and cultural forces within organisational contexts. Gabriel (1998) has also sought a ‘rapprochement’ between psychodynamic and constructionist views, claiming that inner emotional experiences are moulded by social forces. The social constructionist approach is therefore the last main perspective engaged here.

The social constructionist approach

Kemper (2000) suggests that emotions, as socially constructed phenomena, are derived from evolutionary and cognitive forces. Issues of power, authority and status condition people to display or hide emotions in ‘appropriate’ ways. According to Fineman (2000b), emotions are responses by individuals to the social rules, implicit and explicit,

that are part of the wider culture in which they live. Social mores and norms drive much of the experience, expression and suppression of emotions (Antonacopoulou & Gabriel, 2001). Hochschild (1983) takes a sociological perspective on emotions as expected behaviour, and as taught responses to events and relationships. Social constructionists (e.g. Harré, 1986; Burkitt, 1997; Clarke, 2003) take account of the biological facets of emotions, such as heartbeat and perspiration, but argue that individuals experience and understand emotion through the media of social relationships and language. However, even within this tradition, there are differences in opinion as to whether emotions are totally or partly socially constructed (Schwandt, 2003).

Taking an organisational perspective, Ashforth and Humphrey (1995, p. 100) reflect that “Cultures - whether societal, organizational, occupational, departmental, etc. - provide beliefs about emotional states, a vocabulary for discussing them and a set of socially-acceptable attributions for the states.” The literature on emotional labour (e.g. Mann, 1999b; Bolton, 2005; Smollan, 2006c), emphasises the cultural expectations (from multiple sources) that people will express or suppress emotions at work. There is also a strong line of thinking that emotions at work have been ‘captured’, ‘harnessed’, ‘managed’, ‘controlled’, ‘sanitised’ and ‘commodified’ by organisations for their own ends, and often at the expense of the employee (Sturdy & Fineman, 2001; Fineman, 2000b, 2004, 2005; Hochschild, 1983; Zembylas, 2006).

In the context of organisational change, Vince (2006) and Antonacopoulou and Gabriel (2001) point out that meanings and emotions emerge during change events that are shaped by political, social and cultural forces. Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) and Turnbull (1999) have documented in qualitative studies how employees were expected to show or hide certain emotions during periods of change.

The social construction of emotions will be discussed in other parts of the literature review, in particular the section on emotional labour, and also in Chapter 3 on methodology.

Overview of perspectives on emotions

The different approaches summarised above demonstrate the wide diversity of views on the nature of emotion and reflect the interests, and sometimes the ideologies, of the disciplines from which they originate. Craib (1995), for example, writes that as both psychotherapist and sociologist he has problems with certain social constructionist views that emotions can only be understood from a sociological perspective. Gabriel

(1998) has also pointed to the weaknesses of a social construction reading of emotions, which he says inadequately addresses the origins of emotions and the reasons specific emotions are associated with different contexts. Fineman (2005) refers to paradigm tensions in the study of emotions and Sturdy (2003, p. 97) comments that using a multidisciplinary approach will result in a deeper understanding of a complex field but also warns of the “danger that tensions between perspectives remain unacknowledged.” Küpers and Weibler (2008) have developed a model that integrates individual and social forces that influence the internal experience of emotions and their outward manifestation, in organisational settings. The various approaches to the study of emotions can thus both confront and complement each other.

For the purpose of this thesis the most important issues will revolve around the ways in which employees interpret the events that affect them. Emotions are intensely personal phenomena. While they may have dispositional and physiological properties they are also derived from cognitive and social processes. In the methodology section I will elaborate on my choice of a social constructionist approach, blended with a cognitive perspective, to this study of the emotions of organisational change.

Presented next are two major themes that have emerged in emotions research: the concept of basic or discrete emotions, and the use of various typologies that are used to analyse the dimensions of emotions.

Basic and Discrete Emotions

Over the years one of the major debates in the study of emotions has been about the concept of discrete and basic emotions. Issues include the number and nature of separate emotions, which are basic and therefore subsume related emotions, the criteria for categorisation as basic, and the antecedents and consequences of emotions.

Typologies of emotions can include hundreds of affect-related terms (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson & O'Connor, 1987). Many can be grouped together, for example, anxiety, fear and fright, or joy, delight and happiness. A set of basic emotions with their combinations, according to Ortony et al. (1988), will account for all identified emotions. A classification of emotions as basic serves a number of purposes. Firstly, it simplifies a vast and confusing field. Secondly, it provides a common language for the understanding of a part of human nature. Thirdly, it facilitates the scientific investigation of emotion and specifically the development of measures of emotions.

Unfortunately there is little agreement among psychologists as to what

constitutes a basic emotion (Ortony et al., 1988; Turner & Ortony, 1992). In Ekman and Davidson (1994) five authors attempt to answer the editors' question: Are there basic emotions? Two say yes and three say no. Taking a physiological perspective Panksepp (1994b) suggests that emotions can be classified in terms of common neural circuit characteristics. Ekman (1994b) argues that common emotions can be found across many cultures and that a classification of emotions into basic families can be achieved if they meet certain criteria. Scherer (1994) refers to research across cultures that reveals lack of specific correlations in the terms used to label emotions. Similarly, Shweder (1994) asserts that there are too many linguistic differences across countries and cultures to enable researchers to decide on a definitive grouping. Averill (1994) argues that there are too many ways in which emotions can be categorised to settle on one best format, and even if this were possible, there is little point in doing so.

Theorists who argue in favour of a concept of basic emotions have provided not merely a rationale for the classification process, but also for why and how their lists meet these criteria. For example, Ekman (1994b, p. 18) uses the following criteria against which to judge the inclusion of an emotion as basic, "automatic appraisal, commonalities in antecedent events, presence in other primates, quick onset, brief duration, unbidden occurrence and distinctive physiology." Lazarus and Cohen-Charash (2001) admit that their list of the most important emotions is a subjective one. Shaver et al. (1987) surveyed 112 students by asking them to group 135 emotions and found that they could be combined into six prototypical categories.

Table 1 includes a number of approaches to the classification of basic emotions, grouped into positive and negative emotions. The order in which items are presented by the authors has been altered to identify common items. In the five lists the most common emotions were anger (5), fear (4), joy (4) and disgust (3). While one author might be content with the use of one word, for example, anger, others might add words such as contempt and disgust. The inclusion of surprise in a list of emotions is controversial. Shaver et al. (1987) query whether it can be classified as a basic emotion. Ortony et al. (1988) argue that surprise is not an emotion at all; it is a cognition that generates an emotion, either positive (e.g. pleasure) or negative (e.g. fear). In an empirical study Gibson (1995), however, found respondents overwhelmingly regarded surprise as negative. Nevertheless, as Table 1 indicates, several authors do list it as a basic emotion. A number of other authors have also engaged in the debate (see Ortony et al., 1988 and Plutchik, 1994 for additional references). Several authors have referred

Izard (1992) 10	Plutchik (1994) 8	Ekman (1994) 6	Shaver et al. (1987) 6	Lazarus (1993) 15	Lazarus & Cohen - Charash (2001) 15
				relief	
interest					
				hope	hope
			love	love	love
joy	joy	joy	joy		
				happiness	happiness
	anticipation				
	acceptance				
				pride	pride
				compassion	compassion
					gratitude
surprise	surprise	surprise	surprise		
fear	fear	fear	fear		
				anxiety	anxiety
				fright	fright
distress					
	sadness	sadness	sadness	sadness	sadness
guilt				guilt	guilt
anger	anger	anger	anger	anger	anger
disgust	disgust	disgust		disgust	
contempt					
shame				shame	shame
				jealousy	jealousy
				envy	envy

Table 1: Basic emotions

to emotion blends. These are combinations of emotions leading to further emotions. For example, reproach and distress lead to anger (Ortony et al., 1988), hurt is a combination of sadness and anger (Shaver et al., 1987), fear and disgust lead to shame (Plutchik, 1994).

Ortony et al. (1988) have queried whether the identification of basic emotions, while simplifying a vast field, serves a useful purpose. Plutchik (1994) concludes his review of basic emotions by suggesting that the lack of agreement is not significant and will not hamper further research into emotions. What has been of greater utility for quantitative studies of emotion is the development of measures that encapsulate the most commonly experienced emotions. These will be discussed in the next section. The debate has sharpened the knowledge of researchers, both quantitative and qualitative, of fine distinctions, such as between fear and anxiety, or shame and embarrassment, and between what Ortony and Turner (1990) label as biologically primitive emotions, such as fear, which are found in all people, and psychologically primitive social emotions, such as shame, which are more culturally specific.

Emotional Dimensions

Parallel to the exploration of basic emotions by psychologists has been a heated debate concerning the dimensions of emotions. Having reviewed 359 articles in the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* from 1991 to 1997, Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999) pointed out that most discussed the structure of emotion but that there was considerable disagreement on the nature of the structure, in particular, whether emotions are measurable on unipolar or bipolar scales.

Several authors have depicted the structure of emotions in the form of a circumplex, which seeks to explain the occurrence of emotions along a number of axes, notably pleasantness and degrees of arousal or activation. Three of these are shown in Figure 1, Emotion Circumplexes. A number of emotions are identified with like emotions grouped near each other with correlates at 90 degrees and opposites at 180 degrees. For example, the positive emotion of happiness and the negative emotion of fear can refer to higher or lower degrees of arousal.

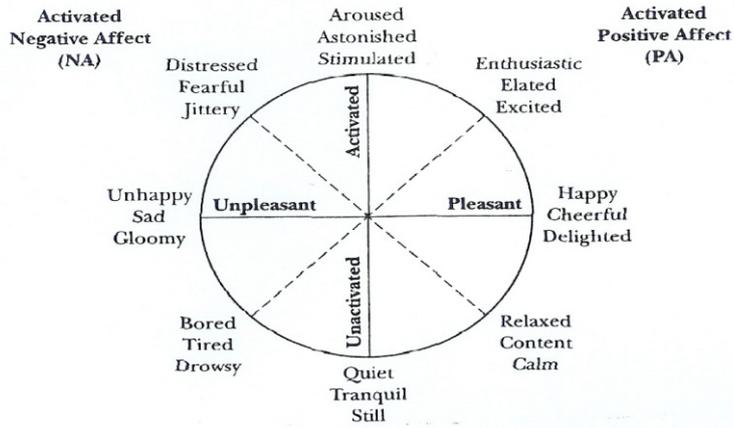
Russell (1980) developed a circumplex model with axes of pleasure and arousal. Scales are bipolar, for example, the opposite of happiness is sadness. Nearly two decades later the model of Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999) contains two concepts. In the inner circle, “*core affect*” refers to consciously accessible elemental processes of

pleasure and activation, has many causes and is always present” (p. 805). In the outer circle are *prototypical emotion episodes*, in which a discrete emotion, or a blend of emotions, is triggered by a specific event.

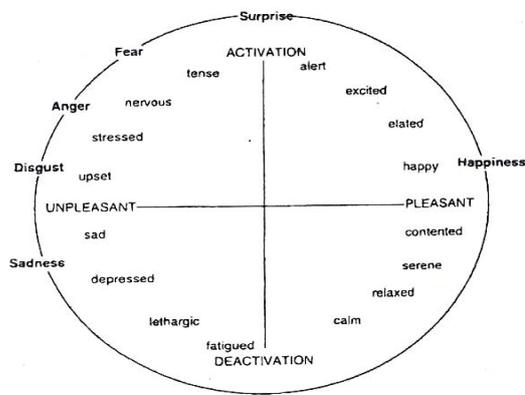
Watson and Tellegen (1985) also developed a circumplex model which has four axes. Along the dotted lines are axes for pleasantness and engagement and along the solid lines are two axes identifying positive affect and negative affect. Items in the same octant are highly positively correlated while those 45 degrees apart are moderately correlated, those 90 degrees apart are uncorrelated and those 180 degrees apart are opposite in meaning and highly negatively correlated. Pleasant and unpleasant emotions are at opposite ends of the same (bipolar) scale (e.g. happy-unhappy), but affect scales are unipolar - the opposite of high positive affect (e.g. elated, enthusiastic) is low positive affect (e.g. drowsy, dull), not negative affect. High negative affect is evident when a person is distressed, fearful or hostile, whereas low negative affect is characterised by one who is calm and relaxed. The model of Larsen, Diener and Lucas (2002) has a similar structure to that of Watson and Tellegen (1985) but uses slightly different terms.

While other circumplex models have been presented (see Russell and Feldman Barrett, 1999, for an overview), the mostly hotly debated issue has been the concept of affect terms being measured on unipolar or bipolar scales. Watson and Tellegen (1985) asserted the independence of PA and NA. In this article and subsequent articles (Watson et al., 1988; Watson & Clark, 1997; Watson & Tellegen, 1999; Tellegen, Watson & Clark, 1999; Watson, Wiese, Vaidya & Tellegen, 1999), they repeatedly provided empirical evidence that they believe supports this claim and refutes criticism of their model and competing interpretations of their results. Similarly, Russell and his colleagues (Russell & Feldman Barrett, 1999; Russell & Carroll, 1999) and Green, Goldman and Salovey (1993) have conducted their own empirical investigations which they maintain support their position that affect is essentially bipolar in nature.

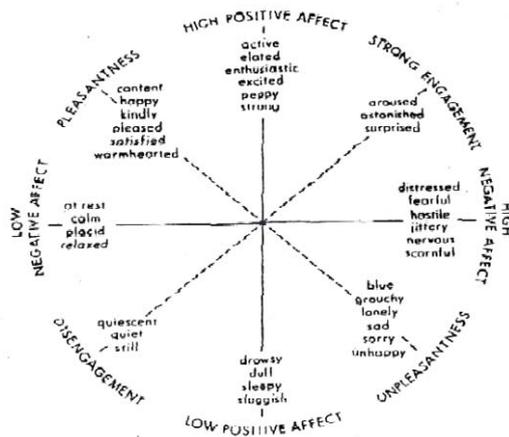
The debate as to whether positive and negative affect are the opposite poles of one dimension, or two independent concepts, each with a high and low pole, is not merely one of semantics. Each camp has pointed to what they see as methodological flaws in the research of the other. However, they also grudgingly acknowledge that there is some area of agreement. For example, Tellegen et al. (1999) suggest that some feelings mark opposite poles in a bipolar structure (such as happiness and sadness), while PA and NA are relatively independent. Similarly, Russell and Feldman Barrett



Larsen, Diener & Lucas (2002)



Russell & Feldman Barrett (1999)



Watson & Tellegen (1985)

Figure 1: Emotion Circumplexes

(1999) indicate that there are some areas of agreement, for example, on the basic structure of emotions, even though different terms are used.

In his introduction to the special section on the structure of emotion in the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Diener (1999, p. 804) sums up the debate by pointing out that “some consensus is emerging” - circumplex models are widely accepted as a concept of affect, with pleasantness and unpleasantness on one axis and degrees of activation or engagement on the other. Clarity of terms is essential. Watson et al. (1999) changed their terms PA and NA to represent high positive or negative *activation*, instead of the terms previously used, *affect*, or *affectivity*, which they acknowledge are too broad to capture the essence of a mood state. The construction of instruments to measure emotions needs to be carefully scrutinised so that researchers agree whether the dimensions of emotions are accurately described (Russell & Carroll, 1999; Watson & Clark, 1997).

Reference to circumplex models has occasionally entered the literature on organisational change. For example Lines (2005) conceptualises the emergence of pleasant and activation dimensions in affective responses to organisational change and Bartunek, Rousseau, Rudolph and De Palma (2006) tested for pleasantness and activation in a study on nurses and participation in a new governance initiative.

Affect Measures

While the exact number of basic emotions will still be debated, and the arguments over unipolarity/bipolarity and the nature of items and axes in circumplexes will continue, of equal importance are ways of capturing and measuring emotions and moods. Various methodological approaches can be used. Scales do not necessarily engage in the issue of whether emotions are basic or not. The purpose is usually to allow respondents to identify what the authors believe are the most commonly occurring emotions.

Some researchers have developed instruments to record emotions experienced by people in every day contexts while some have focused on organisational settings. For example, Watson et al. (1988) used 20 items in their Positive and Negative Affect Schedules (PANAS), Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector and Galloway (2000) identify 30 emotions in their Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS) and Fisher's (1997) Job Emotion Scale (JES) contains 16 items, based on an analysis of typologies of discrete emotions. Warr (1990) investigated affect at work in a broader context, using measures of emotions as well as those for job competence, job aspiration and job carry-

Fisher (1997) JES 16	Watson et al. (1988) PANAS 20	Van Katwyk et al. (2000) JAWS 30	Warr (1990) Affective Well-Being 12
	strong determined		
optimistic			optimistic
content pleased happy enjoying liking		content pleased happy at ease satisfied cheerful elated ecstatic calm relaxed	content relaxed cheerful calm
enthusiastic	enthusiastic excited	enthusiastic excited energetic	enthusiastic
	interested attentive alert active		
	inspired	inspired	
proud	proud	proud	
worried	distressed scared afraid nervous jittery	frightened intimidated anxious	worried uneasy tense
embarrassed	guilty ashamed		
depressed		depressed	depressed
	irritable upset	annoyed	
unhappy frustrated		gloomy frustrated miserable discouraged	gloomy miserable
disappointed			
angry	hostile	angry furious	
disgusted		disgusted	
		bored	
		confused	
		fatigued	

Note that the order of items has been changed from those devised by the authors to facilitate comparison and to separate positive moods and emotions from the negative.

Table 2: Mood and Emotion Scales

over (that is, from the work environment to the non-work environment). From his circumplex of 32 emotions in four quadrants he used 12, three from each quadrant. Table 2 show considerable similarity between the four scales, with the JAWS approach providing a wider range of similar emotions. An even number of positive and negative responses is allowed in each measure. The PANAS-X (Watson & Clark, 1994) expanded the original 20 items of Watson et al. (1988) to 60 items, with the advice to investigators who have time constraints to choose those that are most relevant. It should be noted that the researchers sometimes refer to mood, sometimes to emotions and sometimes simply to affect. Briner and Kiefer (2005) caution that this discrepancy is confusing, yet Fisher (1997), while acknowledging the usefulness of the distinction, points to the way in which mood and emotion influence each other and to the difficulty in separating them at times. All four scales in the table are self-report based measures. The PANAS scales measure responses in terms of the extent to which emotions have been felt over a period of time whereas the JES, JAWS and Affective Well-being Scale measure responses in terms of frequency of emotions experienced.

Payne (2001) provides an extensive review of a number of other instruments, including those designed to measure a single discrete emotion, such as anger, envy, jealousy and guilt. Various researchers have used instruments to specifically measure emotional traits, rather than states. For example, Lerner and Keltner (2001) used two scales to measure dispositional fear and two to measure dispositional anger.

While self-report measures are commonly used, a number of researchers have commented that they provide at best a limited, and not always accurate, view of experienced emotions and that multiple methods should be used (Larsen et al., 2002; Diener, Smith & Fujita, 1995; Izard, 1992).

The measures referred to provide a range of alternatives for the design of a quantitative methodology for the study of emotions during organisational change. The purpose of presenting these scales here is to demonstrate the range of affect terms used by various researchers and the rationales they have presented to devise instruments that meaningfully capture what they see as the most commonly experienced emotions.

Some researchers have queried whether emotions can be captured in a quantitative fashion that does not merely provide superficial information. Folkman and Moskowitz (2000, 2004) dispute the ability of quantitative methods to produce more than surface insights. Fineman (2004, 2005) comments at length on how the quantitative approach to researching emotions has been the dominant mode of analysis, as it has in

other constructs in the social sciences. He complains that this privileges certain understandings of the nature of emotion and ignores or rejects others. One effect is that statistical presentations of emotions are “truncated” and “eviscerated” (Fineman 2004, p. 731), “produce phantom images” (Fineman, 2005, p. 14) and are unable to reflect “the heat, the contradictions, the inchoateness of lived emotionality” (Fineman, 2005, p. 7).

Other Forms of Research into Emotion

Qualitative approaches have also been used in various branches of psychology and have proved particularly helpful in understanding responses to organisational issues, including change. The most common approach in this paradigm has been the interview method (e.g. Wolfram Cox, 1997; Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2004; 2006; Poder, 2004; Piderit, 2000; Vince, 2000). Focus groups have also been used (e.g. Dasborough, 2006; N. Clarke, 2006). Trained observers are able to provide some insight into the occurrence of emotions in others (Larsen et al., 2002), particularly in the interpretation of emotions evidenced in facial expressions (Ekman, 1994) and in the occurrence of emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002). Ethnographic approaches, embracing both observation and interviews, have provided a contextually rich vein of material of the emotions of organisational change (e.g. Turnbull, 1999; Huy, 2002; Poder, 2004). Textual analysis of interview and questionnaire data has also been deployed to capture the experience of emotion in quantitative form (e.g. Mossholder, Settoon, Armenakis & Harris, 2000; Dasborough, 2006). Diary studies have provided insight into the daily experience of emotion at work (e.g. Grandey, Tam & Brauburger, 2002; Conway & Briner, 2002). The analysis of drawings as a means of interpreting responses to change has been done by Vince and Broussine (1996) and Eilam and Shamir (2005). Biological measures have been used to measure emotions (Payne, 2001, King 2001; Larsen, 2002), but while they provide organisational researchers with a broader perspective of the bases of emotion, they offer little insight into the causes and consequences of emotional responses to organisational issues.

Emotions and Change

Using theory from psychoanalysis, French (2001, p. 482) points out that many forms of change involve uncertainty and those who have what the poet Keats termed ‘negative capability’ are able to “tolerate ambiguity and paradox” since they have the “capacity to

integrate mental and emotional states” and consequently adapt their behaviour. Using a similar approach Carr (2001) puts forward the Freudian view that identity is laced with emotionality and claims that change can dislodge that identity and produce a reaction akin to grieving. Based on a comparison of various models of individual change, Elrod and Tippett (2001) refer to the many emotions that erupt in a rollercoaster ride through positive and negative cognitive and affective states.

Changes in many facets of a person’s life are experienced over time. These could include family, housing, education, social relationships, health and work. One stress and coping instrument includes 72 items on recent life changes (including work), recent health issues and emotions (Rahe, Veach, Tolles & Murkami, 2000). Affect accompanies most change as people see gains and losses. Detailing a school-based programme for helping children deal with change, loss and grief from events such as death, parental separation or divorce, Graham (2004) reports on children expressing feelings such as sadness, anger, loneliness and fright. Positive emotions were also found in certain aspects of the programme. In analysing radical change in a community setting, Fiol and O’Connor (2002) suggested that emotional reactions often overrode cognitive appreciation of the need for change. According to them radical change usually impacts negatively on individual, group, organisational and community identity, and threatens to produce negative emotions and resistance.

Emotions in Organisations

The Role of Emotions in Organisational Life

Most, but not all, of the literature review so far has been concerned with broad areas of social psychology. I now turn my attention to the role of emotion in organisations. I will return to the debate on the functional versus disruptive elements of emotions, and then examine the concepts of emotional regulation, emotional labour, emotional dissonance and emotional contagion. Emotional intelligence will be highlighted in a separate section.

In the 1990s there was considerable criticism of the relative dearth of research into emotions in organisational life (Fineman, 1993a; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Briner, 1999; Domagalski, 1999). This paralleled complaints that affect had been under-researched in broader areas of social psychology (e.g. Frijda, 1988). While the lament on organisational applications has continued into the new millennium (e.g. Muchinsky, 2000), it has abated somewhat with the publication of a range of volumes on the topic

(e.g. Ashkanasy, Härtel & Zerbe, 2000; Ashkanasy, Zerbe & Härtel, 2002; 2005; 2006; Härtel, Zerbe & Ashkanasy, 2005; Härtel, Ashkanasy & Zerbe, 2007; Fineman, 2000a, 2003, 2005; 2008; Lord, Klimoski & Kanfer, 2002; Payne & Cooper, 2001), together with special editions on emotions in organisations in a number of journals, and a wide variety of journal articles and book chapters. Emonet, the Emotions in Organizations Network, started by Neal Ashkanasy at the University of Queensland in Australia, has hosted bi-ennial conferences since 1998, and the organisers (Ashkanasy, Zerbe and Härtel) edit the books (referred to earlier) that appear after the conferences. The Emonet email list, which provides information and debate on emotions in organisations, has over 700 members (Emonet, 2008). Books or book chapters have also appeared on special aspects of work-based emotions, such as on emotional intelligence (e.g. Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2003, 2007; Druskat, Sala & Mount, 2006) and emotional labour (e.g. Mann, 1999b; Bolton, 2005) and special editions of journals have also added to the rapidly growing body of knowledge in these sub-fields. To show how much the tide has turned Elfenbein (2007) suggests that “Emotion has now become one of the most popular - and popularized - areas within organizational scholarship” (p. 315), and that this has led “to a near explosion of interest in the topic” (p. 316).

As in broader areas of social psychology, and in common parlance, emotionality has been considered the opposite of rationality (Lazarus, 1991, 1995). The rational-bureaucratic perspective has also dominated organisational studies (Vince, 2006). Ritzer (1998, p. vii) claims that the ‘McDonalization’ of society is an acceleration of rationality, bringing “an increase in efficiency, predictability, calculability and control through the substitution of non-human for human technology.” Organisations have conventionally been seen as “rationally ordered, appropriately structured, and emotion-free life spaces, where the right decisions are made for the right reasons by the right people, in a reliable and predictable manner” (Kersten, 2001, p. 452). In reviewing the role of emotion in organisational life, Domagalski (1999) points to a strong tradition in which emotions have been viewed as irrational, illogical, disruptive and chaotic. In contrast, mechanistic approaches to organisational life have focused on order, precision, routinisation and predictability. Putnam and Mumby (1992) suggest that rationality has been typically defined in glowing terms as intentional, reasoned and focused on the achievement of goals, qualities essentially linked to male stereotypes, while emotion has been marginalised, trivialised and devalued - and denigrated as feminine. Weber (1968,

p. 975), in expounding on the principles of bureaucracy, maintains that organisational efficiency is heightened “the more it is ‘dehumanised’, the more it succeeds in eliminating from official business love, hatred, and purely personal, irrational and emotional elements which escape calculation.” Even writing about emotion has been subjected to cultural constructions of appropriateness and Tierney (2003, p. 310) goes as far as to suggest that “Western epistemology was shaped by the belief that emotion needed to be cut out of the process of knowledge production.”

“Yet, one only has to scratch the surface of organizational life,” claims Gabriel (1998, p. 293), “to discover a thick layer of emotions, at times checked, at times feigned, at times timidly expressed, at other times bursting out uncontrollably.” In highlighting the need for research into affect in organisations, Fineman (1993b, p. 9) describes organisations as emotional arenas where “feelings contribute to, and reflect, the culture and structure.” Taking a social constructionist approach he maintains that feelings are shaped by the social milieus in which people live and work. In an effort to make meaning of their workplaces employees take cues from a variety of stimuli and process these experiences in cognitive and affective ways. “Cognition and emotions intertwine; ideas are laden with feelings, feelings contain ideas” (p. 16). Similarly, Ashforth and Humphrey (1995, p. 98) maintain that “the experience of work is saturated with feeling.”

Lazarus’ (1993) cognitive appraisal theory has been incorporated into organisational models and tested empirically. Cropanzano, Weiss, Suckow and Grandey (2000) hypothesised that primary appraisal occurs, and emotions are elicited, when individuals evaluate the consequences for themselves of organisational decisions. Secondary appraisal takes place, and possibly a different set of emotions arise, when the outcomes are interpreted in terms of attributions of cause, particularly when employees evaluate the fairness of the processes used to make the decisions. In two empirical studies they tested for the occurrence of four discrete emotions - guilt, pride, sadness and anger - and found that the emotions depended on a combination of perceived favourability of outcome and perceived justice. They were not convinced that appraisal theory and justice theory fitted comfortably side by side and proposed a model that more clearly addresses the different appraisal processes that generate emotions and perceptions of fairness. Paterson and Härtel’s (2002) model of cognitive and affective responses to downsizing starts with primary appraisal of the process, and the potential outcomes for the individual. Secondary appraisal includes attribution of cause, which,

viewed through the lens of organisational justice, produces anxiety, and contemplation of coping strategies. Huy (1999) incorporates appraisal and coping theories in describing the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational change.

In a recent review of affect in organisations, Barsade and Gibson (2007) comment on its application to organisational culture, group dynamics, conflict, leadership, decision making, creativity and prosocial behaviour, but made no reference to organisational change - which is unsurprising given the relative dearth of research in this area. Briner (1999) claims that organisational constructs of motivation, leadership, career management and change cannot be understood if emotions are excluded. Fineman (1993b), Ashforth and Humphrey (1995), Beyer and Nino (2001) and Pizer and Härtel (2005) have pointed to the role of organisational culture in eliciting emotions and yet simultaneously seeking to repress them. To change traditional organisational approaches, Huy (1999) argues for the development of emotional capability - the capacity of an organisation to legitimise emotions and emotional displays. The relationships between emotion and job satisfaction have been explored by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) and Wright and Staw (1999), and between emotions and stress by Lazarus (1999) and Muchinsky (2000). Emotions have penetrated research into organisational change, organisational justice, the psychological contract, leadership and trust. Fuller reviews of these constructs will be found in the relevant sections of this chapter.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) have attempted to develop the broadest approach to emotions in organisational life in their Affective Events Theory, which analyses the structure, causes and consequences of work-related emotions. The essence of their theory is that events at work generate affective reactions that have significant implications for attitudes and behaviour. While the theory deals with the distinctions between emotion, mood and disposition, it indicates that single events, and a pattern of events over time, need careful analysis so that their implications for individuals, groups and organisations can be assessed.

Basch and Fisher (2000) define an affective event as an incident that results in an appraisal of, and an emotional reaction to, a job-related agent (such as a supervisor or colleague), an object or an event. In a survey of hotel employees they adapted Fisher's (1997) Job Emotion Scale to identify the emotional causes and consequences of affective work-related events. The most highly reported incidents of positive events were goal achievement, recognition and acts of colleagues, while the most frequently

cited negative events were acts of colleagues and acts of management. This allowed them to develop matrices of discrete positive emotions and positive events and negative emotions and negative events.

Brief and Weiss (2002) believe that studies of affect at work have focused on mood and neglected to investigate discrete emotions. The latter line of research is, however, emerging. For example, Fitness (2000) and Aquino, Douglas and Martinko (2004) have tested for anger in the workplace, Kiefer (2002a), specifically examined fear, joy and anger during a merger and Bagozzi, Verbeke and Gavino (2003) investigated shame. In the context of organisational justice, Cropanzano et al. (2001) explored four emotions, guilt, pride, sadness and anger, and Williams (1999) found evidence of happiness, sadness and anger.

It is clear from the above that the experience of emotion is an undeniable aspect of organisational life. Two parallel and almost contradictory lines of research have focused on the experience and expression of emotion at work. While many writers have commented on how the expression of emotion has been frowned on by management, (see Fineman, 1993a, 2000a), a significant amount of attention has been paid by researchers to the emotions employees are *expected* to demonstrate in their jobs (Mann, 1995; Bolton, 2005; Smollan 2006c). This literature review therefore next engages in the topics of emotional regulation, emotional labour, emotional dissonance and emotional contagion.

Emotional Regulation

Emotions are often difficult to control, advises Lazarus (2006), particularly when they are intense. Emotional regulation is a concept that crosses various sub-disciplines in psychology and is defined by Gross (1998, p. 275) as “the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience or express them.” He suggests that there are five stages in the process of emotion generation at which emotion can be regulated: the selection of the situation to be regulated, the modification of the situation, the investment of attention to the situation, cognitive change and the control of the response. Kanfer and Kantrowitz (2002) point to several methods by which people regulate their emotions, such as cognitive processing, meditation, enhancing self-efficacy, suppression, venting and seeking social support.

The literature on emotional regulation borrows from the evolutionary tradition,

which sees emotions as adaptive mechanisms to environmental stimuli (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000); the cognitive tradition, which is based on the concept of the individual consciously appraising an emotion-eliciting event and responding to it (Scherer 1999); and the physiological tradition, according to which individuals react spontaneously to events and produce, or control, emotions that will facilitate survival (Panksepp, 1994a; Ledoux, 1994). Gross (1998) sees emotional regulation on a continuum from conscious to unconscious and automatic. Emotional regulation fits well with the concept of emotional intelligence (to be discussed at length later) in which the adaptive responses of people to emotional situations are viewed as abilities (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) or traits (Perez, Petrides & Furnham, 2005) or both (Goleman, 1998b; Bar-On, 1997), that can be used to manage the emotions of self and others.

Emotional regulation has been studied in the context of organisational behaviour to shed light on how employees manage emotional responses to work-related stimuli. Much of this literature deals with the construct of emotional labour.

Emotional Labour

The term emotional labour was coined by Hochschild (1983, p. 7) in a book appropriately called *The Managed Heart*, to describe the process by which employees engage in “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display.” She distinguishes between two types. In surface acting a modicum of emotion is called for. The employee can simulate the emotion for the benefit of the recipient, or to be observed as acting correctly by supervisors or peers. Deep acting occurs when considerable energy needs to be expended to display required emotions, so that it almost becomes natural. Studies in emotional labour are based on display rules (Ekman, 1973) which reinforce the assertion that much of emotion is socially-constructed (Fineman, 1993b; Callahan, 2002; Zembylas, 2006).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) focus more on the actual display of emotion than the management of feelings. Morris and Feldman (1996, p. 987) propose a more elaborate definition, “the effort, planning and control needed to express organisationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions.” Mann (1999a) points to different conceptualisations of emotional labour as the effort required to produce the required display and the actual display itself. Her definition encompasses both aspects: emotional labour is “the state that exists when there is a discrepancy between the emotional demeanour that an individual displays because it is considered appropriate, and the

emotions that are genuinely felt but would be inappropriate to display” (p. 353).

Hochschild (1983) distinguishes between emotional labour, which is sold for a wage, and emotion work, which involves the same processes but in a private context. Zapf (2002), however, uses the term emotion work to encompass actions that require interaction with clients, displaying of emotions to alter others’ emotions and the displaying of emotions to conform to organisational rules. Similarly, Strazdins (2002) uses the term emotional work to refer to the behaviours needed to satisfy role demands and to alter others’ feelings. As discussed earlier emotional regulation (Gross, 1998) is a broader concept, encompassing how individuals experience, express and control emotions in a variety of social contexts. The most comprehensive treatment of the subject of work-based emotional labour has been presented by Bolton (2005). Her typology of emotion management identifies four categories: pecuniary (the exchange of emotional labour for a wage, and thereby serving organisational ends), prescriptive (influenced by professional and organisational feeling rules), presentational (based on wide-spread social norms) and philanthropic (the extra effort that goes into the creation and/or maintenance of relationships).

There are multiple perspectives of the suitability of emotional expression and suppression - society, industry, profession, organisation, group, gender and individual (Smollan, 2006c). National and ethnic settings of the organisation influence what is considered acceptable by way of public display (Syed, 2008; Tan, Foo, Chong & Ng, 2003; Bagozzi et al., 2003; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; 1990). Industry norms have been shown to be relevant, particularly in most service-oriented jobs where employees are expected to display appropriate emotions, such as pleasantness or warmth (Sharpe, 2005; Mulholland, 2002; Rafaeli & Sutton; 1987; 1990), but in dealing with debt collection, expression of the negative emotions such as irritation or anger would be considered appropriate (Sutton, 1991). Certain professions like law (Lively, 2000; Harris, 2002), academia (Bellas, 1999) and those found in healthcare (Mann, 2005; Larson & Yao, 2005) have been found to require considerable degrees of emotional labour. Managers have also been labelled as professionals by academics (e.g. Fournier, 1999) and by organisations that represent them, such as the New Zealand Institute of Management (2008) and the Australian Institute of Management (2008). From an occupational perspective, Hochschild’s (1983) classification of work roles into occupations revealed that the second largest category was managers and administrators. Yet little attention that has been paid to managerial

emotional labour. This is surprising given that emotions surface in power and authority relationships (Poder, 2004). In a survey of 238 employees Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) identified 15 managers who reported a high mean level of emotional labour, but lower than that of service workers. Fitness (2000) found that anger was mainly due to clashes with supervisors, subordinates or colleagues. People who possess power are often able to influence the expression of emotions or suppression of emotional display in others (Tiedens, Ellsworth & Mequita, 2000). Ethnicity and nationality underpin perceptions of the nature of power (Mondillon, Niedenthal, Brauer, Rohmann, Dalle & Uchida, 2005). Conflict situations call for the expression and control of emotions in appropriate ways (Toerien & Kitzinger, 2007; Jordan & Troth, 2002). Managers are expected to display anger when subordinates break rules or deliver poor performance yet they may not experience the emotions of anger and frustration that their own supervisors expect them to display. Similarly, they may feel sympathy, sadness or guilt when subordinates are made redundant but may be expected to repress these emotions.

The way in which an organisation approaches emotional labour becomes a feature of the organisational culture (Pizer & Härtel, 2005). Schein's (1990, p. 111) definition of organisational culture includes the practice of teaching members "the correct way to perceive, think and feel." Emotional labour has been captured in Ritzer's (1998) term, 'McDonaldization', particularly in the need to espouse the 'have a nice day' mantra. Van Maanen and Kunda (1989) and Martin, Knopoff and Beckman (1998) have documented the vastly different ways in which Disney and The Body Shop manage emotions at work, with the former making specific demands on its employees and the latter encouraging a more authentic form of emotional expression.

Gender has also played a role in perceptions of what is considered the appropriate expression or hiding of emotion (Mumby & Putnam, 1992; Lively, 2000; Larson & Yao, 2004; Mulholland, 2002). Many industries, professions and jobs are heavily staffed with women in what Guy and Newman (2004) refer to as 'pink-collar' roles and where care and nurturing are expected (Bellas, 1999). In a study of managers and professionals Simpson and Stroh (2004) found that women were less likely than men to display negative emotions or to hide positive ones.

The lack of attention to the emotional labour required in group settings is a surprising omission. Employees often feel emotions, such as anger, sympathy or anxiety, that are directed at colleagues and the appropriate expression of these emotions in ways accepted by the group is now emerging in the literature (Brotheridge &

Grandey, 2002; Dieffendorff & Richard, 2003; Lively, 2002; Côté, 2005; Pescosolido, 2005).

In addition to these multiple forces, individual values, personality and emotional intelligence influence the extent to which the demonstration or suppression of emotions becomes labour and how they are managed. Syed (2008) argues that emotional labour may conflict with an individual's moral values. From a dispositional perspective positive affectivity has been linked to extraversion (Watson et al., 1988) and people with these characteristics will generally find it easier to display positive emotions in organisational settings (Tan et al., 2003). Dieffendorff and Richard (2003) report that employees with negative affectivity perceive an implicit rule to hide negative emotions but not to display positive ones. People who are higher in emotional intelligence are more able to deal with the demands of emotional labour (Prati & Perrewé, 2006).

There are many other factors that influence how acceptable emotional expression may be. For example, it is believed that it is mostly positive emotions that are welcomed while negative emotions need to be hidden (Dieffendorff & Richard, 2003; Kramer & Hess, 2002; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Gross, 1998). Negative emotions can more easily be directed by managers to subordinates than in the other direction (Tiedens et al., 2000; Mondillon et al., 2006). The frequency, intensity, duration and variety of emotions displayed or suppressed on the job also contribute to individual responses to the requirements of emotional labour (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Zapf, 2002).

In the context of this thesis, the emotions that surface during organisational change often need to be expressed or suppressed but little research has been done to explore the relationship between emotional labour and organisational change. Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) report that just over half of their non-management respondents referred to the need to manage their emotions during various forms of organisational change. Some participants, who had suffered a form of loss, were explicitly told to control their emotions and were reprimanded, even in front of others, if they failed to do so. For some, the emotional labour was as exhausting as the negative emotions themselves. Turnbull (1999) studied cultural change in an organisation and also reported many instances of middle managers feigning or hiding emotions. Both studies found alienation, disengagement and feelings of inauthenticity.

Fox and Amichai-Hamburger (2001) indicate that the selling of change requires managers to inject positive emotions into their appeals for employees to accept change.

If managers do not support the changes, and in particular, if they are experiencing negative emotions, such as anger or anxiety, they would be expected to suppress them. In overcoming the uncertainties that often accompany change, Mossholder et al. (2000, p. 239) suggest that managers will need to communicate the benefits of change so that the employees become “positively energized”. Since the words emotion and motivation have the same Latin root word, *emotere* or *emovere*, to move, managers need to inject emotion into their communication. Yet if they do so by means of surface acting (Hochschild, 1979, 1983) they may experience emotional dissonance, and their integrity, perceived by themselves and others, becomes compromised, leading to feelings of shame and guilt (Turnbull, 1999).

Emotional Dissonance

One of the consequences of emotional labour is emotional dissonance. Hochschild (1983) uses the term emotive dissonance to describe the dysfunctional impact on employees of the strain that they feel in feigning emotions. She contends that this dissonance, over time, leads to physical, mental and work-related problems. Empirical data from other researchers provides conflicting evidence.

In a survey of service workers Morris and Feldman (1997) found that emotional dissonance was positively related to task routineness and negatively related to job autonomy, and that it resulted in job dissatisfaction and emotional exhaustion. In a study of nurses Zerbe (2000) found no support for the hypothesis that the mismatch between expected and felt emotions would result in job dissatisfaction, health problems, turnover intentions or burnout. These negative consequences were due to felt emotions, rather than any difference between felt emotions and those that organisations expected their employees to display. In a second study of airline flight attendants and service staff he similarly found that deviance between displayed and expected behaviour did not negatively impact on employee well-being. Conversely, the display of positive emotion increased well-being for some of the staff.

Schaubroeck and Jones (2000) sought to empirically test the physical symptoms of emotional labour in a survey research company. They found that deleterious physical symptoms manifested themselves when employees considered that the emotions they needed to demonstrate in their jobs were not authentic. Their prediction that expressing positive emotion would have a positive effect on health was not supported. The key factor was the extent to which employees identified with their organisations, confirming

Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) view that this will determine how much of the emotion they are expected to express actually constitutes labour. Similarly, Schaubroeck and Jones (2000) found that those with lower levels of job involvement reported more dissonance. A related factor is the disposition of the employee. They predicted that employees high in positive affect would experience no dissonance when called upon to display positive emotions or suppress negative emotions and, conversely, people high in negative affect would experience considerable dissonance in doing so. Their results supported the prediction for the display of negative emotions but not for the display of positive emotions. Giardini and Freese (2006) found support for a hypothesis that emotional competence, a term they prefer to emotional intelligence, and which they conceive of as skill in regulation of own and others' affect, moderates the relationship between emotional work and emotional dissonance.

Emotional Contagion

Emotions as evidenced in facial expression (Ekman, 1994a), body language and written and oral communication can easily be transmitted from one person to another, or to a group (Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1993). Emotional contagion can be a 'primitive' (automatic) process or one where there is stronger cognitive element (Hatfield et al., 1993; Barsade, 2002). Both emotion and mood can be 'catching'.

In an organisational context emotion and mood often occur in group settings and a 'ripple effect' can easily take place (Barsade, 2002). In an experimental design Barsade tested for high and low pleasantness and high and low energy, in accordance with Russell's (1980) circumplex model. She reported evidence of contagion of both positive and negative emotion, but found that degrees of energy or arousal had mixed or no effect on contagion. Johnson (2008) found a strong correlation between charismatic leader affect and follower affect. In a study of nurses involved in an organisational change, Bartunek et al. (2006) found evidence of emotional contagion in units where the outcomes of change were perceived as favourable. Totterdell, Wall, Holman, Diamond and Epitropaki (2004) also found evidence of emotional contagion in a merger. In another study of nurses Strazdins (2002) found that the demands of emotional labour led to emotional contagion and psychological distress. Integrating literature on emotional contagion and burnout Bakker, Schaufeli, Sixma and Bosveld (2001) found considerable 'burnout contagion' amongst general practitioners, even though these professionals tend to work in small groups. Emotional contagion in organisations is not

merely a work group phenomenon; it is often a process of interaction between employee and customer (Strazdins, 2002; Bakker et al., 2001).

Leaders are often able to generate emotions in others, both in dyadic and larger group contexts. Pescosolido (2005, p. 321) proposes that leaders, formal and informal, manage group emotions by “empathizing and identifying with the collective emotional reaction of group members” and setting “the emotional tone for other group members to adapt their own emotional responses.” He suggests that this is easier if emotional expressiveness is a group norm and if leaders exhibit charisma. Charismatic leaders often subconsciously or deliberately use emotion to generate action in small and large groups (Wasielewski, 1985; Conger & Canungo, 1998). Group emotions generated in organisational contexts need careful management for the benefit of employees and their organisations. Frost (2004) calls skilled ‘toxin handlers’ those leaders who are able to dissipate ‘poisonous’ emotions and spread positive affect. In the context of change, Huy (2002) points to the need of middle managers to heighten some group emotions while dampening others, so that there is a balance between the stability required for ongoing processes and the dynamism needed for the new initiative. Sanchez-Burk and Huy (2008) advise managers to be aware of both group and individual emotions.

Emotions and Organisational Change

The emotions of organisational change - their nature, antecedents and consequences - are the subject of this study and are explored in depth in the development of the model, which appears later on. Reference will be made there to studies investigating the relationships between emotions, organisational change and constructs such as leadership, trust, empathy, job satisfaction, organisational justice, the psychological contract and organisational culture. A brief outline of the research is presented here.

Emotional responses to change are focused on both outcomes and processes. Many authors (e.g. French, 2001; Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Fedor, Caldwell & Herold, 2006; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006), have noted the uncertainty that accompanies change and the overriding emotion of anxiety that occurs because of it. Anxiety stems from a variety of sources such as anticipated negative outcomes, possibilities of injustice and inability to cope with aspects of the change. For example, Fineman (2003, p. 125) suggests that:

Consciously anxiety stems from the shame of not being able to learn new skills or new ways, when others can. There is the embarrassment of failing to keep up with the competitive colleagues or of being excluded from a peer group.

Yet change can deliver positive and/or negative outcomes and therefore positive and/or negative emotions, “ranging from nostalgia to hope, from anxiety to resignation, from anticipation to despondency” (Antonacopolou & Gabriel, 2001, p. 446). Carr (1999, p. 580) refers to “frustration, suspicion, resistance, anger, grief and despair...joy, glee, and hope.”

Given the likelihood of affective reactions to change, management needs to be able to predict them and harness them effectively when they can. In the words of Duck (1993, p. 113):

Change is fundamentally about feelings; companies that want their workers to contribute with their heads and their hearts have to accept that emotions are central to the new management style...the most successful change programs reveal that large organisations connect with their people most directly through values - and that values, ultimately are about beliefs and feelings.

Kotter and Cohen (2002, p. 2) suggest in a book, aptly titled *The Heart of Change*, that:

Changing behavior is less a matter of giving people analysis to influence their thoughts than helping them to see a truth to influence their feelings. Both thinking and feeling are essential, and both are found in organizations. But the heart of change is the emotions.

When Lou Gerstner took over as CEO of IBM in 1994 he was quoted in *The New York Times* on the need for a cultural change: “It’s not something you do by writing memos. You’ve got to appeal to people’s emotions. They’ve got to buy in with their hearts and bellies, not just their minds” (cited in Barsade, 2002, p. 670).

Clearly, then, an appreciation of the emotional aspects of change should help management deliver change more successfully. When one local government agency in New Zealand moved to new offices it identified the need to take account of emotional reactions (Brown, 2006). Among many change initiatives, all staff were offered the opportunity of attending a workshop on the change and to express any anxieties they had about it.

People were invited to write the *blocks* (fears, anxiety, anger) onto pieces of card and make these into a wall. They were then invited to write on *balloons* (hopes, advantages, excitement) things that might remove or help to counteract the blocks (p. 16).

Brown recounts one person’s story of the move:

That night when I got home I couldn’t stop crying and my husband wondered what on earth was wrong with me, and so did I! Then it occurred to me that this was what you had been on about when you talked about experiencing feelings of grief. I was glad then you had, so I knew what I was experiencing was quite normal and I wasn’t losing the plot. I realised too that all of the anger some people had was about the same sort of thing. They were probably

just unsure of how it would all be - like where they would park (p. 17).

It is not only managers, however, who benefit from understanding the emotional nature of change. Employees also benefit from understanding and working with the emotional nature of change - they are better able to cope, and work with others experiencing organisational change. The key to this understanding is emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

This section is organised as follows. Firstly, the construct of EI and the controversy surrounding it are outlined. Secondly, the implications of EI for the workplace are summarised. Thirdly, the role of EI in organisational change is explored.

EI - Construct and Controversy

The origins of the construct of EI are found in the concept of social intelligence outlined by Thorndike (1920, cited in Mathews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2003), Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences (1983, 1993), which includes the concepts of intra- and interpersonal intelligences, and Sternberg's (1988) model of intelligence, which embraces the concept of practical intelligence. While a detailed analysis of these theories lies outside the scope of this study, it should be noted that the lack of empirical evidence to support these constructs has been discussed by Matthews et al. (2003) and Landy (2005).

Early references to the term EI have been found in an article by Leuner (1966, cited in Bar-On, Handley & Fund, 2006) and in an unpublished thesis of Payne (1986, cited in Matthews et al., 2003 and in Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). However, the scientific development of the construct lies in the seminal work of Salovey and Mayer (1990). The popularisation of the concept by Goleman (1995) and its application to organisations (Goleman, 1998a, 1998b) spurred the publication of many books (e.g. Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Weisinger, 1998), magazine and journal articles, and the development of websites aimed at a general audience. It also started a heated debate which continues today.

The first debate in the scientific community revolves around the question of whether EI adds anything of value to established constructs of intelligence, ability and personality (see for example a special edition of the *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, notably Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Landy, 2005;

Locke, 2005; Conte, 2005). The second lies in the competing claims made by the developers of various models and instruments, with many researchers (e.g. Fineman, 2000b, 2004; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Matthews et al., 2003) deriding the concepts and claims of the allegedly less scientific authors. Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) complain that critics of EI do not adequately distinguish between scientific and popular constructions of EI.

Salovey and Mayer (1990, p. 189) defined EI as the “subset of social intelligence that involves the *ability to monitor one’s own and others feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions*” (authors’ italics). Several years later they refined the concept as “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to produce emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 5). They also produced a model of EI (see Figure 2) which identifies these four ‘branches’, each with four sets of abilities, which reflect an increasing degree of sophistication as they move from left to right and from the lowest branch to the highest branch. The first and lowest branch, ‘perception, appraisal and expression of emotion’, includes the abilities to identify one’s own feelings, and those of others, to express emotions, and determine whether emotions are accurate and honest. The second branch, ‘emotional facilitation of thinking’, enables people to prioritise thinking, improve memory and judgement, consider multiple perspectives, solve problems and think creatively. At the third level, ‘understanding and analyzing emotions, employing emotional knowledge’, are the abilities to label emotions, interpret the meanings they represent, understand cause and effect, understand emotion blends and complex feelings, and how they can change over time. The fourth and top level, ‘reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth’, allows people to stay open to positive and negative emotions, reflect on them in a detached way, monitor their own emotions and those of others, and manage these emotions in themselves and others.

The most important aspect of their definition and model is their construction of EI as ability, which is notably different from the ‘mixed models’ (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997), which include personality and other concepts which they believe are unrelated to intelligence (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000, 2004).

4. Reflective Regulation of Emotion to Promote Emotional and Intellectual Growth

4.1 Ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant.	4.2 Ability to reflectively engage or detach from an emotion depending upon its judged informativeness or utility.	4.3 Ability to reflectively monitor emotions in relation to oneself and others, such as recognizing how clear, typical, influential or reasonable they are.	4.4 Ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without representing, or exaggerating any information they may convey.
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3. Understanding and Analyzing Emotions; Employing Emotional Knowledge

3.1 Ability to label emotions and recognize relations among the words and the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving.	3.2 Ability to interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships, such as that sadness often accompanies a loss.	3.3 Ability to understand complex feelings: simultaneous feelings of love and hate or blends such as awe as a combination of fear and surprise.	3.4 Ability to recognize likely transitions such as the transition from anger to satisfaction or from anger to shame.
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2. Emotional Facilitation of Thinking

2.1 Emotions prioritize thinking by directing attention to important information.	2.2 Emotions are sufficiently vivid and available that they can be generated as aids to judgment and memory concerning feelings.	2.3 Emotional mood swings change the individual's perspective from optimistic to pessimistic, encouraging consideration of multiple points of view.	2.4 Emotional states differentially encourage specific problem-solving approaches such as when happiness facilitates inductive reasoning and creativity.
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1. Perception, Appraisal and Expression of Emotion

1.1 Ability to identify emotion in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts.	1.2 Ability to identify emotions in other people, designs, artwork, etc. through language, sound, appearance, and behavior.	1.3 Ability to express emotions accurately, and to express needs related to those feelings.	1.4 Ability to discriminate between accurate and inaccurate, or honest vs. dishonest expressions of feeling.
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Source: Mayer, J. & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.) *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books. [Block numbers added for this thesis, e.g. 1.1, 1.2.]

Figure 2: Mayer and Salovey, 1997: The Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence

An early criticism of their concept by Davies, Stankov and Roberts (1998), based on three empirical studies on emotional perception, concluded that EI was little different to established concepts of personality and general intelligence and that valid measures were needed to test it. An early self-report measure, based on the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model, was developed by Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden and Dornheim (1998).

At about the same time Mayer and colleagues were developing their own measure, the MEIS - the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Test (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000), which was superseded by the MSCEIT - the Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2003). The later version arose from their own conceptualisation of the weaknesses of the MEIS (Mayer et al., 2003) and in response to criticisms of its validity by other researchers (e.g. Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000; Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews, 2001). Despite continuing criticism of some aspects of the MSCEIT (McEnrue & Groves, 2006; Conte, 2005; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004), the approach of Mayer and colleagues has been considered the “gold standard” (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2003, p. 72), the “only strictly valid model of emotional intelligence” (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005, p. 463), “the most cohesive and comprehensive” (Schutte et al., 1998, p. 169) and the “most defensible model” (Jordan, 2005, p. 458). McEnrue and Groves (2006) rated the MSCEIT higher in terms of five types of validity than three of the other main measures, those by Goleman (1995), Bar-On (1997) and Dulewicz and Higgs (1999).

Goleman (1995) developed a mixed model in which he combines abilities (such as recognising and managing one’s own emotions, recognising others’ emotions and managing relationships) with concepts such as motivation and character. Various authors have criticised Goleman’s view that all of these constructs represent a form of intelligence (Mayer et al., 2000; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Matthews et al., 2003; McEnrue & Groves, 2006). However, it is his extravagant claims for the success EI can deliver which have earned him an unusual degree of scorn (Fineman, 2000a; Matthews et al., 2002; Landy, 2005). Goleman (1995) suggested, for example, that if general intelligence or IQ counts for only 20 per cent of career success, then EI must account for the balance; that EI counts for twice as much as IQ and technical skills (Goleman, 1998b); and that EI is the essential ingredient of leadership ability (Goleman, 1999a). His critics complain that his assertions have little empirical basis and that the evidence which does exist is held in proprietary databases and self-commissioned reports, and not

subjected to the rigour of peer-reviewed academic journals (Matthews et al., 2003; Wilhelm, 2005; Landy, 2005; Conte, 2005).

His publications have been targeted at a general readership and he has been lambasted for achieving commercial success at the expense of scientific verity (e.g. Sternberg, 2001; Fineman, 2000b; Landy, 2005). Goleman has worked with academics and a major international consultancy, the Hay Group, to develop the ECI (Emotional Competence Inventory) (Hay Group, 2008). However, critics have claimed that it does not provide any additional insights to tests of ability or personality (Conte, 2005; McEnrue & Groves, 2006; Matthews et al., 2003).

Bar-On's (1997) model of EI also combines abilities (some of which have little direct relationship to emotions, such as problem solving), personality factors and concepts such as flexibility and social responsibility. Critics say it lacks various forms of validity (Conte, 2005; McEnrue & Groves, 2006). Matthews et al. (2003) found its measures to be too similar to the Big Five model of personality (McCrae & Costa, 1987) to be considered a useful measure of EI. Nevertheless, it has been widely used (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004; McEnrue & Groves, 2006; Bar-On et al., 2006).

Many other measures of EI (or what purports to be EI) have been developed. Perez et al. (2005) have identified no fewer than 20 such measures. Some have been specifically developed to measure workplace applications (Wong & Law, 2002; Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel & Hooper, 2002b; Dulewicz & Higgs, 1999; Gardner & Stough, 2002).

While the ability model and measures of Mayer et al. (2004), despite their alleged weaknesses, seem to have the greatest backing, it has been maintained that trait models of EI actually measure something different to ability models, and in fact provide considerable extra value over traditional models (and measures) of EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2003; Petrides, Furnham & Mavroveli, 2007; Perez et al., 2005; Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005). After a meta-analysis of 59 studies of EI (including unpublished dissertations) Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004, p. 86) concluded that "emotional intelligence and personality appear to be more highly correlated than many researchers would prefer." Vakola et al. (2004), using measures of personality from the Big Five model and measures of EI from Mayer and Salovey's (1997) ability model, found that both ability EI and trait EI affected reactions to organisational change, and were distinct but related constructs. Van der Zee and Wabeke (2004) concluded after conducting an empirical study that trait EI is not sufficiently distinct from existing trait approaches.

What confounds the issue is that many personality traits are explained as capabilities by researchers (e.g. Petrides et al., 2007). Thus while Ciarrochi et al. (2000) believe that competing definitions of EI are more complementary than contradictory, not everyone seems to agree. And others (e.g. Antonakis, 2004) still insist that empirical studies of EI add little to extant knowledge of general intelligence or personality.

Another point that has caused much debate (e.g. Davies et al., 1998; MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2003; Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005; Wilhelm, 2005) is the reliance on self-report measures that characterise most EI instruments, with the notable exception of the Mayer et al. measures (2001; 2003). Their view is that ability can only be revealed by performance measures. Accordingly, the MEIS and MSCEIT rely on consensus, expert and target scoring. While these last two instruments have not escaped criticism on methodological grounds (Roberts et al., 2001; MacCann et al., 2003; McEnrue & Groves, 2006), it has been proposed by the developers (Mayer et al., 2001; 2003) that their model meets the criteria for a standard concept of intelligence and that only performance instruments can measure it, a view echoed by Wilhelm (2005). Self-reports, on the other hand, are considered more acceptable for trait measures (Perez et al., 2005; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; MacCann et al., 2003), but are still subject to the vagaries of memory, accuracy and self-concept (Mayer et al., 2000; Kang, Day & Meara, 2005; Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005; Wilhelm, 2005), an issue common to all emotional experience (Scherer, 1999; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Feldman Barrett, 2004). Given the increasing importance accorded to the concept of EI in organisations, employees may feel it beneficial to fake answers to create the ‘right impression’ (Van Rooy & Viswevaran, 2004; Kang et al., 2005; Lopes, Côté & Salovey, 2006). Matthews et al. (2003) believe that performance measures of EI will outlive personality measures. However Perez et al. (2005) and Petrides and Furnham (2000, 2003) insist that trait EI is a distinctly different concept to ability EI and should be measured by self-reports.

Implications of EI for the workplace

Useful overviews of EI in organisations have been provided by Jordan, Ashkanasy and Ascough (2007), Barsade and Gibson (2007), Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008) and Elfenbein (2007). Despite over 18 years of research into EI, Barsade and Gibson (2007, p. 44) declare that “the research evidence tying emotional intelligence abilities to work performance is still in its beginning phases” and that conclusions are therefore tentative.

A plethora of books or book chapters on work-based applications have been

targeted at general audiences (e.g. Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Goleman, 1998; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Weisinger 1998), and some specifically at researchers (e.g. Druskat et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2003, 2007). Journal articles have focused on performance (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Abraham, 2004), conflict (Jordan & Troth, 2002), job control (Abraham, 2000), organisational climate (Abraham, 2004), job insecurity (Jordan et al. 2002a), organisational structure (Sy & Côté, 2003), teams (Wolff, Pescosolido & Druskat, 2002; Abraham, 2004) and learning (N. Clarke, 2006). The modest literature on EI and change will be explored in a separate section.

One of the most dominant - and contested - areas of research into EI in organisations has explored the links between EI and leadership (e.g. Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley, 2003; Antonakis, 2004; Pescosolido, 2005; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003). EI has been considered as a key factor in the success of leaders since it helps them engage followers by understanding the emotional bases of behaviour at work. This entails injecting emotion as a means of developing commitment, understanding how individuals respond on an affective level to organisational dynamics and responding appropriately.

Conceptual and empirical studies have established links between transformational leadership and EI. As the name indicates, transformational leadership is essentially about change (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003). Bass (1985, 1999; 2002) identified four key characteristics: idealised influence (also known as charismatic leadership), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, which can be measured with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Each in some way can use emotional understanding and expression, particularly the positive emotions of excitement, enthusiasm and hope, which will stimulate followers into engaging in personal and organisational change. As one of the pioneers of the concept of transformational leadership, Bass (2002) considers EI to be a combination of ability and personality and his overview of research linking EI to leadership covers both constructs. Other conceptual links between EI and transformational leadership have been proposed by George (2000), Ashkanasy and Tse (2002), Prati et al. (2003) and Brown and Moshavi (2005). Empirical work demonstrating the relationship between EI and transformational leadership is beginning to mushroom (Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer et al., 2000; Brown, Bryant & Reilly, 2006).

Other theories of leadership have been applied to the concept of EI. Walter and

Bruch (2007) found that EI was related to charismatic leadership. The model Prati et al. (2003) constructed indicates that leader EI, in tandem with follower EI, creates a climate of cohesion and trust that leads to improved performance. Dulewicz and Higgs (1999) developed a model for organisational studies that includes constructs of intellectual intelligence, emotional intelligence and managerial intelligence, and combines competencies and personality. Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) focused their research on EI and the leadership capabilities of boards of directors. Higgs and Rowland (2003) examined the impact of EI on leadership in the context of change using the Dulewicz and Higgs (1999) questionnaire. Bar-On et al. (2006) researched leadership potential in military recruits, and found that EI makes a significant difference. The EI of emergent leaders (those who are not necessarily in a formal leadership position but who take a leadership role) is a concept developed and tested by Wolff et al. (2002), Pescosolido (2005) and Druskat and Pescosolido (2006). They report that leaders' abilities to identify and respond to the emotions of group members are related to team trust, communication and effectiveness.

Given the issues surrounding the debate about EI as ability, personality or both, organisational behaviour researchers have explored various aspects with the strongest support found for the Mayer and Salovey (1997) ability model (e.g. Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Jordan & Troth, 2002; McEnrue & Groves, 2006; Wong & Law, 2002). It should also be noted that various researchers have developed their own instruments. Commenting that the Mayer and Salovey model of EI and the MSCEIT that measure it are not specifically geared to the workplace, and that the MSCEIT is also very lengthy, Wong and Law (2002) developed their own measure - the 16-item Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (see also Law, Wong & Song, 2004). Other work-related measures include the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (Gardner & Stough, 2002), the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (Jordan et al., 2002b), which is focused on EI in work groups, and the Dulewicz and Higgs Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Dulewicz & Higgs, 1999).

Since EI is seen by all researchers, either partly or exclusively, as ability, empirical work has been almost entirely quantitative and based on tests. There are very few qualitative studies and one, by Wolff et al. (2002), was substantially quantitative in nature. They used 10 trained doctoral students to carry out critical incident interviews with 382 MBA students on EI and emerging leaders in groups and found empathy to be the critical factor in perceived leader EI. Secondly, N. Clarke (2006) used two focus

groups of 22 healthcare professionals from various hospices to explore the relationship between EI and workplace learning. His respondents reported the benefits of reflection on emotional experience in the context of peer, supervisory and organisational support. The themes of reflection and support also permeate the third study, in which Akerjordet and Severinsson (2004) interviewed seven senior mental health nurses in one hospital. Qualitative studies of EI and organisational change do not appear to have been done.

EI and organisational change

Given that change is a potentially emotional experience, the ability of people to understand and deal with their own emotional responses and those of others, should be valuable to both individuals and organisations. However, to date there has been little conceptualisation of the relationship between EI and organisational change, and minimal empirical investigation. While the literature on EI and transformational leadership usually deals with change by implication, few researchers have explicitly identified the role of EI in change.

Huy (1999) developed a model in which change receptivity, mobilisation and learning are processes that incorporate cognition, emotion and action. EI helps an individual deal usefully with each process. Paterson and Härtel (2002) propose that EI helps people cope with the anxiety that characterises downsizing and employ productive coping mechanisms.

Two conceptual articles have explored the relationships between EI, organisational change and Senge's (1990) concept of organisational learning. Jordan (2005) hypothesises that emotionally intelligent individuals are able to develop the disciplines of personal mastery, mental models, systems thinking, team learning and shared vision, as they are required in the context of organisational change. The model of Scott-Ladd and Chan (2004) goes one stage further in arguing that participative decision-making allows emotionally intelligent people to develop personal mastery and contribute to changing mental models and team learning.

Huy (1999) also points to the value of emotionally intelligent employees contributing to the emotional capability of the wider organisation to deal with the emotional consequences of radical change. The sensitivity to the emotional responses to an office relocation referred to by Brown (2006) reveals an organisation with some emotional capability. The concepts of emotionally intelligent leaders and organisations in the context of change will be given greater attention in the development of Research

Questions 10 and 12.

In one of the few examples of empirical work in the intersection of EI and organisational change, Ferres and Connell (2004) used an instrument based on Goleman's (1995) model and found that employees who perceived change leaders and managers as being high in EI reported less change cynicism. In another study Higgs and Rowland (2000) tested the relationship between EI and change leadership competence using the managerial version of the Dulewicz and Higgs (1999) instrument, the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, and their Change Leadership Competency Questionnaire, and generally found significant correlations in self-reports. Vakola et al. (2004) used a Greek version of the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model and found that EI contributed significantly to attitudes to change.

Given the paucity of empirical research one can just speculate on the impact of EI on the various categories of stakeholders affected by change. In the section on organisational change in this literature review, a rationale will be presented for dividing these stakeholders into four categories: change leaders, change managers, change agents and change recipients. While external stakeholders such as customers, suppliers, government and non-executive directors may also experience emotions from one organisation's change actions, the focus of this study is on organisational employees (including managers).

Since the EI model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) enjoys the widest support, it will be used here to indicate how various EI abilities help an organisation's staff deal with change. Since the four branches of the model, each with four types of ability, could be applied to four categories of people affected by change, a full treatment of the 64 possible relationships lies outside the scope of this study. In a paper presented at the Academy of Management (Smollan, 2006a) I explore the relationship in some depth, but not to the extent of dissecting all the relationships. In this section a brief outline is offered of how the model could be applied.

The first level, 'perception of appraisal and expression of emotion', includes a person's ability to identify his/her own feelings, and those of others, to express emotions, and assess whether these emotions are accurate and honest. Given the widespread expectation that emotions in organisations, let alone their display or expression, are not acceptable, (e.g. Ashforth & Humphrey 1995; Muchinsky, 2000) the ability to identify and express emotions in the context of change is clearly a sign of EI and the starting point for understanding how emotions are generated by change. Change

leaders, managers and agents who are able to recognise the impact of change on emotions will be able to anticipate the affective consequences of change and frame their initiatives and responses accordingly. Empathy, which Lazarus (1999) says accompanies the emotion of compassion and provides insight into others' perspectives, has been found to be a key variable in perceived leadership ability (Kellett, Humphrey & Sleeth, 2002) and will enable people to understand other people's cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change. Carl Rogers (1975, p. 3) defined empathy as "perceiving the internal frame of reference of another with accuracy and with the emotional components and meanings which pertain thereto" and suggested that empathy can be a powerful catalyst in change.

Furthermore, people facilitating change need skill in responding appropriately to employees' emotions. Consultants can become the 'lightning rods' for employee emotion as Jarrett (2004) has indicated. Leaders, according to Schein (2004, p. 416):

must have the emotional strength to absorb much of the anxiety that change brings with it as well as the ability to remain supportive to the organization through the transition phase, even if group members become angry and obstructive. The leader is likely to be the target of anger and criticism, because, by definition, he or she must challenge some of what the group has taken for granted.

The injection of emotional appeals by change leaders is helpful in selling a new vision (Kotter & Cohen, 2002; Fox & Amichai-Hamburger, 2001), and is often a tactic used consciously or unconsciously by charismatic leaders (Wasielowski, 1985). However, it needs to be done with perceived integrity, if the change is not to be resisted (Ferres & Connell, 2004; Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002; Fox & Amichai-Hamburger, 2001). Change managers who do not necessarily support all changes are still expected to sell the changes effectively to staff lower in the hierarchy.

The second branch of the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model, 'emotional facilitation of thinking', enables people to prioritise thinking, improve memory and judgement, consider multiple perspectives, solve problems and think creatively. Seo and Feldman Barrett (2007, p. 933) report evidence to confound the traditional view that "hot headed" people, "those who experience their feelings with greater intensity in decision-making", make poor decisions. The critical factor is that if people experiencing emotions are aware of them and can regulate them (the fourth branch of Mayer and Saloveys' model), they can use their emotions to enhance thinking. George and Jones (2001, p. 422) believe that "Emotions play a central role in initiating the change process and directing organizational members' sense-making activities to pressing concerns,

opportunities and problems.” Similarly, one of the respondents in Akerjordet and Severinsson’s (2004, p. 166) qualitative research of EI among mental health nurses revealed, “When I get a feeling during an encounter with a patient I have learned to take it seriously”, and another said, “I think that feelings can contribute towards good decision-making as they give me a signal about what is right and wrong”. Similar responses could be expected in the context of an organisational change. The interplay between cognition and emotion referred to earlier in the literature review (e.g. Lazarus, 1991, 1993) has been considered to facilitate creativity (Goleman, 1998b; George, 2000; George & Zhou, 2007; Montgomery, Hodges & Kaufman, 2004). Positive emotions such as hope and excitement can generate creative processes (Isen, 2000). Vakola et al. (2004) reported that the use of emotions to solve problems in organisational change processes was statistically significant. Negative emotions such as anxiety or anger, could signal a need to make changes, or caution a person not to be too carried away in a burst of excitement about a new development (Parrott, 2004).

The third level, ‘understanding and analysing emotions, employing emotional knowledge’, contains the abilities to label and interpret emotions, understand their causes and consequences, understand emotion blends and complex feelings, and note how and why they can change in the course of time. Change is often perceived as a loss (Huy, 2002; Wolfram Cox, 1997; Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006; Fineman, 2003), for example, loss of power, status, authority, rewards, employment and personal relationships. Those who are able to discern this are better able to address their own emotions, and those of others. Bridges (2003) uses the term, ‘letting go’, to convey the transition people need to make from one state to another. The uncertainty of change can create combinations of positive and negative emotions, such as the excitement of opening a new branch or a promotion, and the accompanying anxiety over the ability to cope with the new demands. Emotions and moods unfold over time during change (Isabella, 1990; Kiefer, 2002b; Elrod & Tippett, 2000). For example, hope can degenerate into helplessness and anxiety can morph into relief. Emotions can subside into moods and EI helps those who understand these dynamics to move to the next branch of the model.

At the fourth and highest branch, ‘reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth’, EI is the ability of people to monitor their emotions and their influences, and to regulate their own emotions. Emotions can (but not necessarily will) distract people from making rational choices (Seo & Feldman Barrett,

2006; Elfenbein, 2007) or responding appropriately to difficult situations. Those with the ability to control their emotions in a suitable fashion are able to deal with the conflict that may arise during change. Jordan and Troth's (2002) experimental study showed that people with EI were able to develop effective collaborative conflict resolution skills. Change managers, agents and recipients often have to implement changes with which they disagree and need to regulate their emotions, and, more importantly, their emotional displays. This can create emotional dissonance, stress and burnout, particularly if people are required to act in ways which they believe are inauthentic (Zerbe, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Turnbull, 1999). EI at this level allows people involved in change in any category to reflect on an emotion and engage with it or detach from it, so that they can cope with the consequences. In this regard, Lazarus' (1991) approach to cognitive appraisal provides a basis for understanding how people react to change. Primary appraisal is the process of analysing the significance of an affective event (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), such as a change, while secondary appraisal is the identification of coping strategies (Folkman & Lazarus 1988; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000, 2004). Paterson and Cary (2002) incorporated appraisal theory into their model of affective responses to downsizing and Fugate et al. (2008) did likewise in their study of restructuring.

EI at the highest level also involves the ability to 'manage' or address the emotional responses of others. Huy's (2002) research into a large-scale change revealed that some initiatives require those managing change to develop a balance between raising and lowering the emotional levels of themselves and others, which involve EI abilities at the first level (identification and expression of emotion) and fourth level (management of emotion). Huy suggests that to create the momentum for change high activation pleasant emotions (Russell, 2003; Larsen et al., 2002), such as excitement, are necessary, but to maintain 'normal service' for ongoing operations, low activation emotions, such as calmness, are helpful. It is also important for managers to lower both the high and low activation unpleasant emotions (such as anger and anxiety) that could derail the change. It has been pointed out by others (e.g. Kotter, 1996) that complacency, a low activation pleasant emotion, may have to be replaced with a suitable level of anxiety or urgency, which are moderate to high activation unpleasant emotions, to spur necessary change. This clearly involves a sophisticated degree of EI ability.

To summarise this part of the literature review, all categories of people involved

in organisational change could use the EI abilities represented in Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model to identify, understand, express and manage the emotions of self and others. Given that the empirical work on EI and change is extremely thin and no qualitative studies appear to have been done, this study will add to the scant qualitative literature on EI in organisational settings and pioneer its application to organisational change.

Research needs to explore how the 16 abilities of EI in the model contribute to the effective leadership, management and experience of change. While the above model currently enjoys the most backing among academics other models might also be usefully applied. In particular the concept of trait EI (e.g. Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Perez et al., 2005; Tett et al., 2005) could examine concepts such as empathy, adaptability, resilience and assertiveness, in the context of their utility in organisational change. Measures of dispositional coping with change (e.g. Judge, Thoresen, Pucik & Welbourne, 1999; Wanberg & Banas, 2000; Oreg, 2003, 2006) could be correlated with measures of trait EI.

In my model two of the research questions explore the impact of an individual's EI in the context of organisational change, and that person's perception of the EI abilities of change leaders, managers and agents. It does not explore the impact of the EI of group members on the cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions of a person to change. However, as the work of Druskat, Pescosolido and colleagues indicates (Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Wolff et al., 2002; Pescosolido, 2005; Druskat & Pescosolido, 2006; Druskat et al., 2006) people's ability to adapt to change is affected by the EI of their peers. Nevertheless, while empathy and support from any source are helpful in dealing with change, this thesis will explicitly address only the contributions of the EI of change leaders, managers and agents to an employee's responses to change.

So far, I have reviewed literature on emotions in general, emotions in organisations, emotional intelligence in general and emotional intelligence in organisations. In each section the relationship to change has been outlined. Emotions are an integral part of human nature, manifest themselves in organisational settings, because of and despite organisational expectations and other forces. Change evokes emotions which are used to drive, implement and sustain it - or resist it. The literature review now moves on to a deeper analysis of the nature of organisational change.

2.3 Organisational Change

I begin by examining various typologies or frameworks of change, then identify possible targets of change and change players (leaders, managers, agents and recipients), and finally, review steps and phases in the process of organisational change. The role emotion plays in individual responses, together with its cognitive antecedents and behavioural consequences, will be highlighted.

Typologies of Organisational Change

Change can occur in many facets of an organisation's existence. Many typologies of macro-organisational change have been presented in the literature, mostly in management and organisational psychology, and some from other research disciplines. Within the management discipline change has generally been reviewed from a strategic perspective as the attempts of an organisation to adjust to a range of environmental factors. The approach of organisational behaviour, and specifically Organisation (or Organisational) Development (OD), seeks to understand how organisations plan and implement change, how individuals react to change and the processes by which it is designed and introduced. OD is an approach to planned change that evolved in the 1950s as a humanistic framework for improving organisational processes, and uses a number of techniques, such as training groups, sensitivity training, survey design and feedback (French & Bell, 2005). Organisational transformation is a variation of OD and involves a fundamental change in the way an organisation operates (French, Bell & Zawacki, 2005, Porras & Silvers, 1991).

A number of frameworks have been developed that analyse change in terms of nature, scope and scale, frequency, and determining factors, producing a plethora of labels (see Table 3, Typologies of Change). Watzlawick, Weakland and Fisch (1974) distinguish between first-order change as a change within a system, and second-order change, which is a change of the system itself. Golembiewski, Billingsley and Yeager (1976) identify three levels of change. Alpha change involves a variation of a state that is basically constant (which they liken to the first-order change of Watzlawick et al., 1974); beta change occurs in the use of different form of measurement or frequency of the intervals; while gamma change (similar to second-order change) involves a "redefinition or reconceptualisation of some domain, a major change in the perspective or frame of reference" (p. 135). Porras and Silvers (1991) divide gamma change into

two concepts. Gamma (A) change occurs in an existing organisational paradigm without the addition of a new variable, such as when organisation that moves within a production-driven paradigm from a focus on cost to a focus on quality. Gamma (B) change means the replacement of the paradigm itself with another that has at least one new variable, for example, the replacement of a production-driven paradigm with a customer-focus paradigm.

Theorists	Types of change	Nature of change	Targets of change
Watzlawick, Weakland & Fisch (1974)	First-order change	Change within the system	
	Second-order change	Change of the system	
Golembiewski, Billingsley & Yeager (1976)	Alpha change	Existential state of a relatively stable conceptual domain	
	Beta change	Existential state and intervals of measurement.	
	Gamma change	Reconceptualisation of domain	
Tushman & Romanelli (1985)	Convergent change	Incremental change and adaptation	Strategy (products, markets, technology), power, structure, controls
	Reorientations	Simultaneous and discontinuous shifts	Strategy , power, structure, controls
	Recreations	Simultaneous and discontinuous shifts	Values + strategy, power, structure, controls
Bartunek & Moch (1987)	First-order change	Factors in existing schemata	
	Second-order change	Schemata	
	Third-order change	Employee choice of schemata	
Dunphy & Stace (1988, 1990)	Finetuning	Changing the fit of variables	Strategy, structure, people, processes
	Incremental adjustment	Adjustments to changing environment	Strategy, structure, management processes
	Modular transformation	Radical change in division	Many of the above within a division
	Corporate transformation	Radical change in organisation	Many of the above within an organisation

Nadler & Tushman (1989)	Tuning	Incremental change in anticipation of future events	
	Adaptation	Incremental change in reaction to external events	
	Reorientation	Strategic change in anticipation of future events	
	Recreation	Strategic change in reaction to external events	
Gersick (1991)	Incremental change Revolutionary change	“Rules of the game” Deep structure/“the game”	
Huy & Mintzberg (2003)	Dramatic change	Quick, triggered by crisis or opportunity, led from top	Any of costs, structure, strategy, culture
	Systematic change	Slower, more orderly, led from middle and by consultants	Processes
	Organic change	Messy, arises from lower levels	Products, services, processes
Porras & Silvers (1991)	Alpha change	Change in perceived variables within a paradigm	Organising arrangements
	Beta change	Change in perceived values about variables within a paradigm	Social factors
	Gamma (A) change	Change within a paradigm by adding variables	Policy
	Gamma (B) change	Change in the paradigm	Technology
Porras & Robertson (1992)	First-order change	Developmental (planned) Evolutionary (unplanned)	Organising arrangements Social factors
	Second-order change	Transformational (planned) Revolutionary (unplanned)	Policy Technology
Weick & Quinn (1999)	Episodic change Continuous change		

Table 3: Typologies of change

Bartunek and Moch (1987) conceptualise first-order change as modifications within schemata, second-order change as changes of schemata and third-order change as one where individuals determine their own schemata. Porras and Robertson (1992) comment only on first-order change, as being linear and continuous, and second-order change, which is discontinuous, radical and multi-dimensional. First-order change can be developmental (planned) or evolutionary (unplanned), whereas second-order can be transformational (planned) or revolutionary (unplanned).

Tushman and Romanelli's (1985) model of punctuated equilibrium separates periods of convergent change (concerned with incremental changes to strategy, power, structure and controls), from divergent or more radical change, which is sub-divided into reorientations (simultaneous shifts in the four targets of change) and recreations (which add the complexity of change in core values to the aforementioned categories). Nadler and Tushman (1989) have elaborated on this model by distinguishing between two types of incremental change, tuning, which seeks to improve efficiency in anticipation of future events, and adaptation, which is a response to external events. Similarly, in terms of strategic change, reorientations are anticipatory while recreations are reactive.

Dunphy and Stace (1988, 1990) examine the increasing scale of change in terms of fine-tuning, incremental adjustment, modular transformation and corporate transformation. They describe four forms of transformation: developmental transitions, task-focused transitions, charismatic transformation and turnarounds, each of which should be managed differently. According to Greenwood and Hinings (1995, p. 1025), "Convergent change occurs within the parameters of an existing archetypal template", while radical change, which is characterised by the pace and magnitude of upheaval, "occurs when an organization moves from one template-in-use to another". Gersick (1991) analysed the punctuated equilibrium model across multiple research disciplines and differentiated between incremental change, which leaves the 'deep structures' or the 'rules of the game' intact, while revolutionary change dismantles these structures and changes the game. Using a similar line of questioning Van den Ven and Poole (1995) developed a model that seeks to explain how change occurs across a number of fields in the physical and social sciences. Reviewing different frameworks of change Weick and Quinn (1999) distinguish between episodic change, which is infrequent, slower, and more strategic, and continuous change, which is incremental and adaptive.

Another lens researchers have used to explain organisational change is the

degree to which change is a planned and deliberate process or one that emerges. This approach incorporates an analysis of the factors that drive different types of change and the types of change players who are involved in the process. Using this approach, Kerber and Buono (2005) identify three approaches to change. Directed change is a top-down approach, planned change involves more consultation and guided change, which taps employee commitment, expertise and creativity, allows change to emerge more organically. Huy and Mintzberg (2003) focus on three types of change. Dramatic change is initiated by top management in times of crisis or opportunity, systematic change is a more planned and orderly change and often promoted by staff and consultants, and organic change arises from lower level staff, often without formal management processes. Dunphy and Stace (1988, 1990) propose that different styles of change leadership (collaborative, consultative, directive and coercive) should be employed, depending on which scale of change is being enacted. Their matrix indicates collaborative and consultative approaches are suitable to fine-tuning and incremental adjustment, labelling the change strategy participative evolution, while collaborative and consultative approaches in the context of modular or corporate transformations are charismatic transformations. Coercive and directive leadership, when applied to fine-tuning and incremental change, is termed forced evolution, whereas when the focus is on modular and corporate transformations, the change strategy is dictatorial transformation.

Most of the theorists listed in Table 3 have identified different specific facets that an organisation can target for change. For example, Dunphy and Stace (1990) refer to strategy, structure, people and processes. Huber, Sutcliffe, Miller and Glick (1995) have three broad categories and 10 types of change targets overall. Externally focused changes refer to strategy and external stakeholder relationships; internally focused changes deal with goals and culture, operational, administrative, communication and staffing issues; while changes in organisational form deal with the responsibility and resources of senior managers and people at lower levels and the addition or subtraction of a major organisational unit.

The most comprehensive approach has been developed by Porras and Silvers (1991) and Porras and Roberston (1992). They developed a table that identified four main categories of targets of organisational change with inter-connecting relationships: organising arrangements (including plans and rewards), social factors (covering culture, group processes and management style), technology (including machinery and

processes) and physical setting (which embraces design, size, space, light, etc.). In total 23 sub-categories were listed (see Table 4).

Organising Arrangements	Social Factors	Physical Setting	Technology
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Goals 2. Strategies 3. Structure 4. Administrative policies and procedures 5. Administrative systems 6. Reward systems 7. Ownership 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Culture 2. Management style 3. Interaction processes 4. Informal patterns and networks 5. Individual attributes 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Space configuration 2. Physical ambiance 3. Interior design 4. Architectural design 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tools, equipment and machinery 2. IT 3. Job design 4. Work flow design 5. Technical expertise 6. Technical procedures 7. Technical Systems

Table 4: Targets of change

Source: Porras & Robertson, 1992 (Factors Constituting the Work Setting)

The various frameworks and models have several common aspects: change can be more or less radical, complex or simple, quick or slow. Changes of greater scope, complexity and speed have more impact on systems, organisations and the people that live and work within them. For the purposes of this study these typologies of macro-organisational change need to be viewed through the lens of micro-level change. What might appear to be a minor change on an organisational level may be perceived by an individual to have very radical personal implications. Some of the same terms have been used in both literatures. For example, while Bartunek and Moch (1987, p. 485) refer to organisational schemata, “which generate *shared* meanings or frames of reference, for the organization as a whole or for various sub-groups within it”, Lau and Woodman (1995) use the term as a cognitive mechanism for developing individual attitudes towards change. Similarly, George and Jones (2001) present a model of change at the level of the individual where the concept of schemata is used to explore resistance to change. The focus of the current study is on change experienced through the eyes (and heart) of the individual.

Little attention has been paid to emotion in most of the conceptual frameworks of macro-level change. Gersick (1991) briefly acknowledges the emotional impact of change, Porras and Robertson (1992) commented on the emotional aspects of conflict and Kerber and Buona (2005) only identify one form of change - directed change - as having emotional repercussions. While many authors have noted the emotional impacts

of change, Huy (2002) and Kiefer (2002b) suggests that radical change will provoke particularly intense emotions. Therefore, one aim of this research study is to identify what emotions are elicited by perceptions of the specific target(s) of change, and the scale, speed, frequency and timing of changes. Another is to examine how emotions are generated by people's perceptions of the processes that are employed to create and implement change. And given that people involved in change can be classified in different ways, yet another aim is to uncover how the role people play in change elicits emotional responses.

Change Players

In any organisational change there are likely to be several categories of people who play a part. Some lead change, others are required to manage it or implement it in their departments or divisions and motivate others to do so, some play roles in facilitating or advising on change, and some will simply be affected by the change and do what is necessary or resist the change or some aspects of it.

Various authors have sought to distinguish between leadership and management, some specifically in the context of change. Reviewing various approaches to leadership Yukl (1999) found a tendency to consider leadership as oriented towards change whereas managers focus on stability and efficiency. For example, Kotter (1996) views leaders as establishing direction and aligning people by motivating and inspiring, while managers plan, budget, organise, staff, control and solve problems. Kouzes and Posner (1995, p. 30) use terms that have an emotional theme to them in defining leadership as "the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations" and which usually involves change, whereas management is about order, organisation and control. According to them the role of a leader is to challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, model the way, and "encourage the heart". Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 92) suggest that "By focussing attention on a vision, the leader operates on the emotional and spiritual resources of an organization" while the manager "operates on the physical resources of the organization." Bass' (1985) theory of transformational leadership and Conger and Kanungo's (1998) theory of charismatic leadership identify the leader's ability to articulate a compelling vision of change and generate the desire for change in others. Emotion is a significant element of both theories.

Higgs and Rowland (2000) point out that models of organisational change

seldom distinguish between different categories of people involved, yet their own reveals some ambivalence. They developed a change management competency framework with eight change competency clusters: initiation, impact, facilitation, leadership, learning, execution, presence, and use of technology (use of change tools, theories and models). Two of these competencies, however, change initiation and change leadership, clearly refer to change leadership rather than to management. Tubbs and Schulz (2005) developed a taxonomy of 50 leadership competencies under seven headings, two of which are explicitly related to change. Innovation and creativity contain five items and leading change seven, and in the latter category is managing the change process.

Caldwell (2003) believes that the roles of change leader and manager are complementary and often overlapping, even if there are conceptual differences. Using a Delphi technique for identifying the attributes of change leaders and change managers he found that the top three attributes of change leadership were inspiring vision, entrepreneurship and integrity/honesty, whereas for change managers the top three were empowering others, team building and learning from others. He suggests that change leaders are at the most senior levels and focus on strategic change, whereas change managers tend to operate in the middle and on tactical and operational issues. However, does acknowledge that it is often difficult to separate the roles that people play in change and that at different times people need to use a blend of competencies.

A number of overlapping perspectives can be used to classify those who are affected by change. The first refers to hierarchy, the second to scope, the third to importance. If a change is initiated from those at the top, it usually involves a large section of the organisation, and deals with strategy, structure and/or culture (Huy & Mintzberg, 2003). Change roles could be simply seen in terms of hierarchical levels: change leaders are the CEO/general manager and senior managers, change managers are middle managers and first-level managers, and change recipients are non-managerial employees. Non-executive directors (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003) and change agents (Furnham, 2000) could also be involved in the process. The typologies of change referred to earlier (e.g. Nadler & Tushman, 1989; Huber et al., 1995) indicate that strategic, radical and divergent change will in most cases be led by senior management. Huy and Mintzberg (2003) suggest that the type of change being contemplated dictates who leads it: dramatic change is led by senior management, systematic change is led by staff groups and consultants and organic change arises from the ranks of staff. While

Woodward and Hendry (2004) distinguish between change leaders, who initiate change, change managers who execute it, and those (including managers) who simply experience it. They conducted one survey of the change leaders, but surprisingly surveyed the other two in one category.

However, these generic approaches cannot be appropriately applied to every change event or related series of changes. Hierarchy alone does not always determine the roles people play, and neither do the scope or importance of the change. To use a theoretical example, in one firm developing a technologically innovative product line the change leader might be the research and development manager, who aims to persuade the CEO and others in the senior management team to agree to the change. The marketing manager may give unqualified and enthusiastic support and devote considerable energy to adding ideas to the proposed changes. Meanwhile the head of finance is extremely concerned about the financial implications of funding the change and initially actively resists it. The head of human resources is worried about how the firm will staff the expansion required in the change and procrastinates in contributing to the change plans. The CEO is ambivalent but finally backs the change. It is clear that not all of the senior management team can be called change leaders and might not support the changes. How passionately will each senior manager articulate the 'compelling vision'? They might simply take on the role of change managers and implement the changes finally approved. Some middle and first-level managers may have no active role to play in managing some aspects of the change. Therefore, one cannot classify people simply according to their seniority, but rather according to the role they are given, or assume, in a specific change process. A wide-ranging change, such as the adoption of a new form for leave, may be initiated by one middle manager. Changes that are of strategic importance or which are radical, however, are usually led from the top (Huy, 1999).

Non-management staff can also take on the roles of change leaders. Morrison and Phelps (1999) explored the concept of extra-role behaviours and sought to understand what motivates employees to take charge and initiate constructive work changes that are beyond the expectations the organisations have of them. Those who took such action were a mixture of staff at all hierarchical levels and were found to do so when they believed management was open to employee-initiated change. Moon, Kamdar, Mayer and Takeuchi (2008) also found non-managers 'taking charge'. The roles of emergent or informal leaders have been discussed by Pescosolido (2005) and

Druskat and Pescosolido (2006).

The term change agent has been used widely and with many differing definitions and classifications. Buchanan and Badham (1999, p. 610) define the change agent “as any individual seeking to reconfigure an organization’s roles, responsibilities, structures, outputs, processes, systems, technology or other resources.” Dover (2003, p. 245) conceives of the change agent more narrowly as “a person who translates the strategic change vision into pragmatic change behaviour.” Furnham (2001) notes that one of the roles of a manager at times is to be a change agent. London (1988) divides change agents into three broad categories: change generators, change implementers and change adopters, identifying a total of 10 separate types. Most of these agents are managers in the organisation but some are outsiders, such as consultants. Kanter, Stein and Jick (1992) proposed three categories: change strategists, change implementers and change recipients. Caldwell (2003) has a fourfold typology of change agents (specifically for human resources managers): champions, adapters, consultants and synergists, each of whom have specific roles to play. Spencer and Pruss (1993, p. xvii), under the umbrella of “operators of change”, distinguish between change consultants who are external advisers, change managers, who implement change at departmental level, and change agents, who make the changes happen “at the coalface”. Many job advertisements often use the sub-title of change agent appended to the formal job title, or use the term somewhere in the job description, and usually refer to those leading change. The change agent in episodic change is considered by Weick and Quinn (1999) as the “prime mover who creates the change” (p. 373), while the role of the change agent in continuous change is to make sense of the change dynamics, “recognize adaptive emergent changes, make them more salient, and reframe them” (p. 381). Jarrett (2004) points to the importance of change agents understanding the emotions experienced by all change players. He cautions that the change agent may become a “lightning rod for wanted feelings” (p. 250), and will also need to reflect on his/her own emotions during the change consultancy.

Some people may play a number of these roles in different facets of an organisational change. Departmental managers are both subject to change initiated from above and required to implement changes at their level whether they agree with them or not. It should also be noted that one change may incorporate several other changes (such as the introduction of a new product line, building a new factory, staffing the new division, designing the new jobs, etc.) and the roles played by various organisational

members or change players will depend on each element of the change (Huy, 2002).

It should also be noted that other change players are external stakeholders who are affected by the change, such as customers, suppliers, government staff, joint venture partners and members of the community. They may also have positive or negative feelings about changes initiated by an organisation, and those in the organisation, or consulting to it, need to be aware of these feelings and respond appropriately. However, this study is focused on the organisation's employees and will not deal directly with other stakeholders.

For the purposes of this study, those involved in organisational change will be classified into four groups. This categorisation has been chosen since different 'investments' in the change process are required of different players. These contributions include the emotions they are likely to experience, and may be expected to express or suppress, and generate in others. Change leaders are those who conceive of and initiate change, change managers implement change, change agents are external to the organisation or the division undergoing change and are called on to facilitate some aspect of the change, and change recipients are subjected to the change and have no other role. And to repeat an earlier point, people can play more than one role in a series of related changes. One aspect of the empirical work in my study will be to identify the emotions experienced by different change players and the factors that contributed to them. Another will be to explore the emotions that they were expected to express or hide, and those that they were expected to generate in others - and how these related to the change roles they were allocated or assumed.

Steps and Phases in the Process of Organisational Change

An organisational change goes through various steps and phases. Some aspects of the change will progress in linear fashion while others will move in a cyclical way or move forwards and backwards until the process is completed, partially completed or stalled. Any plan requires the determination of purpose, research, design, implementation and control, the last doubling back to other steps if the plan is not working or partially working, or if the conditions have changed.

Planning and implementing change projects requires change players to adjust their thinking, feeling and actions to accommodate the change (Piderit, 2000; Smollan, 2006a). Various researchers have identified a number of discrete actions. Lewin's (1947) seminal approach proposed three phases. Unfreezing is necessary to change

attitudes and behaviours and is accomplished through rational explanations of what change is needed, why it is needed, who will be affected and how, when and where it will be done. Changing is the act of implementation and is backed by tangible and psychological support. Refreezing occurs when the change is accomplished and is embedded in organisational practices and individual behaviour through reward and recognition. Kotter (1996) extended Lewin's approach to eight steps: establishing a sense of urgency, developing a vision and strategy, communicating the change vision, empowering broad-based action, generating short-term wins, consolidating the gains and producing more change, and anchoring the new approaches in the culture. Jick's 'Ten Commandments of Implementing Change' are: analyse the organisation and its need for change, create a shared vision and common direction, separate from the past, create a sense of urgency, support a strong leader role, line up political sponsorship, craft an implementation plan, develop enabling structures, communicate with and involve people, and reinforce and institutionalise change (Jick & Peiperl, 2003, p. 177).

Dawson (2003, p. 40) queries the reality of the "recipe and linear planned approach" to organisational change, and argues that change is a messy, complex and frequently political process. Different contexts of change make it impossible to itemise a neat set of steps that will fit all change programmes. The interplay of various players can change both the substance and dynamics of the change. He developed a 'processual' model of change, based on Pettigrew's (1985) concept that change does not follow in a preordained series of steps and is complicated by a range of contextual variables, particularly those relating to power and politics (Buchanan & Badham, 1999, 2008).

What many theorists have in common is the belief that for most change to be successful there has to be buy-in from a range of change players (e.g. Kotter & Cohen, 2002; Szabla, 2007; Bean & Hamilton, 2006). Another common view is that the ways in which people think, feel and behave in response to an organisational change may vary as the different phases develop, as more information becomes available (Isabella, 1990; Jimmieson, Terry & Callan., 2004; Paterson & Cary, 2002) and as personal, group and organisational processes and outcomes are anticipated or realised. The rollercoaster models (e.g. Elrod & Tippet, 2000; Schneider & Goldwasser, 1998; Goss et al., 1993) indicate that people experience positive and negative emotions as they go through the ups and downs of organisational change.

One line of investigation in the empirical work will be to determine what emotions people experience at different stages of the change process, and what factors

influence them. For example, Schein (2004) suggests that in the ‘unfreezing’ stage of a change (Lewin, 1947), employees often reject information that disconfirms previously accepted assumptions, partly because it triggers anxiety and guilt with regard to learning new ways. In the ‘refreezing’ stage he believes that people who successfully adapt to the change often do so because the anxiety of learning has been attended to by change leaders.

So far the literature review has analysed the nature of emotions, their prevalence in organisational life and their role in organisational change. It has indicated that organisational change can vary in terms of complexity in terms of its scale and pace and how these elements can impact on people at the individual level. I have explored the targets of change, identified a range of change players and outlined the steps that could be taken to implement successful change. I now review existing models of individual responses to change and then detail the development of a new model.

2.4 Individual Responses to Change

This part of the literature review is structured as follows. I first explore the relationships between the nature of the cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change and discuss a number of models of emotions and change. Then I specifically identify responses as positive, negative, neutral and ambivalent or mixed, and analyse what these evaluations signify to different change players. Given its prevalence in the change literature the nature of resistance to change is highlighted as mostly a negative response but one that may also be seen as positive and constructive.

Cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991), reviewed earlier, takes the position that employees first appraise the significance of an event, such as an organisational change for their wellbeing (Woodward & Hendry, 2004). Thus favourability of change outcomes becomes critical (Paterson & Härtel, 2002; Matheny & Smollan, 2005). Secondary appraisal triggers emotional responses when people consider causes of the change and use a number of lenses in doing so. Attributions of justice, for example, can provoke emotional reactions (Paterson & Härtel, 2002; Paterson & Cary, 2002), as do perceptions of the scale, pace, and timing of the change (Huy, 1999), and the frequency of change itself may become a major factor (Kiefer, 2005). Secondary appraisal also involves a range of problem- and emotion-focused coping strategies (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984, 1988; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000, 2004; Woodward & Hendry, 2004;

Latack, 1986; Fugate et al., 2008).

To explore the cognitive process of evaluating change in more depth, it is helpful to engage the literature on framing and sense-making, which are related concepts. Weick and Quinn (1999) assign a prime role to change agents (in the broad sense of the term) in framing change and helping others make sense of it. According to Bean and Hamilton (2006, p. 323), “framing is a way to manage meaning by selecting and highlighting certain facts or issues over others.” This form of ‘sensegiving’ is a way of managing meaning in which one construction can be privileged over others. Framing ‘reality’ for others to buy into can be a self-serving process. For example, to engage employees, change leaders, managers and agents often frame change in positive ways. People frame change in different ways and may not understand or accept frames different to their own. They make sense of their environments by comparing new information with the old and trying to incorporate it in a cohesive understanding of the way they perceive reality (Lüscher & Lewis, 2008).

Just as macro-level models of change use the concept of schemas/schemata (e.g. Bartunek & Moch, 1987), so too do some at the micro-level. Focussing on cognitive processes, Lau and Woodman (1995) use the concept of individual change schemata that are shaped by multiple influences. They indicate that a person has a schema of organisational change that is developed from a range of factors, such as personality, organisational culture and previous experience of change. George and Jones’ (2001) process model of individual responses to change embraces the concept that cognition and affect are interdependent. They propose that people faced with organisational change find that future schemas may challenge their present schemas of organisational life, and that the discrepancy causes unease and triggers resistance.

Using a social constructionist approach, Mills (2000) suggests that discourses around change are part of the sense-making process. She found that while some employees have individual preferences for methods of sense-making most are influenced by the prevailing ‘geosocial’ discourse. In other words, people in one geographically-based department tend to favour one form of discourse, such as, the ‘alienated’, ‘aligned’, ‘oppositional’, ‘detached’ and ‘operational’, that influences the sense-making of the members of that department.

Downing (1997) suggests that change efforts often fail when those initiating and implementing them focus on cognitive frameworks without dealing with the emotional ramifications for others. They may, however, use emotional ploys in framing change as

an exciting or romantic opportunity, and may not notice that others frame it as an anxiety-causing problem. Research conducted by Bartunek et al. (2006) reveals that recipients of change use cognitive and affective cues to make sense of a change, and both impact on their performance and wellbeing. Szabla (2007) found that people respond better to change, on cognitive, affective and intentional levels, when leaders, employ rational-empirical or participative styles rather than power-coercive strategies. Conversations around change can intensify the emotional climate (Ford, Ford & McNamara, 2002; Piderit, 2000). Mills (2000) found that when change was perceived negatively it resulted in emotional engagement that helped employee make sense of the change, usually through an alienated or oppositional discourse. Conversations can lead to emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002; Bartunek et al., 2006; Jansen, 2004; Totterdell, et al., 2004) and common behavioural responses, both positive and negative.

Another construct of cognitive responses to change is that of readiness, which Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993) liken to Lewin's (1947) definition of unfreezing. They suggest that various change players may consider that it is the organisations (or certain sections of them) that are unready for change and not only some individuals. Communicating the need for change and enhancing self- and group-efficacy are crucial components. To enhance readiness they believe that change leaders need to first engage with opinion leaders in the organisation who can help shape change-related conversations. More recently Holt et al. (2007) developed and tested a model and questionnaire of readiness for change. It comprises four types of factors: content, process, context and individual attributes. Use of the questionnaire can help an organisation identify which factors are undermining readiness in various sections of the organisation. Emotion plays a negligible role in the model.

A number of models of emotional reactions to change have been published and were briefly mentioned in the introduction to this thesis. They are explored in more depth here.

Following a study into employees' cognitive and affective responses to events at work, Gibson (1995) concluded that these responses tended to follow 'scripts' in which common patterns and sequences were found. The model he developed indicates that appraisal of an organisational situation triggers a cognitive search and a parallel affective response. Emotions are aroused through the cognitive appraisal of an event and displayed or hidden depending on cultural and organisational norms and the individual's perception of likely outcomes of the overt emotional expression. Individual

actions may be followed by organisational action and change. While Gibson states that change is inherently emotional, and the book chapter is entitled 'Emotional scripts and change in organizations', his respondents were asked to comment on emotion inducing events, but not specifically in the context of change, to which only some seem to have referred.

The influential Affective Events Theory of Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) was outlined in the section of the literature review on emotions and needs further elucidation here. This theory proposes that work events trigger affective reactions, both moods and discrete emotions, which are influenced by disposition. For example people with high negative affectivity (Watson & Tellegen, 1985) tend to experience negative emotional reactions to events. The affective reactions impact on work attitudes (which also have antecedents in job satisfaction-related features of the work environment), and these attitudes influence judgement-driven behaviours and affect-driven behaviours. Judgement-driven behaviours are outcomes of both satisfaction with pre-existing features of the work environment and specific emotion-producing events. Negative behaviours include withdrawal in various forms, such as resignation, retirement, absenteeism and lateness, while positive behaviours could include helping behaviour. Affect-driven behaviours are conceptualised as those which derive directly from emotional reactions to the event. Moods and emotions are treated as conceptually distinct in the model but the authors suggest that the distinction can be blurred. Both can impact on behaviour with positive and negative consequences for performance. For example, while feelings of happiness and hope with regard to an impending change can benefit performance, they can also be a distraction from current performance demands. Negative emotions like anger and fear can also distract people from acceptable levels of performance but may redirect attention to behaviours that stimulate performance.

Piderit (1999, 2000) developed one of the first models that looked at cognitive, affective and intentional drivers of resistance to organisational change. The model identifies support, resistance and ambivalence as the outcome of the relationship between the drivers. She also warns that treating resistance as purely negative is a mistake - many good intentions of the employees will be overlooked or deliberately ignored if the management rhetoric frames resistance as only destructive.

Szabla's (2007) model also focuses on resistance to change as the outcome of cognitive, affective and intentional elements and specifically identifies leadership actions as the key to these responses. Those leaders who encounter resistance to change

are those who try to use coercion rather than rational persuasion or participation.

Two models have been developed by Paterson and colleagues for a specific type of change - downsizing. Paterson and Härtel (2002) use cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 1999) to explain how individuals first consider the potential impact the pending change will have on their wellbeing (primary appraisal), and then consider causes and consequences of the change, and how they will cope (secondary appraisal). The latter is strongly influenced by perceptions of organisational justice. These coping strategies comprise problem-focused strategies, such as looking for a new job or making submissions to management to minimise redundancies, and emotion-focused coping, such as dealing with the negative emotions that arise (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984; 1988). Primary appraisal is affected by organisational factors, such as communication about the nature of the change, and individual factors, such as outcome favourability, while secondary appraisal influences justice judgements through perceptions of the nature of organisational communication and decision processes. Individual characteristics that affect employee responses are disposition and emotional intelligence.

Another model of individual responses to downsizing has been presented and tested by Paterson and Cary (2002). Using Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) Affective Events Theory as their basis, they indicate that aspects of the change programme, such as participation and communication, stimulate cognitive evaluations of the fairness of the changes, and affective reactions, based on appraisal of the event and its significance for the individual. Both cognitive and affective responses have outcomes that relate to acceptance of change, trust in management and employee morale. An empirical test of the model supported its overall concept.

Rather than focussing on one discrete change event, Kiefer (2005) developed and tested a model that specifically focused on negative emotions (which she suggests are more likely) during ongoing and multiple organisational changes. According to the model, emotions are mediated by perceptions of the impact of changes on working conditions, status and future prospects, and organisational treatment. The outcomes of the negative emotions are withdrawal behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and lower trust in the organisation (Paterson & Cary, 2002). She tested the model in the study of a merger and found that ongoing change did elicit negative emotions when employees perceived the results of these changes to be impacting unfavourably on their jobs.

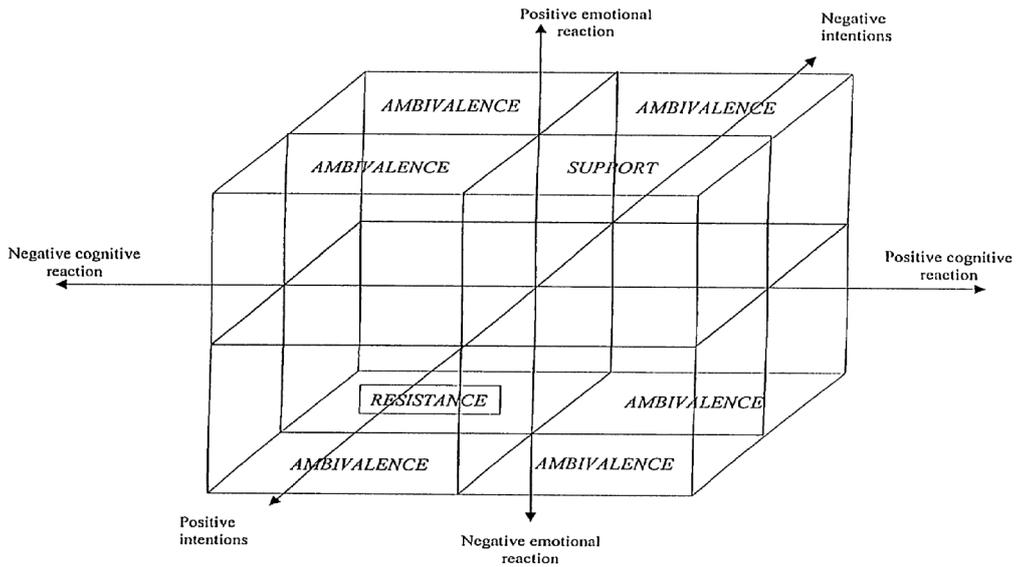
Focussing on the stressful aspects of change, Brotheridge (2003) developed and tested a model in which emotional exhaustion, other affective and physiological consequences, and the behavioural outcome of effort and intentions to quit, are mediated by perceptions of fairness.

The interplay between cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change has been captured in a number of other models. Some of the models are presented in the form of a matrix or continuum of behaviours that relate to acceptance of and resistance to change. Some identify a mix of antecedent and outcome variables that mould cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. Others examine how responses on some or all levels alter with the passage of time.

Using a matrix approach, Bovey and Hede (2001a; 2001b) first point to behaviour as an outcome of cognition and emotion, and then develop a model along axes of active-passive and overt-covert forms of behaviour. Active-overt positive responses see the individual initiating or embracing change; active-covert behaviours are supporting or co-operating; passive-covert reactions are giving in and complying, while passive-overt responses are agreeing and accepting. In terms of negative responses, active-overt behaviours are opposing, arguing and obstructing; active-covert actions are stalling, dismantling and undermining; passive-covert reactions include ignoring, withdrawing and avoiding; and passive-overt behaviours are observing, refraining and waiting.

Overlaying Bovey and Hede's (2001a) model with Piderit's (1999) model, Matheny's (2004) matrix sees active and passive behaviours along one axis with positive, negative and ambivalent actions (sub-divided into conscious and unconscious behaviours) along the other. This gives rise to two positive responses, supporting and complying; two ambivalent responses - questioning and reflecting; and four negative reactions - dissenting, defending, obstructing and disregarding. Figure 3 depicts the models of Piderit, Bovey and Hede, and Matheny.

Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) have provided a useful matrix of the affective responses of survivors to a specific form of change - downsizing - and the accompanying behavioural responses. Constructive/passive emotions (calmness and relief) lead to commitment, loyalty and the following of orders. Constructive/active emotional responses are hope and excitement where survivors aim to use their initiative and solve problems. Destructive/active responses include anger, disgust, and moral outrage on the affective level, and disloyalty and retaliation on the behavioural level.



Piderit, 1999

	Overt (openly expressive behaviour)	Covert (concealed behaviour)
Active (originate action)	<p><i>Elements</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resistance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oppose • Argue • Obstruct • Support <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initiate • Embrace 	<p><i>Elements</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resistance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stall • Dismantle • Undermine • Support <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support • Co-operate
Passive (not acting, inert)	<p><i>Elements</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resistance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observe • Refrain • Wait • Support <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agree • Accept 	<p><i>Elements</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resistance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ignore • Withdraw • Avoid • Support <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give in • Comply

Bovey & Hede, 2001a, 2001b

		Active More visible	Passive Less visible
Conscious	Positive	Supporting	Complying
	Ambivalent	Questioning	Reflecting
	Negative	Dissenting	Obstructing
Unconscious	Negative	Defending	Disregarding

Matheny, 2004

Figure 3: Models of support for and resistance to change

Finally destructive/passive reactions cover worry, fear, anxiety and helplessness, accompanied by withdrawal and procrastination. Survivors can move from one quadrant to another as outcomes materialise over time.

Harris and Ogbonna (1998) researched the influence of organisational culture and developed a matrix of responses based on the strength of the culture (or sub-culture) and willingness to change, producing nine types of reaction ranging from acceptance to resistance. Rather than using a matrix of behaviours Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) prefer the use of a continuum from active (overt) resistance, passive (covert) resistance, compliance, cooperation, and championing. Similarly, but in reverse order, Coetsee (1999) identifies responses to change moving from enthusiastic commitment through lukewarm commitment and some ambivalence to resistance, which takes various forms, starting from apathy and indifference, and moving through passive resistance and active resistance to aggressive resistance. In the antecedent-outcome approach Huy's (1999) model of change dynamics incorporates receptivity as the outcome of cognitive and emotional processes and 'mobilization' as the behavioural outcome.

Other researchers have used very different conceptual frameworks to depict individual responses as they occur and change over time. Isabella (1990) indicates how the way people think about an organisational change depends on the information they receive and the sense they make of it. She drew a parallel between Lewin's (1947) process of unfreezing, changing and refreezing with interpretive stages of anticipation, confirmation, culmination and aftermath. Trigger events at each stage, and the information, absence or inaccuracy of information, that accompanies them, influence people's perceptions. Isabella acknowledges the emotional ramifications of this cognitive processing but does not elaborate on them.

Other authors have described individual reactions to change as taking a psychological route over time that sees people descend to what Elrod and Tippett (2002) call the 'death valley of change', where people experience a variety of aversive cognitive, affective and behavioural states, before rising to a more constructive orientation. They provide an overview of 15 change models, several of which are based on Kübler-Ross' (1969) work on death and grieving. Kübler-Ross views people going through various stages, each of which is replete with emotional experience. The first stage is denial and isolation, which are buffers against anxiety. In the second stage, anger, there are growing feelings of "anger, rage, envy and resentment" (p. 44). The third stage, bargaining, is accompanied by guilt; the fourth, depression, is characterised

by hopelessness and bitterness; and the fifth and final stage, acceptance, which apart from some vestigial elements of hope, is almost “void of feelings” (p. 100).

While it might be going too far to suggest that death is similar to organisational change, several of the authors cited by Elrod and Tippett (2002) use similar terminology to Kübler-Ross (1969), including the words grieving and mourning. In the various approaches they outline time is placed on one axis and other variables, such as self-esteem, morale or performance, on the other axis, and they end with some form of closure or accommodation. Some have more upward and downward phases than others. Models of this nature take the view that change is a loss (or at least is initially perceived as such by the individual) and that the reactions at the early and middle stages are universally negative. Individual reactions to change can vary as processes and outcomes become clearer and the various stages depicted in these models may be reached at different times by different people, and it is not inevitable that people follow the same trajectories or even the same stages. To some extent the models represent the route of a rollercoaster and the articles by Goss et al. (1993) and Schneider and Goldwasser (1998) actually contain graphics of the ‘rollercoaster of change’.

The reactions referred to by researchers reveal the wide range of possibilities. Given the multi-faceted nature of both a change event and an individual’s reactions to it, one cannot simply state, for example, that a positive judgement of a change and a positive emotion will automatically lead to a positive behavioural or intentional response. Peer group pressure may spur individual compliance with the change or resistance to it. Similarly, a heavy workload could undermine a person’s willingness to implement what appear to be acceptable changes. Behavioural outcomes of negative cognitive and affective responses are particularly difficult to predict since employees are aware of possible problems if they resist the change (Cunningham, 2006). Some employees may argue a point and, if not successful, will accept the decision and move on. With others, reluctance to accept outcomes may result in emotions that fester and turn into something more toxic (Frost, 2004) and which may find an outlet in more complaints or other negative forms of action. The nature of the change cannot be ignored. A person may be unwilling to move to a new office block but will inevitably do so if there are no other options, other than resignation. The later effects of any change on performance and behaviour will vary from one person to another.

Employees with a modicum of political savvy will realise that certain forms of behaviour, depending on the culture of the organisation or the management style of

change leaders and managers, could have deleterious personal consequences, such as dismissal, poor prospects for promotion and financial problems (Gross, 1998; Piderit, 2000). Disposition and emotional intelligence can also play significant roles in responses to change and will be explored in more detail later.

I now explore more deeply the relationship between cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions to change, and separate them into those that are broadly positive, negative, neutral and mixed/ambivalent.

Firstly, positive responses occur when employees believe that the changes will be beneficial to the organisation, to some of its external stakeholders, to groups of employees or individuals (Cunningham, 2006; Matheny & Smollan, 2005). Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) believe that there are three forms of commitment to change: affective commitment (belief that change is a good idea), normative commitment (the view that there is an obligation to comply), and continuance commitment (belief that one will pay the price for non-compliance). Positive cognitions of the advantages of change, and those which enhance issues of self-concept and psychological ownership (Dirks, Cummings & Pierce, 1996), should lead to positive emotions that could range in intensity from exhilaration and enthusiasm to pleasure and contentment (French, 2001; Antonacopolou & Gabriel, 2001). Participation in decision-making enhances acceptance of change when employees perceive a genuine commitment to engaging their views and when the change outcomes are perceived as important (Lines, 2004). On the behavioural level, employees willingly engage in the tasks expected of them (Woodward & Hendry, 2004) and may even attempt to exceed performance expectations. Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (Spector & Fox, 2002), which encompass a range of pro-social behaviours, such as helping others, showing initiative, altruistic actions, loyalty and increased effort, may result. Cunningham (2006) found in an empirical study that affective commitment to change was positively related to people's beliefs that they could cope with change. Change self-efficacy (Jimmieson et al., 2004; Herold, Fedor & Caldwell, 2007; Holt et al., 2007), other dispositional variables, the fairness of change, favourable outcomes and a range of other variables which will be dealt with elsewhere in this study, contribute to positive responses.

When employees experience negative cognitive responses, accompanied by negative emotions, such as fear or anger, they reject the changes (Kiefer, 2005). The term 'resistance to change' was conceptualised by Lewin (1947) as part of a set of restraining forces to counter other forces driving change. It permeates academic and

practitioner literature and organisational conversations, and focuses on causes, consequences and solutions. It therefore merits a detailed treatment here.

Oreg (2006) supports the view of Piderit (2000) that resistance to change must be viewed from cognitive, affective and behavioural perspectives and found that resistance to change has dispositional and contextual antecedents. George and Jones (2001) propose that at the micro-level people may find that their own schemas may be challenged by change. The seeds of resistance are sown here as the discrepancy between present and future schemas is accompanied by negative emotions that signal the significance of the change to the individual. Learned helplessness, denial and complacency are affect-based reactions that contribute to resistance to change.

Surveying five textbooks on organisational behaviour and management, Dent and Goldberg (1999) found that the most commonly cited causes of resistance were misunderstanding, lack of trust, emotional side effects, personality conflicts, threats to jobs status and security, work group break up, and uncertainty. Dirks et al. (1996, p. 11) propose that change tends to be resisted when “it frustrates the individual’s ability to fulfil his needs for self-enhancement, self-continuity, and control and efficacy” and when the change is imposed, revolutionary and subtractive. Early empirical work on resistance by Coch and French (1948) found that the resistance of factory workers to job transfers was a motivational issue. Employees were reluctant to learn new skills since they perceived that it would take too long to reach their earlier levels of output and pay.

The concept of loss as a cause of resistance to change has been explored by several researchers. Loss of identity during change has been noted by Wolfram Cox (1997), Fineman (2003), Carr (1999, 2001), Fiol and O’Connor (2002), and Bovey and Hede (2001a), while Dirks et al. (1996) use the term ‘loss of psychological ownership’. Interviews conducted by Wolfram Cox (1997) identified loss on a personal level, such as of pay, status and skills, and on organisational and group levels, such as loss of departments, union power, production and quality. Participants in the studies by Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) and by Oreg (2006) reported loss of decision-making power. In a *Fortune* magazine article on the nature of organisational change, Colvin (2006, p. 40) asserts, “All change creates winners and losers in an organization and the caveman part of our brains is still wired to defend against loss”, and concludes rather glibly, “So people almost always resist change.”

Injustice has been cited as a cause of resistance to change (Kiefer, 2002b; Matheny & Smollan, 2005; Brotheridge, 2003; Cobb, Folger & Wooten, 1995; Paterson

& Härtel, 2002), and includes breaches of the psychological contract (Shapiro, Lewicki & Devine, 1995; Kickul, Lester & Finkl, 2002). This will be dealt with in more detail later in the literature review (Research Question 4).

Bridges (1995, p. 197) denies that people resist change per se; it is the transition between two states that is critical:

1. They resist saying goodbye to the world that has given them their identity and their feelings of competence.
2. They resist the chaotic and confusing neutral zone, where everything is up for grabs and no-one knows what the rules are.
3. And they resist taking the risk of trying something completely unfamiliar and staking so much on a untried way of being and doing.

Another source of resistance to change is cynicism. Studies identify its antecedents as partly dispositional (Wanberg & Banas, 2000; Wanous, Reichers & Austin, 2000; Oreg, 2003, 2006) and partly situational (Connell & Waring, 2002; Oreg, 2006; Bareil, Savoie & Meunier, 2007; Walker, Armenakis & Bernerth, 2007). Stanley, Meyer & Topolnytsky (2005) distinguish between change-scepticism (doubt about the viability of a change project), and change-cynicism (disbelief about others' motives). They also believe that it is important to distinguish between general change cynicism and specific-change cynicism. They developed or adapted measures for each of the three constructs and tested them in two studies. They concluded that cynicism about a specific change predicted resistance more strongly than general change cynicism. Their studies focused on the cognitive elements of cynicism and pointed out that research needs to be done on the affective elements and how cognitive and affective elements influence behaviour. Cole, Bruch and Vogel (2006) found that negative emotion predicted organisational cynicism in a change context. A number of other personality factors lead to resistance to change, such as lack of openness to change, cognitive rigidity, low change self-efficacy, external locus of control and negative affectivity (e.g. Judge et al. 1997; Jimmieson et al., 2004; Herold et al., 2007; Holt et al., 2007; Oreg, 2003). These issues will be explored in more depth in Research Question 6.

The consequences of resistance manifest themselves in many ways. On an affective level, which is of particular significance to this study, change has been considered to evoke both positive and negative emotions, depending on contextual and other variables. In one of the earliest studies Coch and French (1948) found evidence of resentment, frustration and loss of hope. The downsizing literature naturally features powerful negative emotions underpinning the resistance of victims, who obviously

stand to lose the most (Ryan & Macky, 1998; Worrall et al., 2000). Survivors of redundancy also resist change as perceptions of the adverse effects of change lead to emotional reactions such as fear of increased work loads (O'Connell Davidson, 1994; Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999), further job losses (Paterson & Cary, 2002), anxiety over the inadequacy of skills to manage the change (Herold et al., 2007), anger at injustice (Armstrong-Stassen, 1998), the loss of colleagues and lack of tangible and psychological organisational support (Kiefer, 2005; Lines, 2004). Studies of mergers have also produced perceptions of injustice, feelings of anxiety and resistance to change (e.g. Chawla & Kelloway, 2004; Kiefer, 2002a, 20002b, 2005; Fugate, Kinicki & Schreck, 2002; Totterdell et al., 2004).

As the models referred to earlier indicate (e.g. Piderit, 1999; Bovey & Hede 2001a, 2001b; Matheny, 2004) resistant behaviours can vary enormously. Resistance can be seen as refusal to engage in the change or subverting it, but can also be conceptualised as reluctance (Piderit, 2000; Ford et al., 2002), dissent (Piderit, 2000), rejection (Coetsee, 1999), unreadiness (Armenakis, et al., 1993) or inertia (George & Jones, 2001). Coch and French (1948) discovered that poorly planned job changes resulted in grievances, reduced efficiency and output, and increased absenteeism, turnover, and aggression against management. Further research has added disloyalty, neglect, exit or intention to quit (Turnley & Feldman, 1999), lower trust (Kiefer, 2005; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler & Martin, 1997), active campaigning against the change (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998), deception (Shapiro et al., 1995), sabotage (La Nuez & Jermier, 1994; O'Connell Davidson, 1994; Spector & Fox, 2002), violence and aggression (O'Connell Davidson, 1994; Spector & Fox, 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998), industrial action, such as strikes, walk outs, go-slows and refusal to work or complete certain tasks (O'Connell Davidson, 1994; Skarlicki, Folger & Tesluk, 1999). Researchers have used the terms Organisational Resistance Behaviours (Skarlicki et al., 1999) and Counterproductive Work Behaviours (Spector & Fox, 2002) to categorise a number of dysfunctional and anti-social behaviours, some of which are targeted at organisational members, and some at the organisation itself.

The term resistance to change has been criticised by Dent and Goldberg (1999), Krantz (1999) and Piderit (2000). They allege that it is overused, distorted and oversimplified, and has achieved the status of received wisdom. Anticipated resistance becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy whereby managers have been educated and trained to see resistance as inevitable, negative and largely due to the ignorance or wilfulness of

recalcitrant employees. Yet resistance is not always confined to 'workers' - managers themselves are often sources of resistance too (Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996; La Nuez & Jermier, 1994; Huy, 2002; Young, 2000).

Resistance has usually been seen as a nuisance, one that has to be managed, eradicated or overcome (Coch & French, 1948; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). Schön (1963) noted that resistance is not merely normal but at times also desirable, in order to secure a balance between change and stability. Wolfram Cox (1997) argues that individual resistance should be examined as a framework of loss, rather than one of opposition, since it offers a more useful means of explaining the psychological response to organisational change. Ford and Ford (2002) suggest that change has often been constructed as a dialectical process of opposite forces; change driven by management, and inertia maintained by employees. This process of opposition and confrontation, they claim, is self-defeating and needs to be replaced by a new 'logics of action', a 'trialectical' approach which focuses on working on the attractiveness of organisational change, rather than on overcoming resistance to change. This is similar to the approach of Armenakis et al. (1993) in creating readiness for change.

Psychodynamic approaches have been used to analyse resistance to change. Jarrett (2004, p. 247) claims that resistance is an ego-defensive strategy: "The heart of resistance is primitive anxiety and fear". Carr (1999; 2001), French (2001), Antonacopoulou and Gabriel (2001) and Vince (2006) have likewise viewed resistance to change as a deep-seated, identity-protecting mechanism.

Mills (2000) and Ford et al. (2002) see resistance as a socially constructed phenomenon in which people interpret change through background conversations. These discourses are not merely reports of the 'reality'; they create perceptions of the reality. Ford et al. (2002) identify three significant contexts that explain resistance to change. In a background of complacency people deny the need for change, and demonstrate procrastination, avoidance and withdrawal. In an environment of resignation, employees passively but reluctantly accept change, which elicits emotional responses of "despair, apathy, hopelessness, depression, sadness and listlessness" (p. 111). Behavioural resistance takes the form of non-compliance, which may be overt or covert. A background of cynicism attributes failure to others and is accompanied by pessimism, frustration and dissatisfaction, and on the behavioural level, by a range of negative behaviours. They caution that unless those involved in designing and implementing change understand these background conversations, and their causes, they

will not succeed, even if they attempt to use strategies to overcome the resistance (e.g. those proposed by Kotter and Schlesinger (1979), such as education and participation. What is needed, they say, it to engage in the background conversations by creating honest dialogue that examines assumptions and expectations and looks for opportunities, while not avoiding the discussion of problems and how to solve them. Bommer, Rich and Rubin (2005, p. 749) concluded from an empirical study that “transformational leaders’ role in dealing with cynics is to ‘convert’ them to champions of change without compromising their integrity or attempting to suppress their voice in change efforts.” Huy (1999, p. 336) suggest that emotions themselves need to be discussed: “Emotional conversations between change agents and their targets to co-construct new meanings gradually increase understanding and receptivity to seemingly controversial change proposals.”

Piderit (2000) also believes that the generation of widespread conversation about the need for change is more productive than a top-down approach and agrees that overselling the benefits of the change does not always work. She notes that negative cognitive and affective responses are often well intentioned. They may result in actions construed as appropriate, and which lead to further discussion and the implementation of more acceptable, and possibly more beneficial, organisational outcomes.

In another call for “rethinking resistance” Jick and Peiperl (2003, p. 307) encourage change managers to see it:

- As natural self-protection.
- As a step toward change.
- As energy to work with.
- As information critical to the change process.
- As other than a road block.

They also urge change managers to accept the emotions of change recipients as natural outcomes of their responses and quote the words of Hultman as guidance:

One of most common mistakes made by managers when they encounter resistance is to become angry, frustrated, impatient or exasperated...The problem with an emotional reaction is that it increases the probability that resistance will intensify. Remember that anger directed towards others is likely to make them afraid and angry in return (Hultman, 1979, cited in Jick & Peiperl, 2003, p. 308).

Responding in this way will require considerable levels of emotional intelligence (Vakola et al., 2004; Jordan, 2005) as it requires change managers to manage their own emotions as well as those of the change recipients.

Change is often experienced as having both positive and negative aspects (Fugate et al., 2008; Piderit, 1999, 2000), and some aspects might be resisted and others supported. Mixed or ambivalent behaviours are probable when there are mixed thoughts and feelings, and reactions to some change events might be neutral. Promotion might bring extra travel, self-doubt and stress. For a survivor, downsizing may lead to an enriched job. The complexity of consequences causes confusion. As Fineman (2003, p. 121) puts it, “Fear can coexist with exhilaration, liking with disliking, loving with frustration, suspicions with delight. Resolving, or learning to accept, these tensions is part of the struggle of change.”

It is also likely that some people will experience neither favourable nor unfavourable cognitive or affective reactions. For example, some employees may respond to the move to an intranet-based leave application or remuneration advice system with a neutral or indifferent attitude. The change may require no extra effort and have outcomes perceived as either positive or negative. Compliance or ‘submissive collaboration’ (Bacharach, Bamberger & Sonnenstul, 1996) are likely outcomes.

The vast array of possible cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change depend on factors that lie within the change itself, within the individuals, within their perceptions of change leaders, managers and agents, and within the organisational context. These factors are explored in the next section and incorporated into a model of change.

2.5 Development of a new model of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change

Introduction

I have referred to many models of individual change. Because they looked at the relationships between cognition, emotion and behaviour I found the most influential were those by Gibson (1995), Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), Piderit (1999; 2000), Paterson and Härtel (2002), Paterson and Cary (2002), Brotheridge (2003), Kiefer (2005) and Szabla (2007).

According to Lau and Woodman (1995, p. 550), “Any model is an abstraction from reality, and researchers must make difficult choices as to what should be included and what should be left out.” My model (see Figure 4) is designed to include as many factors affecting individual responses to organisational change as possible.

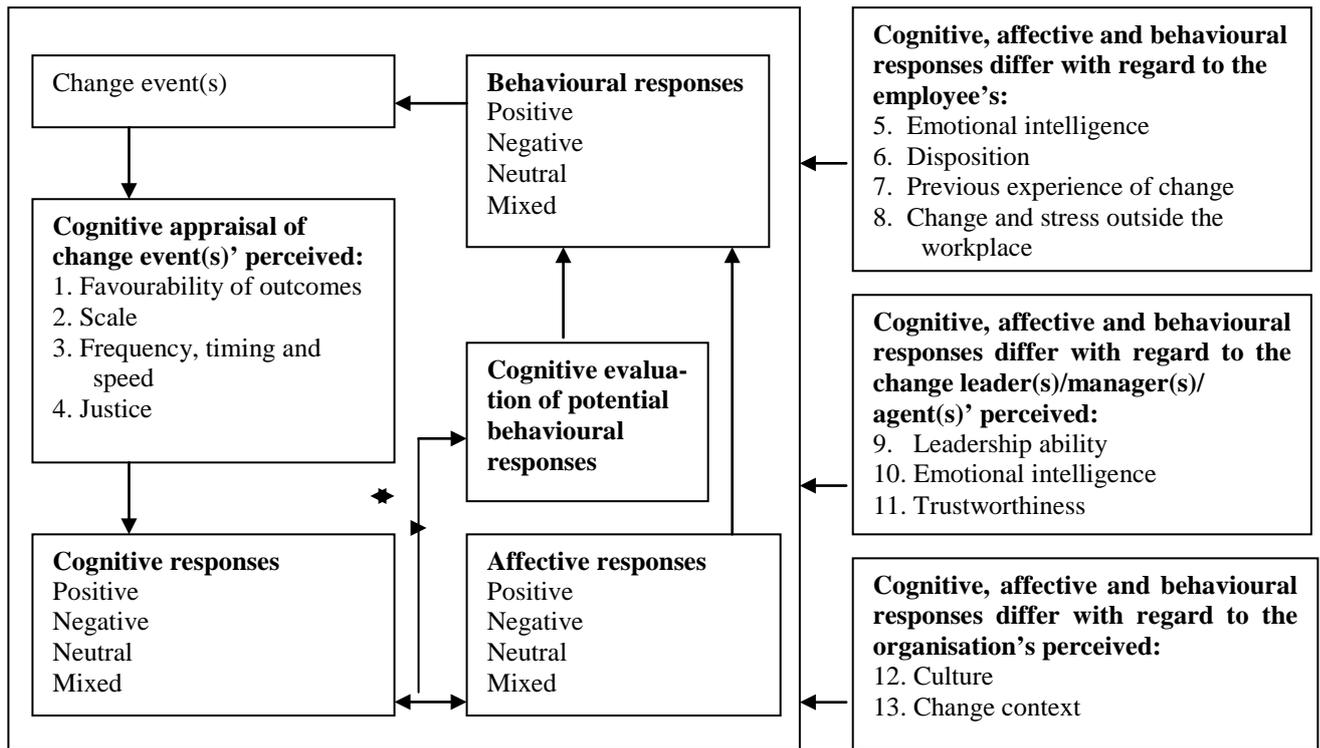


Figure 4: Model of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change

The model proposes that an organisational change event triggers individual cognitive evaluations, which evoke possible emotional reactions and the cognitive and affective processes result in behavioural outcomes. Before acting, most people consider the outcomes of their actions (Piderit, 2000) and possibly moderate their behaviour. On the other hand, people may respond spontaneously and ‘from the heart’, without carefully analysing the possible consequences. Bargh and Chartrand (1999) conducted a series of experiments that revealed that many thoughts operate below the level of consciousness and that these induce behaviour that is also not consciously thought through. Emotion regulation, according to Gross (1998, p. 288), provides “a middle course between silencing the emotions and listening to them and them alone.” Cognitive, affective and behavioural responses can be positive, negative, neutral or mixed.

The focus in this thesis is on emotional responses to change. According to the cognitive approach to the study of emotions (Lazarus, 1991, 2006; Ortony et al., 1988; Scherer, 1999) affective reactions to events arise after a process of thought. Employees’ positive or negative evaluations of a change event are mediated by their perceptions of the nature of the change, notably the favourability of outcomes, the scale, the frequency,

timing and speed, and the fairness of it. Mediation occurs when “an active organism intervenes between stimulus and response” and “(m)ediators explain how external physical events take on internal psychological significance” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). All of the mediating variables in the model can individually, or in combination, evoke emotions in those involved in change. The complexity of the cognitive and affective processes becomes particularly evident when some aspects of the change are considered positive and others negative.

In contrast, “a moderator is a qualitative...or quantitative...variable that affects the strength and/or direction of the relation between an independent predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable” (Baron & Kenny 1986, p. 1174). Three sets of factors moderate the cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change, some of which relate to the individual (emotional intelligence, disposition, previous experience of change, and change and stress outside the workplace); some relate to the individual’s perception of factors relating to change leaders, managers and agents (emotional intelligence, leadership ability and trustworthiness); and some relate to the individual’s perception of the organisation (its culture and the change context). There are many potential overlaps between the various constructs. For example, there are several personality characteristics, such as empathy, which are considered to be embedded in the constructs of leadership, emotional intelligence, trust, justice and disposition. The model can be seen as linear, circular or multi-directional. While a change event triggers cognitions and emotions that lead to individual behaviour, the behaviour itself can have outcomes that impact on further cognitions and emotions, and possibly on the change itself (Bacharach et al., 1996).

To illustrate, a theoretical example is provided of the responses from an individual point of view. A change of structure is announced by senior management. One individual, a middle manager, considers the new structure to be weak, is anxious about it, and complains to senior management. After discussion, his/her views are taken into account and a variation of the structure is implemented. This may elicit different cognitions and emotions in the middle manager, who now accepts the change. Or perhaps the outcome is messier still, and the manager rallies support from others, and after considerable interaction some changes are made and others are not, and thus the nature of the thoughts, feelings and actions of the manager may again alter. The entire change experience depicted above is characterised by complexity, fluidity and politics (Dawson, 2003; Buchan & Badham, 1999), as cognitive, affective and behavioural

reactions are influenced by new information, procedures and outcomes (Kiefer, 2005; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Mills, 2000). Kiefer (2005) notes that while one specific change event, small or large, has certain consequences for individuals, ongoing change involves a more complex set of dynamics. One change therefore needs to be seen in the context of others.

The model therefore has similarities to other models in that the emotions of change have cognitive antecedents and behavioural outcomes, and since organisational change occurs over varying periods of time affective states will alter. My model differs from previous models in various ways. First, Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) model is not specifically directed at (but may include) organisational change. Second, my model aims to embrace all types of change, unlike Paterson and Härtel's (2002) and Paterson and Cary's (2002) focus on downsizing, and Kiefer's (2005) concentration on ongoing and multiple changes. Third, it involves a wider range of variables than most of the models, which do not directly explore the role of leadership ability, change and stress outside the workplace, or organisational culture. Fourth, it embraces positive and negative emotions while Kiefer's model focuses only on negative emotions. Fifth, the concept of justice permeates the contributions of Paterson and Cary and Kiefer, but while both identify trust as an outcome of change, my model identifies trust as a variable that moderates cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. Sixth, Brotheridge's (2003) model was primarily focused on the mediating effects of perceptions of organisational justice and was therefore not concerned with as wide a range of variables, and it also concentrated on the stressful aspects of change. Seventh, Gibson's (1995) model emerged from a study of cognitive and affective responses to change but did not categorise the critical variables that lead to them. Eighth, while Paterson and Härtel's model discusses the impact of employees' emotional intelligence on their abilities to cope with change, mine also addresses employees' perceptions of the emotional intelligence of change leaders, managers and agents. Finally, the models of Piderit (1999) and Szabla (2007) are fundamentally about resistance to change and less about positive reactions.

My model thus makes a contribution to the literature by focussing on a wider range of factors that influence any form of organisational change than presented in other models. What now follows is an explanation of why each of the 13 factors have been included in the model. At the end of each subsection the research questions are posed.

Variables Mediating Cognitive Responses to Change

Before a cognitive judgement of an organisational change takes place, people use a number of lenses through which they view the change. These lenses act as mediators (Baron & Kenny, 1986) because the cognitive evaluation of the change as positive, negative, neutral or mixed depends on the individual's perception of the nature of the change. In this section four mediators are discussed: perceived favourability of outcomes of change, perceived scale of the change, perceived frequency, timing and speed of the change, and perceived justice of the change. The purposes of the research questions in this section are twofold. The first is to investigate how the variable mediates cognitive evaluations of the change. The second is to identify the emotions that arise from the cognitive evaluations and the behavioural outcomes.

Perceived Favourability of Outcomes of Change

Change has often been portrayed as a negative (Kiefer, 2005) and stressful (Brotheridge, 2003) event where some stakeholders will lose out and face difficult processes in doing so (Kruglanski, Pierro, Higgins & Capozza, 2007). It also has many positive aspects:

Change also poses challenge and affords opportunity. It does away with boring routines, enabling advancement and exploration. It shakes away stagnation and that 'business-as-usual' feeling. It generates dynamism and the potential for progress. It breeds excitement and a sense of going places. In short, it has a significant bright side, alongside its darker, duress-inducing aspects (Kruglanski et al., 2007, p. 1306).

Outcomes of change that are perceived as favourable tend to produce positive affective reactions (Matheny & Smollan, 2005), such as happiness from obtaining a better office, relief at escaping redundancy and pride from a promotion. Negative outcomes generate negative emotions such as fear of losing one's management role, anger at an increased workload, or disgust at the way junior staff are treated. Where employees find it difficult to predict outcomes their responses will remain either neutral or ambivalent, until more information becomes available and outcomes are realised or become clearer. If people anticipate that change will bring only modest benefits (Fugate et al., 2008), or do not see it as particularly relevant, they will have a tepid response at best. If the change is seen as useful, but requires effort to deal with it, it may be seen as a lower priority than other tasks, and in this case responses are also likely to be ambivalent.

One could expect that a move to self-managing work teams would produce

favourable responses since they are often considered to increase participation in decision-making and feelings of empowerment and autonomy (see Rasmussen and Jeppesen, 2006, for an overview of research). However, Shapiro and Kirkman (1999) surveyed employees who were moving to self-managing work teams and found considerable resistance, increased turnover intentions and lower organisational commitment, consequences also detailed in the meta-analysis of Rasmussen and Jeppesen (2006). The main reason was that employees feared unfair and unfavourable outcomes such as increased workload and responsibility.

Disposition (which will be considered in more depth in Research Question 6) can play a significant role. For example, optimists and pessimists will anticipate different outcomes (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Mixed outcomes, for example a bigger salary but a more stressful workload, will lead to mixed cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions (Kiefer, 2002b). Fedor et al. (2006) concluded from their empirical study that employees were more committed to change where outcomes were favourable *and* when they did not have to do much. They suggest that change can result in uncertainty and fear of failure to adapt, and the effort required to make change work may be a source of negative attitudes to change.

An outcome of change can be perceived by a person involved in terms of its nature, timeframe and focus on different stakeholders.

Firstly, a number of useful concepts from the literatures on the psychological contract and organisational justice explore the nature of individual outcomes of organisational practices and decisions. While justice concepts are analysed in more depth in Research Question 4 in this literature review, the distinctions between types of outcome could be helpful in analysing how organisational personnel view change.

Lester and Kickul (2001) distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes in their discussion of the psychological contract, which is the employee's perception of mutual obligations between him or her and the organisation. Intrinsic outcomes relate to the work environment (for example, communication and managerial support) and the job itself (such as responsibility, authority and meaningful work), while extrinsic outcomes relate to the consequences of performing the job (such as salary and benefits). They found that participants in their study rated eight of the most important ten outcomes as intrinsic. Changes to the psychological contract can impact on both types of outcomes (Kickul et al., 2002) and when they are seen as unfair, job satisfaction, performance and intentions to remain decline.

The procedural justice literature provides a number of similar terms about the nature of outcomes. Tyler and Lind (1992) criticised the instrumental view of Thibaut and Walker (1975) that people are only concerned that procedures should deliver favourable tangible outcomes for themselves. They proposed a parallel group-relational model that states that people also see outcomes in terms of social status, dignity, belongingness and validations of self-identity. Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) refer to outcomes as being economic, concrete and material, or as psychological, whereas Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) distinguish between economic and socioemotional outcomes. Apart from the relevance of perceptions of fairness in responding to change, the main point of these various concepts is that people can conceptualise outcomes of organisational change in different ways and that all of them can produce emotional reactions. Research into identity has revealed that people's sense of self is often wrapped in their jobs and careers, and when organisational change disrupts identity it produces negative emotional responses (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Carr, 2001).

Secondly, outcomes of change can also be framed in terms of how long they last. An organisational change could have negative consequences, such as extra work or extra travel in the short term (during the change process), but have longer-term consequences, such as a new role or higher salary (after the change has been implemented). It is conceivable that longer-term outcomes will produce stronger emotional reactions. Coping with negative outcomes is easier in the short-term while the prospect of enjoying positive outcomes is particularly welcome with a longer-term perspective. The uncertainty of some outcomes is itself a temporary outcome of a change process and can tax people's coping resources (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Fugate et al., 2008). The longer one has to wait the greater is the potential anxiety or frustration (Fedor et al., 2006; Schein, 2004). The frequency of change also becomes a factor, as the outcomes of some types of change seem to be short-lived (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). People will be reluctant to put effort into an outcome they perceive will be of limited duration, as they wait for the latest management 'hot idea' to materialise.

Thirdly, people's perceptions of change are focused on outcomes for different stakeholders. Change events can produce wins and losses for an individual (Bartunek et al., 2006; Wolfram Cox, 1997) and there may be differing outcomes for various stakeholders (Paterson & Cary, 2002; Fedor et al., 2006). For example, the results of downsizing for victims and survivors will obviously be vastly different. Most victims will think that the loss of their jobs is unfortunate and experience emotions such as

“social isolation, helplessness and anxiety”, resulting in “reduced self-esteem, depression and minor psychiatric morbidity” (Ryan & Macky, 1998, p. 33). Survivors too may experience negative perceptions when colleagues lose jobs, social relationships are fractured, and increased workloads are predicted or experienced. Redundancies are accompanied by “highly emotional responses synonymous with grieving such as shock, anger, denial, guilt and fear” with survivors becoming “less-averse to risk, indecisive and demotivated” (Worrall, Campbell & Cooper, 2000, p. 463). Survivors may also experience positive emotions (particularly relief) and the model of Mishra and Spreitzer (1998), referred to earlier, lays out a number of constructive affective and behavioural responses. Survivors of downsizing have also been noted to experience grief at the loss of colleagues, guilt that they themselves had escaped the axe, and anxiety that they may not do so the next time (Brockner, 1992; Paterson & Cary, 2002). There is also a difference between those who are declared ‘at risk’ (Armstrong-Stassen, 2002) or perceive themselves at risk, and those who are not. Those at risk are likely to experience more negative emotional reactions. The leaders and managers of downsizing also have to deal with a gamut of negative emotions, such as guilt, anxiety and concern (Clair & Dufresne, 2004; Gandolfi, 2008).

Employees will therefore analyse the favourability of outcomes for themselves, other staff, for the organisation itself, and possibly for external stakeholders. This was confirmed by Matheny and Smollan (2005) in an empirical study which found that people experienced a range of positive and negative emotions relating to outcomes for each of these stakeholders. Outcomes for self produced a higher degree of emotional intensity than did outcomes for other people or the organisation. It is natural that most people view a change event with the prime focus on personal outcomes. Events that facilitate the attainment of goals will result in positive emotions and those which prevent them produce negative emotions (Frijda, 1988; Gibson, 1995; Lazarus, 2006). Outcomes for other stakeholders (including the organisation itself) are seen as being of lesser importance. As one of the respondents in another study of change observed, “I recognized some time ago that my priorities were really myself, secondly those who work for me and around me, and thirdly the organization” (Vince, 2006, p. 353).

Evaluation of outcomes often involves comparison with others and perceived unfairness produces anger (Homans 1961). Adams (1965) Equity theory states that when people see an imbalance they take psychological and practical steps to restore the balance. These issues will be explored more fully in Research Question 4 on the role of

organisational justice perceptions.

Evaluation of the favourability of outcomes of change, both the more tangible and less tangible, can trigger emotions that depend on a range of factors that lie within the individual and the organisation.

Research Question 1a: How does perceived favourability of the outcomes of change mediate cognitive evaluations of the change?

Research Question 1b: What affective responses occur as a result of these evaluations?

Perceived Scale of the Change

The typologies of change referred to earlier in the literature review (see Table 3) distinguished between major and minor changes and for the former used terms such as gamma (Golembiewski et al., 1976; Porras & Silvers, 1991), second order (Watzlawick, et al., 1974; Bartunek & Moch, 1987; Porras & Robertson, 1992), third order (Bartunek & Moch, 1987), transformational (French et al., 2005; Dunphy & Stace 1988, 1990), recreations and reorientations (Tushman & Romanelli, 1985), and evolutionary and radical (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996).

These conceptualisations of organisational change are usually seen from the perspective of the organisation but individual employees tend to focus more on the impact of the change on their own jobs and conditions of service (Lau & Woodman, 1995). Therefore what is considered a major change at organisational level may have little impact on an individual and conversely a minor organisational change may be perceived by an individual to have major personal implications and thus trigger stronger cognitive and emotional responses (Bovey & Hede, 2001b; Fedor et al., 2006; Mossholder et al., 2000). For example, a major strategic change may have little impact on the catering or cleaning staff of an organisation but a change in personal work schedules may have more serious implications for some of them. Moreover, even within similar groups there could be different individual reactions (Caldwell, Herold & Fedor, 2004).

The greater the magnitude of the personal change the more potential there is for intense emotions. Dirks et al. (1996) propose that individuals with a strong sense of psychological ownership of some aspect of their jobs will find revolutionary change threatening, and tend to resist it. George and Jones (2001) argue that changes to existing schemata will have a more profound impact on people than changes within the schemata

themselves, a point also made by Gersick (1991). While positive change outcomes may engender positive reactions (French, 2001) the sheer size of the change, or too many new events occurring simultaneously (Blount & Janicik, 2001; Kiefer, 2005), may result in negative judgements. In a study of a technological change among police officers over 60 per cent of respondents believed the scale of change was big because of the impact it had on their jobs (Collerette, Legris & Manghi, 2006). While frequency of change is discussed in more detail in the next research question, it should be noted here that its cumulative effect can create the perception of increased scale as well.

Similarly, the size of the change and its fast pace may have dire consequences for employees. The economic crisis that suddenly mushroomed in September 2008 has seen major changes taking place in terms of bank failures, mergers, takeovers and redundancies. The collapse in April 2008 of a major financial institution reveals the emotional damage of sudden, major, negative change:

In a week it was all gone: Bear Stearns' reputation, culture, identity, the savings of many of its 14,000 employees; and possibly their jobs too. "The speed of the collapse was traumatic," says one banker who has worked at Bear for a decade. "People aren't jumping out of windows" he says, "but we are all kind of anxious" (Berfield, Silver-Greenberg and Lehman, 2008, p. 35).

The term burnout can also be related to both frequency and scale of change and describes the condition of people who have had to put in a huge effort to deal with significant change(s) (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). The symptoms of burnout, according to Maslach and Jackson (1981, p. 99), are emotional exhaustion ("feelings of anger, embarrassment, fear or despair"), depersonalisation and a reduced sense of achievement. Burnout could occur due to the effort required to implement the change or from the ongoing demands of the job after the change. Greenglass and Burke (2002) studied restructuring in hospital services which involved layoffs, other financial cutbacks and reduction in the quality of facilities and services. They found considerable burnout experienced as a result of these multiple changes and the added anxiety of reduced job security. To some extent burnout was mitigated by individual variables, such as self-efficacy.

Negative cognitive evaluations that the size of the change is too much to cope with (for the individual or other stakeholders) can provoke strong affective responses. Bovey and Hede (2001b) surveyed people who had experienced a major change and found anxiety to be the predominant affective response, and noted a variety of adaptive and maladaptive defence mechanisms.

Huy's (2002) research over three years into radical change in a large firm, which staged a wide number of change projects, identified the strong affective reactions that accompanied the processes. Focussing on the role of middle managers he found that pleasant high activation emotions (e.g. excitement and optimism) were evident when managers committed to the change but were often counter-balanced by negative low activation emotions (e.g. fatigue and disappointment). These managers had to simultaneously attend to the emotions of the staff for whom they were responsible, and here too they encountered both positive and negative emotions.

Mossholder et al. (2000) gathered data from managers in a large company that initiated restructuring from a functional to divisional approach, which resulted in downsizing. They found that radical range heightened arousal of positive and negative emotions. They noted that managers need to act with caution in aiming to generate high emotional activation if there is not an accompanying cognitive readiness for the change.

Kiefer (2002b) theorised that radical organisational change results in emotions occurring more frequently and more intensely. Empirical testing of reactions to a merger produced evidence of a wide range of positive and negative emotions, some of which were due to specific aspects of the change, some due to the range of change initiatives. Another research study in the same organisation led her to conclude that ongoing organisational change leads to more negative emotions (Kiefer, 2005). Rafferty and Griffin (2006) reported change frequency placing extra demands on the coping skills of people involved in organisational change. Issues of timing and frequency of change will be explored in more depth in the next research question.

Researchers are therefore in agreement that perceptions of the impact of the scale of a change are focused mostly on oneself, partly on others, and lead to emotional reactions that tap and tax people's ability to cope with the change. When people feel they can cope, negative emotional arousal, if there is any, tends to be more muted (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988).

Research Question 2a: How do perceptions of the scale of change mediate cognitive evaluations of the change?

Research Question 2b: What affective responses occur as a result of these evaluations?

Perceived Frequency, Timing and Speed of the Change

Time as an element of organisational life has been the subject of special issues of *The Academy of Management Review* and the *Journal of Organizational Change Management* (for overviews see Ancona, Okhuysen and Perlow, 2001, and Carr and Hancock, 2006). The relationship also appears frequently in the journal, *Time and Society*. Research shows that the temporal dimensions of the frequency, timing and speed of organisational change have distinct but also overlapping aspects. Firstly, frequency literally means how often change occurs, but a lot of related changes could also add up to a large scale change and include simultaneous and/or consecutive shifts in strategy, structure, operations and culture (Porras & Robertson, 1992; Dunphy & Stace, 1988, 1990; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985). Secondly, pacing can refer to the speed, timing or frequency of change (Gersick 1994; Sastry, 1997; Eisenhardt & Brown, 1998; Huy, 2001; Collerette et al., 2006). In this context Jansen (2000, 2004) refers to change-based momentum as the energy required to maintain the direction, trajectory and pace of the change over a period of time and which is facilitated by constant communication about its progress. Thirdly, changes to individual work schedules could be related to speed and sequencing, and the latter could be a function of the order and/or timing of events.

According to Ancona et al. (2001) and Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron (2001), time is socially constructed as different national and ethnic cultures place their own meanings on the concept of time. When translated to the organisational world, particularly in a Western context, time is literally seen as money, and the managerial urge to get things done quickly becomes paramount. Clark (1990, p. 143) complains that the conventional model of time in organisation science is inaccurately depicted as “objective, absolute, homogeneous, linear, evenly-flowing, measurable, readily divisible and independent of events”. Even in Western models there are different interpretations of the urgency of time between countries, and between different geographical regions within countries. Anecdotal personal experience, for example, indicates that people conceive of major financial centres in one country (e.g. New York, London, Sydney or Auckland) as being more time-conscious than in smaller cities (e.g. Los Angeles, Bristol, Brisbane or Christchurch). Cultural variations can impact on how different branches of a multi-national company, or different ethnic groups within that company, would approach an organisational change. Within an organisation time could also be differently constructed (Ancona et al. 2001). For example, the sales team might have a

much greater sense of urgency in introducing an innovation than the research and development team. As Pettigrew et al. (2001, p. 700) indicate:

the change scholar needs also to be mindful that time is more than just clock time or chronology. Time is not just 'out there' as neutral chronology, but also 'in here' as a social construction. Thus there is the constant challenge to study events and the social construction of events in the context of the local organizational time cycles that modulate the implicit rhythms of social systems.

Temporal issues in organisational change can impact on how employees react on cognitive and affective levels but insufficient empirical evidence has been produced to date. Huy (2001, p. 62), who observed, interviewed and surveyed employees in an organisation undergoing radical change, has contrasted the objective, quantitative conceptualisation of 'clock' time from what he calls qualitative or inner time, and advises management to be aware of this, since "subjective temporal experiences represent potential sources of psychological stress." If a change is made too quickly, at the wrong time, or too soon after another change, people can view it negatively and experience anxiety or anger.

The frequency of the change

The mantra, 'the only constant is change', is indicative of popular perceptions of the ongoing nature of organisational (and other types of) change. Researchers of organisational change at the macro-level (e.g. Weick & Quinn, 1999) have used the term continuous change. At the micro-level ongoing change can be exhausting, deplete a person's emotional resilience and coping skills (Huy, 2002; Kiefer, 2005; Woodward & Hendry, 2004; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006) and lead to stress and burnout (Brotheridge, 2003; Greenglass & Burke, 2002; Leiter & Maslach, 2001).

The types of change experienced will make an impact with negative outcomes naturally producing negative emotions. However, even changes with positive outcomes and positive emotions can produce a negative cumulative effect because of the constant adaptation that is necessary in undertaking extra and new tasks. The Holmes-Rahe Scale (1967) measures the stress from each type of life change, positive and negative, and a total score is one measure of stress. This has been extended by Rahe et al. (2000) to include a wider range of changes, including those related to work.

Empirical work has produced some evidence of the emotional impact of change frequency. Wolfram Cox (1997) researched an organisation that over 18 months made changes in team structures, pay, shifts, jobs and staffing levels, and while she found a

range of negative emotions, she did not specifically comment on the cumulative effect of these changes. However, Connell and Waring (2002), reporting on three longitudinal case studies of organisational change, declared that a succession of change initiatives led to employee cynicism, through the belief that change leads to negative outcomes of greater workload, restructuring, redeployment and redundancy. Kiefer's (2005) study of ongoing change confirmed that it produced mainly negative emotions but that these were mediated by perceptions of personal status and security, working conditions and organisational trust. Woodward and Hendry's (2004) investigation of multiple changes in the financial service industry in London led them to indicate that both leaders and recipients of change need emotion-focused and problem-focused skills (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). Rafferty & Griffin (2006) found that change frequency was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively to turnover intentions and was mediated through uncertainty. Herold et al. (2007) discovered in their study that pervasive change undermined commitment to change.

Burnout was identified in the previous research question as a consequence of the scale of the change. It is also associated with the stress of ongoing demands, one of which could be constant adapting to change. Greenglass and Burke (2002) reported on the burnout of nurses who had to cope with multiple changes and reduced resources. In his research at GE, Huy (2002) found considerable emotional exhaustion in managers who had experienced eight years of restructuring.

The timing of the change

Timing of change refers to when change should be made and four concepts can be applied. Firstly, it can relate to frequency. If a large change has several phases the timing of these changes can have an impact on people. For example, to implement a strategic change often requires cultural, structural and operational changes. Even an operational change, such as a technological change, might require several phases. A pause between phases allows those involved to recoup the energy used but may diminish momentum (Jansen, 2004). Combining the concepts of frequency and timing, Abrahamson (2000, p. 77) maintains that "to change successfully companies should stop changing all the time. Instead, they should intersperse major change initiatives among carefully paced periods of smaller, organic change." He outlines the strategies used by one of IBM's CEOs, Lou Gerstner, who was "alert to early signs of change fatigue: cynicism and burnout" (p. 78) and carefully planned the timing of changes.

Secondly, timing also relates to sequencing or the order of the discrete phases of the planned change. For example, a change in strategy could necessitate a change in structure, culture and various operations. The sequencing of these changes therefore becomes important (Pettigrew et al., 2001) on cognitive, affective and behavioural levels.

Thirdly, timing could refer to changes in individual work schedules, and in this context it could relate to a change in when work gets done, in what order and at what speed. According to Blount and Janicik (2001) a number of reactions can be expected from staff involved. 'Hastening' can provoke anxiety if people feel they cannot adjust in time. Delays may be resented if they disrupt expectations and if people have dispositional impatience, unless the change is unwanted, in which case any delay is welcome.

Fourthly, timing can be seen as a politically astute or inept way of managing a specific aspect of the change. Newspaper reports reveal the unhappiness of various stakeholders when executives received a sizeable bonus after a downsizing (Ward, 2006), when redundancies were announced at the same time as record profits (Huy & Mintzberg, 2003) and when the "organisation design committee", which was planning a reported 350 redundancies in another organisation, was given "a slap-up meal at a top Auckland eatery" (TVNZ top brass feast, 2007, p. 1). Once again it is perceived inequity that appears to be the overriding factor, but the relevance of the appropriate timing of stages of the change process should not be overlooked.

The speed of the change

The swift collapse of finance house Bear Stearns in 2008, mentioned earlier, came as a surprise to many and the worldwide economic crisis that erupted later in the year did likewise. There is little management literature dealing with individual responses to the speed of change and most research has focused on organisational pacing from a strategic and tactical perspective (e.g. Gersick, 1994; Sastry, 1997; Eisenhardt & Brown, 1998). Cameron (2006, p. 317) suggests, "not only is change ubiquitous and unpredictable, but almost everyone also assumes that its velocity will increase exponentially." Bridges (2003, p. 102) claims, "the hardest thing to deal with is not the pace of change but changes in the acceleration of that pace." While a fast pace can be used to create energy and momentum (Meyer & Stensaker, 2006; Jansen, 2004), if it is deemed too fast employees may believe they cannot take the necessary steps in time, or

do so with severe disruption to normal routines, and they are likely to react negatively (Blount & Janicik, 2001; Huy, 2001; Meyer & Stensaker, 2006). Psychological adaptation to something different may play as much of a role as the effort taken to get to grips with new skills, requirements and schedules.

A number of empirical studies have identified the cognitive and affective consequences of fast-paced change. Two separate studies of nurses found considerable unhappiness with the fast pace of change (Andrews, Manthorpe & Watson, 2005; Ball, 2006) and in the latter study dissatisfaction was significantly higher in settings where there had been redundancies. Some research has linked affective reactions to the speed of change to perceived justice. For example, Riolli's and Savicki's (2006) research showed that when participants were given too little information about a rapid technological change, and no opportunity to ask questions or make comments, they reported greater strain and burnout than those given more opportunity to listen to explanations and raise questions. However, the speed of change appeared to be less relevant than the fairness of the communication. Respondents in Wolfram Cox's (1997) study of multiple changes revealed the unhappiness of staff who believed that the pace of change had left no time for consultation. Here too it was not clear whether the critical issue was perception of an inadequate period of time to adapt to the change, or of the fairness of the way in which the change was designed and communicated. Self, Armenakis and Schraeder (2007) suggest that if change recipients perceive speed of change as important, they would not necessarily expect participation.

Huy (2001) believes that the type of change influences the speed of change and the leadership style that should be used to drive it. For example, he suggests that strategic or operational changes can be implemented quickly with commanding or engineering approaches but changing beliefs and social relationships require more measured teaching or socialising interventions:

Teachers have to be patient and value a time perspective that is moderately long, since changes in fundamental beliefs constitute, for the most part, a gradual and voluntary process and cannot be imposed with raw power (p. 608)...Socializers tend to have a long term perspective. To build trust they typically move at a patient pace and do not rush their targets into submission (p. 610).

Change leaders, managers and agents should therefore be aware of how the frequency, timing and speed of change can best be managed, not only from strategic and operational perspectives, but also from the human perspective. Change recipients need to acknowledge that ongoing change can be overly demanding and that they will need

appropriate emotion management skills and organisational support to deal with it. The impact of separate and combined temporal dimensions of change can tax people severely and these effects can be exacerbated by perceptions of injustice, inappropriate leadership styles and lack of perceived organisational support.

Research Question 3a: How do aspects of frequency, speed and timing of change mediate cognitive evaluations of the change?

Research Question 3b: What affective responses occur as a result of these evaluations?

Perceived Justice of the Change

Employees' cognitive and affective responses to change are tempered by their perceptions of fairness (for an overview of research see Bernerth, Armenakis, Field and Walker, 2007). The tangled roots of organisational justice lie in the fields of religion, ethics, politics, philosophy, sociology, psychology, management and organisational behaviour. It is surprising, as Bies and Tripp (2002) point out, that the role of emotion has been ignored in much of the research despite its ubiquitous appearance. "The sense of injustice...the anger, the bitterness, the fears, the helplessness. These are emotions that all people have experienced on the job, some more frequently than others and some more intensely than others" (p. 204).

One way in which people try to make sense of events (including change) is by analysing how fair they are (Brockner, 2002). Perceptions of justice are usually subjective, and depend on personal experience, values and personality (Brennan & Skarlicki, 2004). The view has also been expressed that justice is a socially constructed concept (Tyler & Bies, 1991; Lamertz, 2002; Colquitt, Yee Ng, Wesson & Porter, 2001), in that people's views are based on a variety of environmental forces. Harris (2006), for example, suggests that the broad concept of inequality is socially determined. Justice perceptions often differ from one ethnic or national setting to another and in organisational contexts problems could occur if standards required in one organisational setting are applied to another (Greenberg, 2001a). Taken a step further, even within a culturally homogenous workforce, employees' perceptions of organisational justice partly depend on what their colleagues and managers think. Lamertz (2002) surveyed people in an organisation that had experienced considerable reorganisation and downsizing and found that they made sense of the change through justice judgements that partly depended on those expressed by their peers and partly on

the quality of the relationships they had with management. The ways in which management communicates information about decisions (Tyler & Bies, 1991), for example, about the need for an upcoming change, becomes part of the discourse about change and helps shape employee opinions about fairness.

The considerable body of research into organisational justice has identified elements that are both distinct and overlapping and there is considerable debate about taxonomies of justice (for overviews see Greenberg, 1987, 1990, 1993; Konovsky, 2000; Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001).

Distributive justice refers to the fairness of outcomes (Homans, 1961; Adams, 1965; Deutsch, 1975). As an application of equity theory (Adams, 1965), for example, people compare the effort they put into their work with the outcomes they receive, and they also compare their efforts and outcomes to those of others. A fair outcome can also be considered to be a new procedure - the outcome of a change to a remuneration system can be a form of 360-degree feedback and a new disciplinary procedure could include staff representation. It is interesting to note that people tend to view favourable outcomes as fair and unfavourable outcomes as unfair (Adams, 1965; Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996).

Procedural justice relates to perceptions of the fairness by which the decisions are made that lead to the outcomes (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Leventhal (1980) proposed that fair procedures are consistent, unbiased, correctable, representative of all groups, ethical, and based on accurate information. Perceptions of fairness are enhanced when employees are given information and 'voice' or participation in decision-making (Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Konovsky, 2000; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Connell & Waring, 2002; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Meyer & Stensaker, 2006). 'Voice' is one of the means suggested by Tyler and Lind (1992) of developing employees' perceptions of procedural justice. Reasonable explanations or justifications for a change develop perceptions of informational and interpersonal justice (Cobb et al., 1995) and mitigate resistance to change (Lines, 2004).

Procedural justice was later differentiated from interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies, 2001, 2005; Tyler & Bies, 1990), which is manifested in the ways in which managers communicate both outcomes and procedures to staff (Novelli, Kirkman & Shapiro, 1998). Interactional justice has been further sub-divided into interpersonal justice (the politeness, respect and dignity with which people are treated) and informational justice (the accuracy, fullness and timing of the information given

(Greenberg, 1993; Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt, et al., 2001). Two of the respondents in Bryant's (2006, p. 252) study of change complained, "We were sort of kept in the dark like mushrooms" and "I was told nothing. My work unit was told nothing." Cobb et al. (1995) indicate that the 'accounts' or explanations given for a change play a role in the way in which people see fairness, including apologies when mistakes have been made or expressions of regret when people suffer losses. Informational and interpersonal justice can meld into each other. For example, Bryant's (2006, p. 253) interviewees reported that when they asked for explanations about the future of their jobs, managers "either said they didn't know or became abusive" and "would brush you off."

The debate on the precise number of discrete types of organisational justice has crystallised it into four main categories - distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational (Colquitt, 2001) - but various researchers still use the term interactional justice instead of informational and interpersonal (e.g. Barclay, Skarlicki & Pugh, 2005; Bernerth et al. 2007). A fifth type, systemic justice (Sheppard, Lewicki & Minton, 1992; Harlos & Pinder, 2000; Beugré & Baron, 2001), is an overarching term for the perceived fairness of a wide variety of practices over time, and is a facet of the organisational culture or sub-culture.

Positive outcomes of employee perceptions of justice include self-esteem (De Cremer, 2003; Schroth & Shah, 2000), job satisfaction (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Van den Bos, Vermunt & Wilke, 1997), morale (Paterson & Cary, 2002), attendance (De Boer, Bakker, Syroit & Schaufeli, 2002), commitment (Witt, Kacmar & Andrews, 2001; Fedor et al., 2006; Naumann, Benett, Bies & Martin, 1998), increased trust (Brockner et al., 1997; Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Ambrose & Schminke, 2003), organisational citizenship behaviours (Wayne, Shore, Bomner & Tetrick, 2002; Skarlicki & Latham, 1997; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Masterson et al., 2000; Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, 1998) and a related construct, taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Moon et al., 2008), co-operation (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002), performance (Williams, 1999; Masterson et al., 2000), customer service (Masterson, 2001) and, notably for this thesis, acceptance of change (Cobb et al., 1995; Daly & Geyer, 1994; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Fedor et al., 2006; Masterson et al., 2000).

Conversely, perceived injustice has been linked to cynicism (Bernerth et al., 2007; Wanberg & Banas, 2000; Wanous et al., 2000), turnover (Daly & Geyer, 1994; Fedor et al., 2006), conflict (Rahim, 2000), revenge and retaliation (Aquino, Tripp &

Bies, 2001; Bies & Tripp, 2001; Folger & Skarlicki, 1999; Skarlicki, et al., 1999; Barclay et al., 2005), violence (Bensimon, 1994), stress (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001); theft (Greenberg, 1990), counter-productive work behaviours (Fox et al., 2001), and resistance to change (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Barclay et al., 2005; Fedor et al., 2006; Bernerth et al., 2007).

Where change is considered unfair it will result in negative consequences. For example, Bernerth et al. (2007) found in an empirical study that perceived distributive, procedural and interactional justice combined to produce cynicism and lack of commitment to change. In the context of a specific event, such as an organisational change, employees may view developments against the backdrop of historical practices including previous change initiatives. Unfair outcomes have been perceived in diverse changes such as relocations (e.g. Daly & Geyer, 1994), mergers (Kiefer, 2002b; Fugate et al., 2002; Schweiger & Denisi, 1996) or downsizing (Paterson & Cary, 2002; Paterson & Härtel, 2002; Barclay et al., 2005). Fedor et al. (2006) found that employees who believed they needed to shoulder a disproportionate burden in the process of adaptation to change considered it unfair and Cobb et al. (1995) indicate that people detect unfairness when executives get better rewards while employees lose out (see Ward, 2006, for an example).

Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) found that employees tend to first focus on the unfavourability of outcomes before judging that this is distributive injustice. They then seek explanations for this negative situation by querying the procedures that caused it. They concluded that perceptions of distributive injustice can be mitigated by perceptions of procedural justice. Favourable outcomes tend not to produce the same type of cognitive processes - when people get a favourable outcome they are pleased but seldom query the procedures.

Perceptions of procedural, informational and interpersonal injustice are likely if the procedures used to make changes are perceived as unfair, such as those based on favouritism, if little information is given on the nature of the purpose of change and the basis for the decision, and if the communication about the change is handled in an insensitive manner. Procedural justice seems more focused on organisational approaches whereas interpersonal justice is more strongly related to perceptions of the behaviour of a particular leader (Barclay et al., 2005).

While perceptions of each form of justice have their own distinctive impact (Paterson & Cary, 2002; Matheny & Smollan, 2005; Reb, Goldman, Kray &

Cropanzano, 2006), Fairness Heuristic Theory (Lind, 2001; Van den Bos, et al., 1997) suggests that although people can perceive both justice and injustice with respect to various aspects of the event or issue, they tend to take a holistic view when making overall fairness judgements. Van den Bos et al. (1997) found that when information was provided early in the implementation of a decision it led to more positive perceptions of organisational justice than if it was provided later. An empirical study by Beugré and Baron (2001) included specific measures of systemic justice, for example, *Overall decisions in this company are fair*, and *The culture of this company encourages fairness*, and concluded that procedural and interactional justice serve as stronger heuristics of systemic justice than distributive justice.

While perceptions of one form of justice can ameliorate perceptions of another form of injustice (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996), so too can one form of injustice exacerbate another. Hughes (2000, p. 262) interviewed survivors of redundancy in an organisation who perceived distributive injustice (reduced remuneration and status), informational injustice (hearing of redundancies through the press first), and particularly interpersonal injustice at the hands of a senior manager, for whom “overt expressions of distress were perceived as self-pity” and whose remarks were viewed as “infuriating and demoralizing”.

Perceptions of all forms of justice therefore need to be addressed in the context of organisational change. Consider for example a case of downsizing, such as the one described by Hughes (2000). Employees who are affected, either as victims or survivors will require information about outcomes, such as who is to be made redundant and what compensation and other forms of support will be provided to them (Brockner, 1992; Cascio, 1993). They will be equally interested in what processes will be used in determining numbers and the criteria for layoffs (Brockner, 1992; Ryan & Macky, 1998). Informational justice is therefore related to both distributive and procedural justice. Similarly, sensitive treatment meted out to both victims and survivors would be demonstrated in terms of both outcomes and processes (Brockner, 1992; Nauman et al., 1998). Folger and Skarlicki (1998) discovered in an experimental design that the termination interview was handled by managers as briefly as possible, which can be construed as interpersonal and/or informational injustice. Barclay et al. (2005) indicate that taking time to give information about downsizing is indicative of both. The role of change managers who have to implement downsizing is seldom studied. Gandolfi (2008, p. 297) found in a study of a bank downsizing that some managers “felt

dishonest, anxious, upset, and uncomfortable when pursuing their executioners' responsibilities." Many were aware of the emotions of the victims but sought to distance themselves physically and emotionally as a defence mechanism.

Perceptions of justice can lead to positive emotions, such as pride or happiness (Weiss, Suckow & Cropanzano, 1999). Perceptions of injustice will lead to more intense negative emotions. Homans (1961) and Adams (1965) both commented on anger as an outcome of distributive injustice and Homans (1961) also noted guilt occurring when people feel they have been unfairly advantaged.

Cropanzano et al. (2000) applied Lazarus' (1991) cognitive appraisal theory to procedural justice. They suggested that when people appraise an event as procedurally unfair they first think about the consequences for themselves, then through secondary appraisal, emotions arise, particularly when attributions are made about who was responsible for the procedure and the outcome. They hypothesised that feelings of pride occur when one obtains a favourable outcome despite an unfair procedure or guilt because of it. Similarly, anger results from an unfavourable outcome delivered through a procedure that favoured oneself, and sadness when one obtained an unfavourable outcome, despite a procedure weighted in one's favour. Two laboratory experiments confirmed three of the four hypotheses but the researchers were puzzled when feelings of pride occurred in one scenario but not in the other.

Referring to informational and interpersonal justice, Bies (2005, p. 100) believes that "people possess a view of the self as 'sacred' and a violation of that sacred self is personal and painful, resulting in an emotionally intense experience." Respondents of Bies and Tripp (2002) used words such as pain, hate, anger and rage as reactions to injustice. Mikula, Scherer and Athenstaedt's (1998) study of injustice across 37 countries found the most reported emotions to be anger and disgust, followed by sadness, fear, guilt and shame. However, responses in this study were not necessarily based on organisational triggers. In experiments testing the combined effects of distributive, procedural and interactional justice, Stecher and Rosse (2005) found that negative emotions correlated with distributive and interactional justice but not procedural justice.

While a number of studies have explored the intersection of organisational change and justice, change and emotions, and emotions and justice, only a few have sought to investigate all three simultaneously. Downsizing has been the context in a number of them. Armstrong-Stassen (1998) found survivors of downsizing experienced

negative emotions related to distributive and procedural injustice, the latter including informational injustice. Paterson and Härtel's (2002) conceptual model of downsizing proposes that perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional injustice lead to negative emotions in employees (victims and survivors). Paterson and Cary (2002) surveyed survivors and victims of downsizing (with the latter given a considerable three years notice) and found that although both groups experienced anxiety, perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice enhanced acceptance of change. One of the interesting findings of Barclay et al.'s (2005) research study was that even if personal outcomes were favourable, procedural and interactional injustice elicited high levels of negative emotion (anger and hostility). Brennan and Skarlicki (2004) found a complex pattern of results in the relationship between dispositional variables and downsizing. Counter to predictions, survivors who were low on 'angry hostility' were more prone to perceptions of interactional injustice, possibly because they were unused to negative organisational outcomes and unfair treatment and therefore reacted more strongly than expected to the stress of downsizing. Brotheridge's (2003) survey of people experiencing change found that perceptions of distributive and procedural fairness reduced emotional exhaustion. Employees who participate in change processes are more likely to show fewer negative emotions, increased trust in management, and greater intentions to remain (Korsgaard, Sapienza & Schweiger, 2002; Brotheridge, 2003).

Matheny and Smollan (2005) surveyed masters' students who had experienced various forms of change and found significant correlations between emotions and distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. Of note was the observation that when people focus on the justice of change (particularly distributive and interpersonal), negative emotions arise, but when the focus is on outcomes, there is a stronger association with positive emotions. Qualitative studies on the three interrelated constructs do not appear to have been done.

Changes to the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999) can also produce a sense of justice or injustice and strong emotional reactions. The psychological contract, an employee perception of mutual obligations of employer and employee, is a distinct construct to that of organisational justice but there are considerable overlaps (Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001; Korsgaard et al., 2002; Pate, Martin & McGoldrick, 2003; Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005). Breaches (which are inadvertent or beyond the control of management) and

violations (which are seen as deliberate) lead to various negative behavioural responses, such as intentions to quit, neglect and a decrease in Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Kickul et al., 2002). Violation leads to much stronger negative emotions (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Conway & Briner, 2004) and emotional exhaustion (Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003). Change to the psychological contract can simply affect one individual in a micro change scenario (e.g. a promised promotion or office move that was not actioned). Often it is an organisational change on a wider level where employees, including managers, perceive that the balance of obligations between employer and employee has been unfairly upset by management (Brooks & Harfield, 2000; Lester & Kickul, 2001). A survey conducted by Kickul (2001) revealed that employees who perceived that their organisations had not fulfilled obligations were angry, frustrated, hostile and disappointed, particularly with regard to high levels of procedural and interactional injustice.

In summary, all forms of justice, separately and in combination, can potentially play a part in an employee's beliefs and feelings about an organisational change. These reactions will depend partly on how much they trust organisational leaders to act fairly. This will be dealt with in detail in Research Question 11. People's previous experience of the fairness of change (see Research Question 7) also underpins their faith in the fairness of an announced change (Brotheridge, 2003) and reduces cynicism. Where people are engaged in the process of decision-making in a genuine way they feel they are able to exert more control over the delivery of fair outcomes (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), and this element is often a key factor in reactions to change. It should also be noted that while the injustice of a change can evoke negative emotions that undermine the change, it is conceivable that the implementation of a current change could be dogged by the negative emotions from what is perceived as an unfair (but unrelated) issue or incident *before or during* the change.

Research Question 4a: How do perceptions of organisational justice mediate cognitive evaluations of the change?

Research Question 4b: What affective responses occur as a result of these evaluations?

This section of the development of the model has looked at four factors within the change itself. An employee at any level views the change through the mediating lens of favourability of outcomes and its scale, temporal dimensions and fairness. These

perceptions trigger emotional and behavioural responses. One set of factors that moderate these cognitions, feelings and actions relates to how the employee perceives aspects of the leaders, managers and consultants of change.

Variables within the Employee's Perception of Change Leaders, Managers and Agents that Moderate Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Responses to Change

There are a number of variables that moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. Some of the moderators lie within the individual - emotional intelligence, disposition, previous experience of change and change and stress outside the workplace.

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

An in-depth review of EI was provided in an earlier section, including an analysis of how its different abilities can contribute to adaptation to organisational change. The two main themes that emerged were the competition between models of EI (e.g. Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Bar-On, 1997) and the criticism that EI is not a construct that offers anything different above existing knowledge of personality or cognitive ability (e.g. Landy, 2005).

Different models of emotional intelligence have focused on EI as ability (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and on EI as a combination of ability, disposition and other individual variables (Goleman, 1998; Bar-On, 1997; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000). Despite some perceived weaknesses (Davies et al. 1998; Roberts et al., 2001; McEnrue & Groves, 2006), the weight of academic support for the Mayer and Salovey ability model is overwhelming (e.g. Schutte et al., 1998; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Conte, 2005; Jordan, 2005; McEnrue & Groves, 2006). While the impact of disposition will be addressed in more detail in the next research question, it should be emphasised here that there has been considerable debate about the similarities and differences between personality variables and EI. From conducting empirical studies Law et al. (2004) and Vakola et al. (2004) concluded that personality and EI are distinct but related concepts. Some researchers are nevertheless convinced that there is considerable overlap between the constructs (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004; Van der Zee & Verbeke, 2004). Another stream of research argues that trait EI is separate from other personality variables and ability measures of EI, and empirical studies have tested for similarities or differences between EI and dispositional measures (Petrides & Furnham, 2003; Perez et al. 2005; Tett et al., 2005). Since EI and personality both

contribute to reactions to organisational change I will focus on the ability EI variables in this research question and leave discussion of disposition to the next research question.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) maintain that EI has four different levels or branches: perception of appraisal and expression of emotion, emotional facilitation of thinking, understanding and analysing emotions, employing emotional knowledge, reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Given that there are 16 abilities detailed in the model and four types of change player have been identified, applying all of them to organisational change lies outside the scope of this thesis. In the earlier part of the literature review and in a previous conference paper (Smollan, 2006a) I explored how several of these abilities could help various change players perceive, understand and manage emotions. In essence, during organisational change employees who are high in EI are able to discern and control the feelings they experience (Jordan, 2005; Paterson & Härtel, 2002). They will be aware of the potential impact of their behaviour on their peers, subordinates and managers and moderate their words and actions. They will also be cognisant of the emotional reactions of others to change and respond appropriately. Cognitive processes help people make sense of the change and their own emotional reactions (George & Jones, 2001; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004; Jordan, 2005; Clair & Dufresne, 2004), and the two promote or constrain change-related behaviour.

The content and context of the change are always relevant factors (Holt et al., 2007), and employees' abilities to deal with a range of positive and negative outcomes will be investigated. For example, Jordan et al. (2002a) propose that employees with high EI are able to cognitively and affectively process issues pertaining to job insecurity, and devise appropriate coping strategies. Paterson and Härtel's (2002) model indicates EI enables victims and survivors to cope with downsizing by developing effective coping mechanisms. Clair and Dufresne (2004) and Gandolfi (2008) reveal how managers of downsizing have to contend with the powerful negative emotions of victims and simultaneously deal with their own emotions of guilt and anxiety. Effective coping can be a combination of emotion-focused strategies (for example, distancing, using positive self-talk about coping with change), and problem-focused strategies (such as expressing concerns about the type or process of change being contemplated) (Lazarus & Folkman, 1988; Hendry & Woodward, 2004; Clair & Dufresne, 2004; Gandolfi, 2008). Studies of mergers (Kiefer, 2005; Fugate et al., 2001) provide evidence of winners and losers and EI helps employees label, understand and deal with the

positive and negative emotions that arise. Cunningham (2006) found that affective commitment to a change helped people cope with change. Yet people high in EI should be able to regulate the negative affective commitment they may feel. Vakola et al. (2004) reported that EI was correlated with positive responses to organisational change.

It should be emphasised again that there are few quantitative studies of the impact of EI on organisational change and apparently no qualitative studies. Therefore, the present study should provide a rich vein of information worth mining.

Research Question 5: How does employee emotional intelligence moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change?

Disposition

It is commonly believed by lay people that the way in which employees respond to organisational change is directly related to disposition (Wanous et al., 2000; Bareil et al., 2007) and a plethora of labels has been presented to capture these traits. Watson and Clark (1997) specifically identified a predilection for change in various facets of life as representative of people with high positive affectivity, a characteristic which will also be found in organisational contexts (Spector & Fox, 2002).

Emotion words are often used to describe aspects of one's personality, such as gloomy, resentful and calm (Plutchik, 1994). In an earlier section in this literature review the intersecting constructs of mood and personality were discussed. The circumplex models of Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999), Watson et al. (1988) and Larsen et al. (2002), presented in Figure 1, deal with trait and state mood. In particular, Watson et al. have considered positive and negative affectivity to be dispositional characteristics.

Researchers have used three related concepts, sometimes interchangeably: personality, temperament and disposition (Hofstee, 1994). Personality is considered to be "the most important ways in which people differ in their enduring emotional, interpersonal, experiential and motivational styles" (McRae & John, 1992, p. 175). Temperament is regarded as having a stronger biological basis and therefore less amenable to change (Bates, 2000; Elias, 1990). Dispositions, according to House et al., 1996, p. 205) are:

psychological, as opposed to physical or other objectively assessed characteristics of individuals - personality characteristics, need states, attitudes, preferences and motives... Dispositions are generally viewed as tendencies to respond to situations, or classes of situations, in a particularly predetermined manner...

The concept of trait emotional intelligence, referred to in the previous research question, identifies a number of personality characteristics such as optimism, self-efficacy, assertiveness and flexibility (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004). One overlap between trait and ability models of EI is in the concept of empathy (Rogers, 1975; Lazarus, 1999; Humphrey, 2002). Change leaders and managers who are high in empathy will better anticipate how staff will react to change on cognitive, behavioural, and importantly, affective levels, and be able to address these reactions. Colleagues with empathy are also able to provide support.

Whereas Cattell (1956) identified 16 separate traits, Eysenck (1991) listed three superordinate traits - extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism - with all others subsumed under one of these headings. The most widely used model of personality is the Five Factor model, also known as the Big Five, which maintains that all traits can be categorised into one of the five factors (Digman, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1987; McCrae & John, 1992). This has been well supported in the empirical literature, including studies in the organisational domain (e.g. Vakola et al., 2004; Van Rooy & Wisvesveran, 2004; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Moy & Lam, 2004).

Each of the five items can be used to explore patterns of behaviour with respect to organisational change. The first, openness to experience, is a concept that virtually defines adaptation to change. The second, extraversion, allows people to make their views of change known and possibly gain useful influence. The third and fourth, agreeableness and conscientiousness, indicate that people will likely demonstrate goodwill in accepting change and perform at their best in making it successful. People with the last trait, neuroticism, are likely to experience anxiety and stress over change.

The Big Five model has been tested empirically in the context of change by Vakola et al. (2004), who found positive correlations between acceptance of change and extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness and agreeableness, and a negative relationship with neuroticism. Brennan and Skarlicki (2004) found that two factors in particular, conscientiousness and agreeableness, the latter conceptualised more specifically as 'angry hostility', to be contributing factors to the way survivors of downsizing continued to perform. Moon et al. (2008) found in two studies that conscientiousness predicted 'taking charge' (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), which is partially concerned with initiating change.

While proponents of the Big Five model explicitly state that it contains all

personality characteristics (e.g. Digman, 1990; McCrae & John, 1992; Barrick & Mount, 1991), a number of empirical studies have focused on discrete dispositional factors. In developing and testing a scale to measure dispositional reactions to change, Oreg (2003) found four major relevant personality factors: need for routine, emotional responsiveness, short-term focus on outcomes, and cognitive rigidity. In a number of empirical studies he found that disposition predicted reaction to change, regardless of context. Testing a later model he found disposition (as well as a range of contextual factors) to be an antecedent of cognitive, affective and behavioural resistance to change (Oreg, 2006). Kruglanski et al. (2007) demonstrated that the need for closure and a predilection for locomotion (a propensity for action) are additional personality traits that influence ability to cope with change. Resilience (Wanberg & Banas, 2000) and hardiness (Cole et al., 2006) are traits that help people deal with difficult situations arising from change or recover from them.

In a study of managers Judge et al. (1999) found seven personality factors predicted reactions to change, which they grouped into two main categories. Positive self-concept included locus of control (Rotter, 1980), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), self-esteem and positive affectivity, while risk tolerance included openness to experience, tolerance of ambiguity and risk aversion. In particular, tolerance for ambiguity and positive affectivity were strongly correlated with self-reported ability to deal with change. Wanberg and Banas (2000) revealed that self-esteem, optimism and perceived control were related to acceptance of change. A number of researchers have reported self-efficacy, and more specifically change self-efficacy, to be a significant variable in determining responses to organisational change (Jimmieson et al., 2004; Herold, et al., 2007; Holt et al., 2007). Lau and Woodman (1995) found a significant relationship between locus of control on the formation of change schemata but little impact of dogmatism. Rudisill and Edwards (2002) note that self-efficacy and locus of control play a part in determining how employees react to being laid off, but maintain that limited research has been done. Locus of control with respect to a specific change has also been researched by Chen and Wang (2006). They reported that people with a high internal locus of control believe they can exert some influence over change and therefore can cope with it better. Using Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) model of commitment to change, they found that high internals commit to a change because they believe in the change or think they should support it. High externals do so because of the costs of failing to comply. Chen and Wang (2006) accept that under certain

conditions high internals will resist change, for example, if they are unable to influence a change which brings negative consequences. Of all the traits mentioned, two in particular, locus of control and change self-efficacy, appear most frequently in the above literature sources.

Of particular relevance is the literature on dispositional cynicism, which was referred to earlier in the literature review (e.g. Wanberg & Banas, 2000; Wanous et al., 2000), since it “results in anger, bitterness, resentment and manipulation” (Abraham, 2000, p. 271) - and resistance to organisational change (Stanley et al., 2005, Abraham, 2000; Reichers, Wanous & Austin, 1997; Wanous et al., 2000).

It should be emphasised that while personality can play a key role in adaptation to change, other variables may be more influential for some people, or some types of change. For example a person who is high in neuroticism, and therefore possibly predisposed against change, is likely to react positively to an organisational change that lowers stress levels. Similarly, even those who show significant levels of agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience will probably resist a change that is clearly unfavourable and unjust (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004; Bareil et al., 2007). In one recent study Bareil et al. (2007) found dispositional discomfort with change to be dominant factor in 23 per cent of their sample with the balance primarily affected by situational factors, such as espoused reasons for change and perceived impact on workload, organisational effectiveness and customers. Kruglanski et al. (2007) found that organisational climate, specifically one geared to change, also played a significant role. Oreg (2006) reported a range of non-dispositional variables within the individual and organisation that contributed to responses to change.

The focus of employee disposition has been on recipients or managers of change. When people initiate change themselves they will naturally be supportive of it since they have ‘psychological ownership’ of the change (Dirks et al., 1996). Thus even if people have a predilection to avoid or resist change, they may think, feel and behave differently when they conceive of and lead a change. According to Caldwell (2003) change leaders are high in creativity, integrity, risk taking, adaptability and openness to new ideas. On the emotional front they tend to be excited, enthusiastic, passionate and hopeful about the change they are leading, but need to address the frustration, anxiety and disappointment that may accompany various stages (Huy, 2002; Day, 2004).

Regardless of the role one has in an organisational change, the key issue is how personality characteristics combine with other individual differences and situational

factors to produce reactions to change. Given that personality is a relatively stable pattern of behaviour (Digman, 1990), to what extent can it be influenced by environmental factors such as the employee's previous experience of change?

Research Question 6: How does employee disposition moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change?

Previous Experience of Change

Frequency of change was identified in Research Question 3 as a possible source of negative perceptions since it can place demands on a person's coping resources (Huy, 2002; Kiefer, 2005; Woodward & Hendry, 2004). People make sense of change by reviewing past experience (Cameron, 2006). This forms part of the schema of change they have developed, and serves as a frame of reference for interpreting the change at hand (George & Jones, 2001). For example, Lau and Woodman (1995) found that one negative outcome of change was a belief that organisational change leads to more work. The term restructuring may be synonymous with downsizing to some people.

Previous experience of change has the potential of producing two opposing responses to a newly announced change. An employee who has previously experienced a positive change, or who has coped well with a negative change, may respond positively (Meyer & Stensaker, 2006), particularly if they have the dispositional qualities of change resilience, self-efficacy and locus of control (Cole et al., 2007; Jimmieson et al., 2004; Holt et al., 2007). Clair and Dufresne (2004) and Gandolfi (2008) reported that some managers of downsizing regarded themselves as veterans of the process and had developed effective coping mechanisms, such as distancing and simply getting on with the job, distasteful as it was. On the other hand, employees with negative experiences might view the upcoming change with unease. Perceived organisational support also plays a role. Self et al. (2007) reported on an organisation that had experienced one major downsizing per year over a decade and found that people found it easier to adapt when there was good communication, good relationships with leaders and a supportive environment. Research by Collette et al. (2006) revealed that a poorly managed change was recalled by staff more than a decade later. The assumption of these researchers, that regular change may predispose people to cope with a new change, was not borne out in their study of the introduction of a new technology. This lends weight to the view that the context of the change, the outcome of the change, the process of change, the effort required for successful adaptation, and

disposition all contribute (together with the other factors referred in my model) to a person's cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to an added change.

The quaint acronym, the BOHICA Syndrome, 'bend over, here it comes again', was referred to by participants in Connell and Waring's (2002) longitudinal study of organisational change. Kan and Parry (2004, p. 469) quote from an internal report of one organisation that staff were "bruised from the changes in the past." Past failures in organisational change breed cynicism, which, according to Wanous et al. (2000), becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. In this context the employees are pessimistic about outcomes (Connell & Waring, 2002), attribute blame to management (Wanous et al., 2000), and their lack of commitment can undermine the changes (Abraham, 2000; Connell & Waring, 2002). However, Stanley et al. (2005) found that cynicism about a specific organisational change to be a better predictor of resistance than a more general organisational change cynicism. It should also be noted that even if previous initiatives have been successful, frequent changes will trigger negative reactions as they place severe demands on people's ability to cope (Kiefer, 2005; Rahe et al., 2000).

Research Question 7: How do employees' previous experiences of change moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change?

Change and Stress outside the Workplace

An organisational change impacts on one part of an employee's life. The manner in which an employee reacts to the change depends on the broader context of his/her life. The Holmes-Rahe Social Readjustment Rating scale (Holmes-Rahe 1967), and other instruments that followed, have over the years demonstrated high correlations between recent life changes and negative physical and psychological symptoms (Rahe et al., 2000). Research into stress and family-work balance indicates the difficulty of separating emotional reactions to factors outside of work from those generated at work (Wharton & Erickson, 1993; Harris, 2002; Montgomery, Panagopolou, de Wildt & Meenks, 2006). Brotheridge and Lee (2005) and Haar (2006) point to the consequences of family issues interfering with work issues, and found that home stress to some extent predicts job-related stress.

An individual faced with a major change outside of work, or a number of minor changes, or any stress-creating factor, may react negatively - on cognitive, affective and behavioural levels - to an organisational change that by itself may not have evoked any negative reactions. Any stress-inducing issue outside of work can trigger negative

responses to change at work, as employees' coping resources are depleted (Lawrence, 2006). Latack (1986) suggests that people who face stress outside of work are likely to use escape rather than control strategies when dealing with stress at work. In Woodward and Hendry's (2004) survey of organisational change 86 per cent of respondents reported that deliberately separating work from home helped them cope. Employee disposition is a related factor - those with higher resilience are better able to cope with additional demands (Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

The culture of the organisation can make an impact on both the experience and expression of emotion, both at work and outside of it. A study of The Body Shop (Martin et al., 1998) revealed an organisation where emotional expressiveness was considered normal - whether it related to issues inside or outside the workplace. Bacharach et al. (1996) reported that airline employees' abilities to deal with organisational change were affected by conditions peculiar to that industry, such as shift work and being away from home for several days at a time. Changes in non-work relationships were the outcomes of work changes and coping with both work and non-work demands affected employee wellbeing. However, there appears to be little other literature on how changes, or other potentially stress-inducing events or issues from outside the work environment, affect an employee's cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to an organisational change.

Research Question 8: In what ways are employees' cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change moderated by changes and any stress-producing event outside of work?

Four factors that relate to individual attributes and circumstances have been presented that moderate how an employee responds to change on a cognitive, affective and behavioural level. The next group of factors deals with how the employee perceives elements of the change leaders, managers and agents.

Variables within the Employee's Perception of Change Leaders, Managers and Agents that Moderate Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Responses to Change

Three potentially overlapping variables will be discussed in this section: employee perceptions of the leader's ability, emotional intelligence (EI) and trustworthiness. Two or more levels of management may be involved in leading and managing organisational change, including an employee's immediate supervisor, and various change agents may also be involved. Even those leading and managing change often have senior executives

or board members whom they report to, and their views of the roles these people play can be relevant to the way they deal with the change. The perceptions of an employee of the actions of these stakeholders will produce different evaluations and different emotional and behavioural reactions, but the more personal relationship between employee and manager might be the most influential. Another possibility is that people make blanket judgements of those above them. Since Lind (2001) proposes that people use a heuristic approach in developing an overall perception of organisational justice, it is plausible that they do the same when assessing the abilities and qualities of those designing and implementing change.

The overlapping nature of the three constructs can be confusing, especially since all have been viewed by various authors as a combination of ability and personality. It is therefore important to signal that in Research Question 9 the emphasis is on the perceived abilities of change leaders, managers and agents to lead and manage change; in Research Question 10 the focus is on leader EI and in Research Question 11 the emphasis is on perceived trustworthiness in the form of the dispositional quality of integrity. Two of the topics, leadership and EI, have been analysed in some depth elsewhere in the literature and the main points will be summarised in Research Questions 9 and 10.

Perceived Leadership Ability of Change Leaders, Managers and Agents

The relationship between leadership, emotion and change was highlighted earlier in the literature review on the nature of change players (e.g. Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kotter & Cohen, 2004; Conger & Kanungo, 1998). There are multiple definitions of leadership (see Yukl, 2006, for an overview) which is essentially a process of influencing others to achieve common objectives, although it is often driven by the determination of the leaders to achieve their own objectives (Grint, 2005; Buchanan & Badham, 2008). Leadership has been considered to involve the exercise of power and influence through a variety of means, such as by control of resources, the application of reward and punishment mechanisms, or the use of authority, expertise or charisma (French & Raven, 1962). It has been thought by some to be different to management in that leadership is about creating change while management is about maintaining stability (Kotter, 1996; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kan & Parry, 2004).

Staff who are facing change assess the ability of leaders to manage the various aspects of their roles, and specifically their ability to lead and implement change. Tubbs

and Schulz (2005) developed a taxonomy of leadership abilities, two of which relate to innovation and change. Higgs and Rowland (2002) list eight clusters of change management competencies that include abilities in initiation, leadership, facilitation and execution. Caldwell (2003) separated change leadership competencies (such as the ability to inspire a vision) from change management competencies (including empowering others and managing resistance) but admitted there was an overlap. Trait theories of leadership identify personality as a central feature of the power that is vested in leaders (Grint, 2005).

Leadership has also been researched within a social constructionist paradigm. Meindl (1995) maintains that the true nature of a leader's personality should not be the most important aspect. Rather it is the way in which the leader's personality has been constructed by the followers, through personal experience and multiple discourses, which should be the main line of investigation. Charismatic leadership is a phenomenon not merely of the leader and individual follower but also of collective followership, and has a strong element of emotional contagion to it (Wasielewski, 1985). Grint (2005, p. 1492) suggests that since followers often construct reality, and problems associated with it, in different ways to leaders, relationships between leaders and followers involve "competition between different accounts, between different interests and between different decision-makers."

Two major types of leadership have been strongly associated with organisational change, transformational leadership and charismatic leadership, and both to some extent involve the use of emotion (Yukl, 1999; Wasielewski, 1985; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Humphrey, 2002; Johnson, 2008). Transformational leadership aims to influence followers through idealised influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass, 1999). Empirical studies have demonstrated the relationship between transformational leadership and adaptation to different types of organisational change (Kan & Parry, 2004; Eyal & Kark, 2004; Bommer et al., 2005; Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Wu, Neubert & Yi, 2007). The nature of the external environment often plays an important role. Hmieleski and Ensley (2007), for example, demonstrated in their study of start ups that transformational leadership is particularly effective in less stable contexts. Charisma is one element of transformational leadership and the literature on the more narrowly focused construct of charismatic leadership has explored its conceptual basis (Wasielewski, 1985; Fiol, Harris & House, 1999) and empirically demonstrated its effects on follower

performance (Conger et al., 2000). However, there is little empirical evidence (outside of the transformational leadership literature) of its impact on organisational change.

While there are many other types of leadership, successful change managers have to adopt styles that engage followers (Huy, 2001). One style in particular - the participative - has contributed to perceptions of procedural justice (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Tyler & Lind, 1992; De Cremer, 2003, Van den Bos, et al., 1997; Lines, 2004) and trustworthiness (Tyler & Lind, 1992; Lines, 2004). It has also been considered a means of obtaining commitment of followers and overcoming resistance to change (Coch & French, 1948; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Chawla & Kelloway, 2004; Lines, 2004; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004; Meyer & Stensaker, 2006; Handy, 1985; Covey, 1991; Schein, 2004). Senge (1990, p. 217) puts it simply, "Involvement is the key to implementing change and increasing commitment. We tend to be more interested in our own ideas than in those of others. If we are not involved we are likely to resist change." Harris (2004) documents how a change in leadership style from autocratic to participative helped one school principal to overcome teachers' resistance to change. Szabla (2007) found that leaders who used normative-reeducative styles (involving participation) and those who used rational approaches produced more positive thoughts, feelings and intentions towards change than leaders who used power-coercive tactics. However, it has also been pointed out that participation can delay implementation of change and create resistance if the time required cuts excessively into daily routines (Meyer & Stensaker, 2006).

A key task of leadership is communication. To gain commitment to change leaders need to explain what change will take place, why, when, where, how and who is affected (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Klein, 1996). The value of management communication about organisational change has been shown empirically by Nelissen and Van Selm (2008); Kramer, Dougherty and Pierce (2004) and Daly, Teague and Kitchen (2003). Informing staff about processes and outcomes are both important and Van den Bos et al. (2003) demonstrated that where process information is given first, people are more likely to perceive fairness. Communication also involves the willingness to listen to other points of view and confirms the importance of participation and consultation. Leader-Member Exchange Theory indicates that leaders choose followers with whom they identify more closely as members of an in-group and engage in closer forms of communication that can be seen as unfair by those in the out-group (Scandura, 1999).

Change leaders, managers and agents may themselves experience change as emotional. Not only do they need to understand their own emotions, they also need to inject emotion into driving change and anticipate and respond to the emotional reactions of others (Fox & Amichai-Hamburger, 2001). Emotional intelligence has been empirically shown to correlate with transformational leadership, including its charismatic elements (e.g. Barling et al., 2000; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003), and will be dealt with in the next research question.

Research Question 9: How are employees' cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change moderated by the perceived leadership ability of the change leaders, managers and agents?

Perceived Emotional Intelligence (EI) of Change Leaders, Managers and Agents

The value of EI abilities of change leaders to manage the emotional aspects of change was outlined in detail in an earlier section (Jordan, 2005; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004; Chrusciel, 2006), as was the relationship between EI and transformational leadership (e.g. Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Mandell & Perwani, 2003; Barling et al., 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer et al., 2000; Wong & Law, 2002).

Firstly, change leaders, managers and agents need to inject emotion into communicating the need for change, both positive and negative where relevant. This helps create a shared vision (Jordan, 2005), although this may not always be likely, such as in a redundancy process. Hope and excitement are needed for positive developments, such as the introduction of a new product line, sadness and regret for negative developments, such as downsizing or closing of branches, and anxiety to reduce dangerous complacency (Kotter, 1996; Huy, 2002). Yet emotional expression needs to be perceived as authentic by followers or they will react with cynicism (Ferres & Connell; 2004; Fox & Amichai-Hamburger, 2001; Stanley et al., 2005).

Secondly, people leading and managing change need to be seen as adept in discerning their followers' emotional reactions (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey 2002; Chrusciel, 2006) and providing the necessary support. Employees who perceive helpful responses from their managers, and emotional capability (Huy, 1999) and wider support from their organisations (Naumann et al., 1998; Masterson et al., 1998), will remain more loyal, productive and committed to the change than if they encounter inappropriate responses or neglect. Ozcelik, Langton and Aldrich (2008) found that leaders who create a positive emotional climate are able to produce good outcomes for

their organisations, for example, in terms of increased revenue and market penetration. Sanchez-Burk and Huy (2008) use a photographic metaphor, aperture, to indicate that change leaders and managers need to focus simultaneously on group emotions and individual emotions. Positive and negative emotional contagion (Bartel & Saavedra, 2000) influence responses to change and a dual orientation to groups and individuals is necessary.

Thirdly, change leaders need to be able to control their own emotions, such as fear, anger and frustration, and efficiently manage the 'technical' aspects of the change programme, and their jobs in general, so that they do not lose the respect of their followers. This is particularly helpful when change requires conflict resolution skills (Jordan & Troth, 2002).

It should be noted that followers who are high in EI should be more alert to the EI of their leaders. On the one hand this could make them more appreciative of their leaders' words and actions, but on the other hand, it could make them somewhat more demanding in their expectations than those of followers with lower EI. It could similarly be argued that followers who are more cynical may perceive leaders' responses to them as weak or self-serving.

Research Question 10: How are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses of employees to change moderated by the perceived emotional intelligence of the change leaders, managers and agents?

Perceived Trustworthiness of Change Leaders, Managers and Agents

Perceptions of the trustworthiness of those designing and implementing change will influence employees' responses to change (Oreg, 2006). Trust has been conceptualised as one person's belief in the sincerity, benevolence or truthfulness of another (Gurtman, 1992) and in his/her integrity, competence, consistency/fairness and openness (Clark & Payne, 1997). Since Research Question 9 dealt with perceptions of leader ability, this section will focus on employee perceptions of the integrity and benevolence of their change managers and leaders. Some organisational theorists have separated trust in one's manager from trust in other staff and trust in the organisation itself (Hubbell & Chory-Assad, 2005). People undergoing organisational change will focus on the trustworthiness of various layers of management and this could produce meaningful differences in their reactions to the change.

Trust has dispositional, relational and contextual antecedents. Dispositional trust

has been related to cynicism and has extremes of gullibility and hostility (Gurtman, 1992). Trust in others also depends on their conduct over time, and while it is not easy to gain another's trust, it only takes one action or conversation to violate it. Repairing damaged trust takes time. Context also may be important. For example, an employee perceives that his/her boss has acted dishonestly or has withheld information, but may have been coerced into doing so by more senior management (Gandolfi, 2008).

Trust has cognitive, affective and behavioural components (Clark & Payne, 1997). McAllister (1995) found that cognitive-based interpersonal trust in organisations predicted emotion-based trust, and that there were separate antecedents and consequences. A review of literature by Young and Daniel (2003) reveals the extent to which trust has an emotional basis. Their model identifies the emotions (or affect-laden terms) associated with three aspects of relationships. Relationship-building emotions include interest, admiration, respect and liking; relationship-sustaining emotions are affection, gratitude, security, confidence and acceptance; relationship enjoying emotions consist of appreciation, contentment and satisfaction. These emotions, together with cognitive elements, constitute interpersonal trust. The terms used by Erlangovan and Shapiro (1998), betrayal and violation, have strong affective undertones. Dunn and Schweitzer (2005) conducted a sequence of experiments which revealed, unsurprisingly, that positive emotions led to trust and negative emotions undermined it. They suggest that to enhance perceptions of their own trustworthiness, people need to adapt their behaviour to respond to the emotions of others. This signals the importance of emotional intelligence in developing relationships of trust. Dunn and Schweitzer (2005) observed that people who were aware of their emotions were less likely to let them affect their trust judgements, lending weight to the concept that while one aspect of emotional intelligence allows affect to facilitate thinking, another prevents affect from undermining that thinking (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Trustworthiness is a characteristic of effective leadership. Parry and Proctor-Thompson (2002) discovered that integrity contributes strongly to transformational leadership ability, while Conger et al. (2000) found a similar relationship with charismatic leadership. Druskat and Pescosolido (2005) studied emergent leadership in self-managing work teams and found that emotional competence, particularly the ability to develop interpersonal understanding, increased the perceived trustworthiness of the leaders. Whereas trust has often been researched as a dyadic relationship, Shamir and Lapidot (2003) have shown that notions of trust are often socially constructed by

conversations in groups.

Organisational change is often accompanied by anxiety as to how the change is going to impact on organisational, group and individual levels. A number of empirical studies have shown that employee trust in management's integrity should heighten acceptance of change, or minimise resistance. In a large survey of employees, Morgan and Zeffane (2005) specifically identified structural reorganisation as a major cause of declining trust in management. Kiefer's (2005) study of a merger of companies revealed that decreased trust was strongly predicted by negative emotions. The study by Young and Daniel (2003) revealed the concern of management that lack of trust was a source of resistance to change. Harris (2004) found that teachers distrusted both the ability of other staff to adapt to a change initiative and the benevolence of the principal, who had been seen to introduce change without consultation and without consideration of the views or feelings of the teachers. George and Zhou (2007) found that trust in supervisors, allied to interactional justice, enhanced creativity. Ferres, Connell and Travaglione (2005) researched trust among staff who were redeployed when one hospital closed and they were moved to another. They found that levels of trust in management declined in staff who were redeployed and those who were not. This supports the suggestion made in Research Question 1 that people facing change may consider both their own outcomes and those of others. The authors contend that non-deployed employees not only empathised with their colleagues but also viewed their own future positions with some unease. Curiously, they found that the emotional commitment of the redeployed employees to be higher than that of the others and speculated that it might have been related to perceived higher levels of transformational leadership. However, the people in the redeployed group reported higher levels of turnover intention.

It was noted in the section on organisational justice that perceptions of fairness enhance acceptance of organisational change. Leventhal (1980) and Tyler and Lind (1992) noted trust to be a significant factor in the formation of employee perceptions of procedural justice and that this impacts directly on their choice of behaviour. Brockner et al. (1997) demonstrated empirically that employees' trust in managers derives from perceptions of procedural justice and has a significant impact on their acceptance of changes, particularly when the outcomes are unfavourable. This link was confirmed by Paterson and Cary (2002) in a study on downsizing. Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) propose that if survivors of downsizing do not trust management they will withdraw or

retaliate. Chawla and Kelloway (2004) found trust to be related to procedural and informational justice during a merger. Lind (2001), in particular, suggests that fairness can serve as heuristic for interpersonal trust.

Fairholm and Fairholm (2002) believe that one of the roles of leadership is to develop a culture of trust and that followers are more inclined to trust their leaders if they do not seem to be acting out of self-interest. Their observations, that leader sensitivity to the needs of followers and keeping promises result in trust, highlight the importance of both emotional intelligence and fulfilling psychological contracts, an employee's belief of reciprocal obligations (Rousseau, 1989). In the context of organisational change people need to be able to trust their leaders and breaches and violations of the psychological contract are considered to have negative impact on relational trust (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Ferres et al., 2005). While trust in a leader may have been high in previous situations, it can be damaged by events in another context, such as an organisational change.

Research Question 11: How are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change moderated by the perceived trustworthiness of the change leaders, managers and agents?

This section of the development of the model has looked at how three factors within the employee perceptions of change leaders, managers and agents moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to the change. The final set of moderators lies in factors pertaining to the organisation itself, that is, its culture, and other internal and external issues.

Variables within the Employee's Perception of the Organisation that Moderate Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Responses to Change

Perceived Organisational Culture

Several constructs relating organisational culture to organisational change and emotions have already been identified elsewhere in this literature review, for example, emotional labour (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006; Turnbull, 2002), systemic justice (Beugré & Baron, 2001), leadership (Harris, 2004), trust in management (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2000), changes to the psychological contract (Robinson & Rousseau, 1999), temporal dimensions of change (Huy, 2002) and perceived organisational support (Masterson et al., 2000).

Organisational culture is a set of assumptions, beliefs, values, customs, structures, norms, rules and traditions (Schein, 2004), and a system of shared meanings (Pizer & Härtel, 2005). How much is really shared is nevertheless debatable (Martin, 2002).

Culture is what a group learns over a period of time as that group solves its problems of survival in an external environment and its problems of internal integration. Such learning is simultaneously a behavioral, cognitive, and an emotional process (Schein, 1990, p. 111).

Researchers have taken the position that organisational culture is socially constructed (Gabriel, 1998; Zembylas, 2006). Stated corporate values are often found in websites and other organisational material and are drilled into people through a variety of communication mechanisms, such as induction, other forms of training and performance management systems. Yet practice is not always aligned with the rhetoric as Helms Mills (2005) found in her study on gender, culture and change.

In the context of this thesis culture and change intersect in various ways: when the culture contains a strong focus on innovation and adaptability, when the culture itself is the target of change, and when the culture changes as a result of strategic, tactical or operational changes. The emotional aspects of the organisation's culture, variously called affective culture (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), emotional culture (Zembylas, 2006) and affective climate (Tse, Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2008), influence how emotion is experienced and expressed when change takes place.

Orientation to change is one characteristic of organisational culture. Senge's (1992) learning organisations have been considered by Jordan (2005), Holt et al. (2007) and Scott-Ladd and Chan (2004) to have a positive orientation to change. An organisation where innovation or speedy responses to change are major drivers will encounter different individual responses to one that is more bureaucratic and less agile (Lines, 2004). One company that could be judged in the former category is Vodafone. When its New Zealand subsidiary acquired an internet service provider to enter a new market, its work culture was reported as being "energised". According to a senior manager the company's culture was "youthful, casual and fun" and that "it was important for workers to have energy and passion" to be competitive (Keown, 2006, p. C4). Similarly, Google's "anything-goes spirit" and "off the wall culture" at its California headquarters signalled to a *Fortune* journalist that the company had successfully embraced a change-oriented philosophy (Lashinsky, 2006, pp. 45, 46). In a recent interview in *Time* magazine (Making P & G new and improved, 2008), the CEO of Proctor and Gamble indicated that the company needed to transform itself into an

innovative organisation where the values of openness, connectedness, curiosity, courage and collaboration became embedded in the culture. Starwood Hotels' "culture of creativity" allowed for the implementation of an efficiency tool, Six Sigma, which was considered a "surprising move given Six Sigma's rap as a creativity killer" (Ante, 2007, p. 88). A stream of innovative ideas followed. Conversely a Wal-Mart executive who was dismissed and took legal action against the company claimed in an interview with a *BusinessWeek* journalist that the company "would rather have had a painkiller [than] taken the vitamin of change" (Berner, 2007, p. 71). According to the journalist, the executive "paints a picture of warring fiefdoms and a passive-defensive culture that was hostile to outsiders" (p. 71). In referring to a meeting at General Motors in 2005 to discuss the development of an electric car Welch (2008, p. 38) used three words to characterise the culture of the company, which neatly correspond with cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change - "Myopia. Fear. Inertia." By mid-2008 the financial position of the company had finally forced a change in direction.

Huy (2005) suggests that strategic change, which is usually radical in nature, challenges a sense of core identity, which is focused on organisational values, and that anxiety and defensiveness are used to meet this challenge. Changes that are seen to be compatible with an organisation's culture will be more readily accepted (Lines, 2004). Individual loss of identity during change was referred to earlier as a source of resistance (e.g. Dirks, et al., 1996). Cultural change often results in power balances shifting and those individuals or group members who perceive they have lost power may resist the change (Wolfram Cox, 1997). The ways in which individuals interpret organisational events, including change events, depends to a large extent on their previous history with the organisation, and their perception of the organisation's culture. A perceived improvement in the culture will trigger positive cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change, as long as cynicism abates (Oreg, 2006) and trust in management (or at least in some managers) increases (Ferres & Conell, 2004). However, when culture changes it may be seen as a breach or violation of the psychological contract. For example, Brooks and Harfield (2000) report on a culture change programme in a local government authority from a civil service mentality to one of 'public management' where the user pays for a service. The cultural change programme, known as Giving Value - Being Valued, was considered inequitable (Adams, 1965) since the 'Being Valued' component fell short of the effort expended by staff in 'Giving Value', and triggered negative emotions.

One leadership role, according to Fairholm and Fairholm (2000), is to build a culture of trust, a point made in the previous research question. A parallel leadership role may be to create a culture of participation which may well lead to positive responses to negotiated change (Lines 2004). Harris (2004, p. 395) reports on the appointment of a new principal and introduction of changes, sponsored by a government-based improvement project, in a state high school which had once been:

highly regarded as a high achieving school with a very traditional, authoritarian culture... The degree of resistance to this new initiative was particularly evident in the attitudes of long-serving staff that tended to disassociate themselves from the project by drawing on a nostalgic and potentially flawed recollection of the past. As one teacher noted: "Things were much better under the old regime, we were a better school then."

Schein (2004, p. 309) points out that new leaders, who are often brought in specifically to change the culture, need to deal with emotional reactions:

The infusion of outsiders inevitably brings various cultural assumptions into conflict with each other, raising discomfort and anxiety levels. Leaders who use this change strategy therefore have to figure out how to manage the high levels of anxiety and conflict they have wittingly or unwittingly unleashed.

It was somewhat ironic that the school Harris (2004) referred to as previously very authoritarian did not respond well to what the staff saw as unilateral changes. When the principal changed her style to a more participative one, staff engaged in the changes cautiously but more positively.

Paradoxically, an organisation that seldom consults staff may find that a unilateral change, even an unpalatable one, is accepted as the norm, whereas an organisation that invites participation as general rule, but fails to do so during a change, may find a surprised and somewhat hostile reception. Daly and Geyer (1994) discovered that explanations of office relocations were related to perceptions of procedural justice but were puzzled to find little relationship between it and the absence of participation. They surmised that people did not expect to be consulted. Perceived systemic injustice (Sheppard et al., 1992; Harlos & Pinder, 2000, Beugré & Baron, 2001) will nevertheless lend weight to views that an announced change is unfair.

Values are central to culture (Schein, 2004). Ryan (2005) studied a company that for decades had two key values: innovation and care for its employees. When the culture changed to a short-term results-oriented one, with what was described a penal attitude for not meeting targets, innovation and morale both declined. The communication giant, Cisco, had a culture of innovation but also one that was "brutally

competitive”, and when results declined it maintained the focus on goals, but, together with other changes, also began to demand collaboration:

Compensation changed too: Instead of getting paid just for meeting targets, top people got rewarded based on how peers rated them on their teamwork....It wasn't an easy transition. Everyone hated the new way at first...Executives didn't like sharing resources; joint strategy-setting and decision-making was cumbersome....“The first two years were very painful”, admits [CEO] Chambers. Some of the most successful people left...Others were asked to leave. Overall, Chambers estimates, around 10% of his top team “couldn't make the transition” (Kirkland, 2007, p. 38).

In an empirical study Kabanoff, Waldersee and Cohen (1995) found that organisations with different value structures depicted and communicated change differently, but the authors did not specifically address individual responses. The construct of person-environment fit, specifically person-organisation fit, suggests that people whose values are incongruent with those of the organisation will experience job dissatisfaction (Kristof-Brown, Jansen & Colbert, 2002) and tend to leave (Vandenberghe, 1999). In an empirical study of person-organisation fit, Caldwell et al. (2004) found negative perceptions of cultural change in employees who assessed that new corporate values were incongruent with their own.

The concept of perceived organisational support has been applied to a variety of organisational contexts. It can refer to how employees perceive the support of individual managers (Masterson et al., 2000) but is usually more broadly related to perceptions of organisational systems and culture. Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986, p. 500) maintain, “employees in an organization form global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being” and that this leads to greater organisational commitment, such as reduced absenteeism. Naumann et al. (1998) researched workers who were informed that they were to be laid off and found that perceptions of interactional justice contributed to perceptions of organisational support and that the combined effect was to increase organisational commitment while they remained on the job. Masterson et al. (2000) surveyed employees about the introduction of a new performance management system and reported that employee responses were related to procedural and interactional justice, perceived organisational support and leader-member relationships. A supportive organisation is one where people can rely on a variety of organisational resources, and in the context of change this could involve elements of employee assistance programmes (Alker & McHugh, 2000) and outplacement programmes, such as

psychological and career counselling (Rudisill & Edwards, 2002), help with constructing curricula vitae, methods of job search and interviewing skills. The ways in which an organisation offers support in downsizing may have flow-on effects to both wider perceptions of organisational support and of procedural justice (Naumann et al., 1998). Frost (2002) identifies a very specific aspect of organisational support which he calls organisational compassion. This includes helping employees deal with traumatic incidents, at work and elsewhere. There is little research about the emotional effects of organisational support in the context of organisational change.

It should also be noted that sub-cultures, based on categories such as department, professional identity, ethnicity and gender, exist in organisations (Ryan, 2005). Researchers have also developed more abstract categories. For example, Palthe and Kossek (2003) developed a typology of sub-cultures that are employee-centred, professional-centred, task-centred and innovation-centred, the last being of special relevance to the present study. Employees' responses to change are often coloured by their perceptions of, and engagement in, the sub-culture as well as in the broader organisational culture (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998, Morgan & Ogbonna, 2008). According to Armenakis et al. (1993, p. 687), "these cultural memberships may polarize the beliefs, attitudes and intentions of members" through group discourses (Mills, 2000) and undermine readiness for change.

The emphasis in this section is on the relationship between organisational culture, organisational change and emotional experience. According to Ryan (2005, p. 432), organisational culture "represents the often unwritten sense of identity, feeling part of the organization. It provides a 'glue' and understanding in that it can help individual members make sense of events and change activities." The emotional aspects of the organisation's culture could impact on how emotion is experienced and expressed. Beyer and Nino (2001) contend that culture shapes emotions by encouraging the experience of emotions, managing anxiety and providing ways to express emotions. One of the factors that contributes to the development of culture is the "emotional intensity of the actual historical experiences" organisational or group members have shared (Schein, 2004, p. 11). According to Fineman (2001) many organisations deliberately set out to control and manipulate the emotions of their employees. Studies on emotional labour document the expectations of organisations that some emotions should be displayed but not others (Bolton, 2005; Mann, 1999a, 1999b; Smollan 2006c). Huy (1999) refers to the emotionally capable organisation as one where

emotions are considered legitimate. A healthy organisational culture, according to Pizer and Härtel (2005), is one where emotional expressiveness is encouraged and value is placed on emotion work. Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) provide a set of guidelines for emotionally healthy organisations that includes creating a positive and friendly emotional climate, and if need be, changing the culture. Ozcelik et al. (2008) demonstrated how productive a positive emotional climate is for organisational outcomes.

A study of The Body Shop presents a picture of an organisation where emotional expressiveness was embedded in the culture (Martin et al., 1998). The authors' typology of organisations asserts that feminist types of organisation allow for the open expression of emotion, originating from private or work spheres, whereas traditional bureaucracies frown on emotional expression of any type and of any origin, and normative organisations tolerate some emotional expression but not from outside the work environment. Similarly, in his qualitative study of healthcare employees N. Clarke (2006) documents the impact of organisational culture and professional identity in healthcare organisations which encourage the reflection on, and discussion of, the emotional aspects of the normal course of work.

Conversely, Van Maanen and Kunda's (1989) study of Disney found considerable emotional control over employees who were expected to imbibe and display a feel-good culture. While the above studies were not done in the context of organisational change, it is plausible that the discussion of employee emotions during organisational change could vary substantially from one organisation or profession to another (Bolton, 2005). Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) found a number of their respondents felt the need to hide their emotions about organisational change since their expression was construed as an inappropriate form of resistance. Turnbull (2002) studied the ways individuals responded to an organisation's attempts to deliberately change its culture to one of trust, openness, innovation and loyalty, in workshops laden with emotional appeals. She found that employees experienced both cognitive and affective reactions, but often in unintended ways, with mistrust, anger and embarrassment often eventuating. Employees reported the need to hide their feelings and in many cases pretended to comply with the changes. The degree of emotional labour that surfaces during organisational change can also be an outcome of organisational culture (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006) and in addition serve to perpetuate it. Callahan (2002) found in a qualitative study that control of emotions was

expected in a non-profit organisation associated with the United States military. She believed that, despite the need for cultural change, emotion management was dysfunctional on an organisational level as it prevented adaptive new cultural norms from emerging, and on an individual level because it continued to marginalise certain members, noticeably women and younger staff.

Research Question 12: How are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change moderated by the perceived organisational culture?

Perceived Organisational Change Context

In their review of organisational change in the 1990s, Armenakis and Bedian (1999) assert that a holistic approach needs to be taken that accounts for change content, processes, outcomes and context. The ways in which people respond to a change can be viewed from organisational, group and individual levels and each level has a context of its own. Sub-cultural strength (Ogbonna & Harris, 1998) is one example of how an internal factor can impact on change at all three levels.

Organisational change takes place within internal and external contexts. While context has long been regarded as essential to the study (and practice) of strategic management (e.g. McKiernan, 2006; Pearce & Robinson, 2005; Balogun & Hope-Hailey, 2004) it has also captured the attention of researchers in organisational behaviour (e.g. Griffin, 2007). Johns (2006, p. 388) refers to context as “a bundle or configuration of stimuli” and as a “shaper of meaning” and its salience depends on the variables one is seeking to investigate. Bacharach et al. (1996) and Bamberger (2008) insist that to understand organisational change we need to take account of both macro forces and micro processes. Factors in the external environment, political, economic, social, technical, ecological and competitive (Pearce & Robinson, 2005), are often the drivers of change and can impact on, or operate in tandem with, changes in the internal environment, such as structure, culture, decision-making, leadership, stress and conflict (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2006). The sudden downturn in the economies of most countries in late 2008 has already affected many organisations and their employees. The advent of new owners and/or new managers often signals the beginning of change as the newcomers seek to make their mark on the organisation or department. Effective leadership depends on whether the style of leadership matches the environmental demands. For example, findings from one study indicate that “transformational

leadership was most effective in dynamic environments and transactional leadership was most effective in stable environments” (Hmieleski & Ensley, 2007, p. 867).

From a conceptual point of view it is realistic to assume that justification for an organisational change that occurs as a result of government policy or an environmental disaster, would produce different perceptions of the need for change than one that is internally driven. For example, the current economic crisis could lead to a different set of perceptions about downsizing. Although the outcomes for victims may still be negative, the emotions could be ones of sadness and anxiety, whereas anger might be dominant if a company had been mismanaged or redundancies had been ordered to increase already healthy profits. Employees’ response to a serious workplace accident could be very different to the introduction of new legislation on health and safety. Even if there is low readiness for change, a crisis precipitated by an external or internal event may present problems and opportunities that will need immediate action, which will be more effectively taken if change leaders, managers and agents have perceived expertise, trustworthiness (Armenakis et al., 1993) and emotional intelligence (Jordan, 2005; Huy, 2002).

A study by Herold et al. (2007) explored the overlapping influence of factors in the internal environment (e.g. multiple changes) and the individual factors of fairness perceptions, change self-efficacy and job outcomes. In their view, individual responses cannot be effectively researched in a context-free vacuum. The internal context also includes the scope, scale and frequency of change, which were discussed in Research Questions 2, 3 and 7. A small change by itself may have a minor impact on the individual. However, in the context of other changes occurring previously or simultaneously, it may have an adverse effect if it again requires the expense of extra effort, even though the change may lead to a better outcome for the individual. In Research Question 7 on the influence of previous experience of change, mention was made of the results of a study by Self et al. (2007) of an organisation that, due to government deregulation and the vastly more competitive environment that ensued, had experienced many changes in structure, systems and policies, affecting the whole organisation or parts of it. A range of issues contributed to people’s perceptions of the ongoing changes such as the frequency and accuracy of information (including features of the internal and external contexts), leader-member relations and perceived organisational support. Thus the frequency of change, whether driven by internal or external factors, or both, becomes an important contextual factor for an organisation.

Pettigrew et al. (2001) assert that change cannot be understood in isolation of the contexts of time, space, nationality and ethnicity. As Vandenberghe (1999) points out, organisational culture cannot be divorced from the wider national culture in which it is located. Examples of the relevance of timing of change were provided in Research Question 3 of organisations that soon after downsizing were reported to have increased the bonuses of senior executives (Ward, 2006), or provided an expensive dinner for the team which planned the downsizing (TVNZ top brass feast, 2007).

The role of emotion in the various contexts of change has often been overlooked by researchers. Context does, however, provide the ignition of emotions. A bonus paid to executives may not elicit much emotion on most occasions but in the context of downsizing it will provoke anger (Ward, 2006). One New Zealand company that tried to raise directors fees was met with hostility at its annual general meeting in October 2008 by shareholders who labelled the directors “pigs at a trough” (Contact Energy bows to pressure, 2008). However, the reactions of employees, who are the focus of this thesis, were not reported. A social constructionist approach (Mann 1999a; Bolton, 2005) highlights the influence of nationality and ethnicity in the experience, expression and suppression of emotion (Bagozzi et al., 2003; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1990). When cultures collide in terms of emotional expressiveness, such as in the Singapore subsidiary of an American fast-food company (Tan et al., 2003) problems occur.

The variety and complexity of factors in the internal and external environments of an organisation during periods of change are therefore essential contributors to the cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to a change. Context is an aspect of sense-making - an event can be best understood when account is taken of a range of salient environmental factors.

Research Question 13: How are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change moderated by the perceived change context?

2.6 Summary of Literature Review

Change can be an affective event (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and the model advanced above extends the literature on organisational change, and in particular, the inter-relationships between cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. A number of key points have merged from the literature review.

Firstly, change is potentially emotional, in terms of both outcomes and processes. Anecdotal references to people resisting being moved out of their comfort

zones are only partially accurate. When the outcomes of organisational change are perceived as negative people naturally resent them. But why would people resist change when the outcomes are an improvement on an existing state of affairs? One important aspect emerging from the literature review relates to personality. People with traits such as low change self-efficacy (Jimmieson et al., 2004), dispositional cynicism (Wanberg & Banas, 2000) and negative affectivity (Watson & Tellegen, 1985) will be disinclined to resist certain types of change - but certainly not changes where they will definitely gain. People who are optimistic (Watson & Clark, 1997), open to experience (Vakola, et al., 2004), and have high self-efficacy (Jimmieson et al., 2004), will respond more positively to change - but certainly not all change. The processes of change need to be led and managed with skill (Caldwell, 2003) and emotional intelligence (Huy, 1999; Jordan, 2005) so that people are inclined to support rather than resist the change. In this regard, trustworthiness (Hubell & Chory-Assad, 2005) and fairness (Paterson & Cary, 2002) become particularly important.

Secondly, as noted before, there are multiple factors that influence how people respond to change. Change outcomes and processes can be perceived as having both positive and negative elements (Kruglanski et al., 2007), and trigger positive and negative emotions. What is most salient to an individual could lie in any of these factors.

Thirdly, it is people's perceptions of these multiple factors that are of critical importance. Two research approaches have been highlighted in the literature review. Affective reactions to change flow from cognitive processes (Lazarus, 1991) and cognitive appraisal theory indicates that individuals firstly view events from the perspective of how they will be affected and then seek to ascertain causes (Cropanzano et al., 2000; Paterson & Härtel, 2002) and develop coping strategies (Lazarus, 1999; Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). Social constructionist approaches take the position that the way people think, feel and behave is shaped by social forces (Zembylas, 2006), and that these operate during organisational change (Fineman, 2003; Mills, 2000).

The focus of this study is how people perceive the factors surrounding organisational change - factors relating to the changes themselves, factors within themselves, factors in the leaders managers and agents of change, and factors within the organisational culture and context. In total, 13 research questions have been posed. Investigation them will shed light on the complex nature of organisational change and add to knowledge of how it can be better understood, led, managed and experienced. The methodology section that follows indicates how interviews allow the researcher to

get into the hearts and minds of participants, as they travel on the rollercoaster of organisational change.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In the introduction to this thesis I outlined my firm belief, based on support from a number of other qualitative researchers (e.g. Miles & Huberman, 1994; Zerbe & Härtel, 2000; Hyde, 2000; Patton, 2002), that a qualitative approach can be used to explore a model, which is usually tested in quantitative fashion. In the literature review, social constructionist approaches to emotions, change and a number of other constructs were highlighted. In this chapter I provide a more detailed review of why I chose a qualitative/constructionist approach to explore employee responses to organisational change through the medium of semi-structured interviews. I also reflect on the ontological, epistemological and methodological issues that arose in the development and implementation of the research process.

3.2 Choice of a Qualitative/Social Constructionist Approach

The Goals of Qualitative Research

There has been extensive debate about the competing merits of quantitative and qualitative research, with the catchphrase ‘paradigm wars’ an oft-used title (e.g. Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Gage, 1989; Oakley, 1999) and the proclamation of a ‘ceasefire’ (Mingers, 2004). I have no intention of joining sides. Each form of enquiry produces a different type of knowledge and has its own army of adherents, some of whom aim at “hegemony or supremacy” (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 191), some of whom are content with peaceful co-existence if not integration (Wolfram Cox & Hassard, 2005). I believed at the outset, and this has been reinforced by proceeding through this study, that for me it is simply more interesting to engage with people directly about their experience of organisational change by means of an interview, rather than by other means. The idiographic research approach to research “stresses the importance of letting one’s subject unfold its nature and characteristics during the process of investigation” (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p. 6) and produces in-depth, rich descriptions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003).

According to Gubrium and Holstein (1997, p. 12):

Qualitative research is...distinguished by a commitment to studying social life in process, as it unfolds...Seeing people as active agents of their affairs, qualitative enquiry has traditionally focused on how purposeful actors participate in, construct, deeply experience,

or imagine their lives.

Veal (2005, pp. 125-126) sums up the advantages of using this approach:

- qualitative methods enable the researcher to understand and explain in detail the personal experiences of individuals;
- qualitative research focuses on people's understanding and interpretations rather than seeking external 'laws' for behaviour;
- qualitative research allows the researcher to experience research issues from a participant's perspective;
- qualitative methods are useful in examine personal changes over time.

Guba and Lincoln (2005, p. 204) point out that "Social scientists concerned with the expansion of what count as social data rely increasingly on the experiential, the embodied, the emotive qualities of human experience that contribute to the narrative quality of life." Other qualitative researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1991; Gubrium & Holstein, 1997) also specifically identify the affective domain of life, inside and outside of work, as a particularly meaningful area of study.

The distinctions between emic and etic forms of research are taken from the fields of anthropology and other social sciences (Harris, 1976). Emic researchers seek to capture the world as seen by those inside a culture. This is usually done through in-depth observation and immersion in the group being studied and through interviews. On the other hand, etic researchers look for explanations of behaviour that are derived from a scientific, external view, where the concepts being studied are subjected to categories meaningful to the researcher and amenable to comparison across groups (Morris, Leung, Ames & Lickel, 1999). Morris et al. and Patton (2002) indicate that researchers from one perspective have often discounted the other. However, they believe that both approaches can be used in tandem. The etic approach provides an initial framework for the emic investigation; alternatively emic approaches can be used to develop a comparative (etic) framework.

This study of emotions and change integrates both perspectives. Although emic perspectives are commonly used to study a group of people from the same culture and with depth approaches, they can also be used, through interviews (Morris et al., 1998), to capture the meanings of change and the emotions experienced by individuals in different cultural settings. Denzin and Lincoln (2005a, p. 12) indicate that "Qualitative researchers...are committed to an emic, idiographic, case-based position that direct attention to specific cases." The aim of the current study, therefore, was to find what meanings the participants themselves ascribed to experience. For example, the term resistance to change has different meanings to different researchers (Piderit, 2000;

Bovey & Hede, 2001a; Ford et al., 2002). Research into fairness has also found evidence of similarities (Mikula et al., 1998) and differences across cultures - national, ethnic and organisational (Morris et al., 1998). In the context of this study, the meaning of the term from an emic perspective should highlight how different change players could interpret the fairness of an organisational change.

Research is seldom value-free (Guba, 1990) and its outputs to a large extent depend on the ideological preferences of the researchers. Various writers have commented on the issues that lie under the surface of a qualitative investigation. Lincoln and Denzin (1998, pp. 408-409) assume that qualitative researchers have a humanistic bent from which flows the “liberal and radical politics” of the various paradigms, and that qualitative researchers, including constructivists:

all share the belief that that a politics of liberation must always begin with the perspectives, desires, and dreams of those individuals and groups who have been oppressed by the larger ideological, economic, and political forces of a society or historical moment.

In their invitation to authors to contribute to the third edition of *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*, the editors, Denzin and Lincoln (2005b, p. x), make their position clear, “We want the new edition to advance a democratic project committed to social justice in an age of uncertainty.” In the preface to the third edition of *The Landscape of Qualitative Practice*, the same editors (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. viii) identify the theme of the book as “the necessity to reengage the promise of qualitative research as a generative form of radical democratic practice.”

Similarly, Lincoln (1995), Tierney (2003) and Bryant (2003) take the ideological position that participant voices must not be silenced, disengaged or marginalised. While this philosophy might capture some of the spirit of qualitative research, it seems more indicative of critical theory (Alvesson & Deetz, 2000; Putnam, 1983; Guba, 1990; Cresswell, 1998) and cannot be the sole interpretation of the goals of qualitative research as a whole. While Guba (1990) contends that a constructivist approach cannot be value-free (and this could be taken to refer to the values of either the researcher or the researched), Harris (2006, p. 226) points out that in studying the construct of inequality:

Constructionist researchers would not assume that their first priority is to identify the causes and effects of, and the solutions to objective inequality; instead, their main objective would be to study how people create the meaning of inequality by making assertions about its putative causes, effects and solutions.

In this thesis, while I share some of the emancipatory zeal of Lincoln and

Denzin (1998) and Bryant (2003), the concept of justice is an integral part of the model and interview questions on justice are designed to present the voices of the participants. Views have been expressed that it is the non-managers who are the most marginalised (Bryant, 2003; Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006). This may well be true but other researchers have found that managers at all levels have also been sidelined in change programmes where they had insufficient power or authority to influence change in the way they would have liked (e.g. Turnbull, 1999; Young, 2000; Huy, 2002; Vince, 2006).

Interpretivism, Constructivism and Social Constructionism

While there are fine differences between interpretivist and constructivist approaches to research (see Schwandt, 1998, 2003 for an elaboration), the terms have often been used interchangeably (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005a). Interpretive practice, according to Holstein and Gubrium (2005, p. 484), is the “constellation of procedures, conditions, and resources through which reality is apprehended, understood, organized and conveyed in everyday life.” Interpretivists seek to uncover the meanings people attach to their experiences and these meanings are primarily derived from verbal and non-verbal communication.

Broadly speaking, interpretivist approaches aim to provide rich or thick descriptions of issues and events (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003), “finely nuanced accounts” (Gergen & Gergen, 2000, p. 1027) and “deep insights” (Arksey & Knight, p. 7), to uncover not merely *what* people think or feel or do, but also *why* and *how*. Interpretivist approaches are particularly able to capture the why and how to a depth that cannot be accessed by quantitative approaches. For example, in referring to coping with stress-induced events, Folkman and Moskowitz (2000, 2004) suggest that quantitative accounts usually only reveal superficial descriptions of experience and that narrative accounts offer more insight. Similarly, Lazarus (2006) notes, for example, that a coping questionnaire provides useful information but that this cannot be separated from the personal circumstances of the individual or of the context in which the emotion has been provoked. People construct their versions of reality by trying to making sense or meaning of experience (Weick, 1995). Researchers then reconstruct or co-construct the reality (Schwandt, 1998; Gomm, 2004; Mason, 2002), as viewed by participants. One goal is to build a picture of individual experience that is subjective, holistic, complex, contextual, sometimes confusing, messy and often contradictory (Cresswell, 1998;

Deetz, 1996; Richards, 2005; Mason, 2002).

A point worth exploring is the contention of Putnam (1983, p. 36) that interpretivists “believe that individuals create their own environments. They act and interpret their interactions with a sense of free will and choice, thus they have a critical role in shaping environmental and organizational realities.” This idealistic approach seems to put the employee at centre stage in determining individual and organisational outcomes. In the context of the current study, while the model presented indicates that employees’ reactions to change may affect some facets of the change process, their impact would be contingent on many other factors, such as the power of various stakeholders, managerial prerogatives, organisational policies and financial, legal and competitive constraints (Oreg, 2006; Holt et al., 2007).

Guba (1990) prefers to use the term constructivism, which has a relativist ontological position - there are multiple ‘realities’; a subjectivist epistemology - findings are the product of the interaction of the researcher and the researched; and either or both hermeneutical and dialectical methodologies - the former requiring accuracy of depiction of an individual construction, the latter involving comparing and contrasting different viewpoints. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p. 27), the constructivist approach considers that “realities exist in the form of multiple constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific, dependent for their form and content on the persons who hold them.”

Qualitative research takes a defined epistemological position:

Knowledge is within meanings people make of it; knowledge is gained through people talking about their meanings; knowledge is laced with personal biases and values; knowledge is written in a personal, close-up way; and knowledge evolves, emerges, and is inextricably tied to the context in which it is studied (Cresswell, 1998, p. 19).

According to Kidd (2004) the terms constructivism and constructionism are also often confused or used interchangeably. She suggests, however, that constructivism refers to the way in which descriptions and accounts construct the world, while constructionism refers to the processes by which the accounts themselves are constructed. Gergen (1994, p. 67) identifies constructivism as a “class of psychological theories...which place particular stress on the individual’s psychological construction of the experiential world”, whereas social constructionism is a sociological approach that views the individual’s understanding of experience as being created through and by language. Similarly, Crotty (1998, p. 58) believes that:

It would appear useful, then, to reserve the term *constructivism* for the epistemological considerations focusing exclusively on the ‘meaning-making activity of the individual mind’ and to use *constructionism* where the focus includes ‘the collective generation of meaning’...Constructivism in this sense points out the unique experience of each of us...On the other hand, social constructionism emphasizes the hold our culture has on us: it shapes the way we see things (even the way we feel things!) and gives us a quite definite view of the world.

The use of the adjective ‘social’ in social constructionism reveals the philosophy that a person’s concept of ‘reality’ is (wholly or partly) developed through the influence of others. Putnam (1983, p. 35), for example, reports that “interpretivists believe that reality is socially constructed through the words, symbols and behaviours of its members.” Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002, p. 30) advise that in using a constructionist approach:

One should therefore try to understand and explain why people have different experiences, rather than search for causes and fundamental laws to explain their behaviour. Human action arises from the sense that people make of different situations, rather than as a direct response from external stimuli.

It is, however, difficult to understand why they choose to ignore the study of causes of behaviour unless they are concerned about avoiding the generalisations of a nomothetic approach and focusing instead on idiographic accounts of experience (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Wolfram Cox & Hassard, 2005).

While different methodological approaches of qualitative research were available to me (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Mason, 2002; Schwandt, 2003), the social constructionist approach was the most attractive because it focuses on the subjective nature of experience, and how this experience has been shaped by social forces as perceived through individual lenses. Social constructionism has underpinned some of the literature on emotions (Kemper, 2000; Fineman, 2000b), particularly in the field of emotional labour (e.g. Hochschild, 1983; Bolton, 2005; Mann, 1999b), organisational change (e.g. Mills, 2000; Ford et al., 2002) and a number of other constructs that I have used in the model, such as organisational justice (Lamertz, 2002), trust (Shamir & Lapidot, 2003), the nature of time in organisational life (Ancona et al., 2001; Clark, 1990), leadership (Meindl, 1995; Grint, 2005) and organisational culture (Pedersen & Dobbin, 2006). Social constructionism therefore seemed to be an appropriate theoretical platform from which to launch this thesis.

“A general assumption of social constructionism is that knowledge is not disinterested, apolitical, and exclusive of affective and embodied aspects of human

experience, but is in some sense ideological, political and permeated with values” (Schwandt, 2003, p. 307). There are a number of different approaches to the concept of social constructionism (Hibberd, 2003; Stam, 2001). Schwandt (2003) distinguishes between ‘weak’ and ‘strong’ forms. The former takes the view that people’s understanding of the world is *influenced* by the many discourses they have been party to, a stance taken by Berger and Luckmann (1966). The latter, a position held by Gergen (1985, 1994) and Denzin (1997) is that discursive experience has *determined* people’s understanding.

The origins of the construct lie in the book by Berger and Luckmann (1966), *The Social Construction of Reality*. From an ontological perspective, people embrace a version of reality derived from a variety of social influences and personal experiences, including personal interaction and more abstract relationships, and this ‘reality’ changes with new experiences (Wolfram Cox & Hassard, 2007).

Gergen (1985, p. 268) stimulated considerable interest in social constructionism in psychology by laying it down as a challenge to “the objective basis of conventional knowledge.” Knowledge is built through social interaction and, according to Gergen and Thatchenkerry (2004, p. 109), “discourse, perhaps is the most critical medium through which meanings are fashioned.” Values and beliefs, which are embedded and institutionalised in culture, are the foundations of the edifice that people build to house their understanding of experience. People make sense of this experience by resorting to the meanings and language that they have been taught to bring to new stimuli. Language in a postmodern way of thinking does not merely reflect reality, it constitutes it (Gergen & Thatchenkerry, 2004). The language used does not simply report on experience, it attaches social meaning that is imbued with values and subjective judgements. For example, people’s understanding of the term ‘resistance to change’ reflects social influences and the rhetoric used by change players and researchers (Ford et al., 2002; Mills, 2000). Similarly, the language used by managers of downsizing (who referred to themselves as ‘grim reapers’ and ‘executioners’) conveys a harsh, socially constructed reality (Clair & Dufresne, 2004; Gandolfi, 2008) in which these managers seem to implicitly agree with the criticism, or at least the description, of their roles.

Social Construction of Emotions, Change and Other Factors in the Model

In the literature review the social constructionist approach was applied to a number of constructs used in this thesis: emotions, change, justice, time, leadership, trust and

organisational culture. These concepts are revisited here.

The social constructionist perspective of emotions underlies much of the literature on emotional labour (e.g. Hochschild, 1983; Mann, 1999a, 1999b; Bolton; 2005; Smollan, 2006c). It takes the view that emotions are phenomena that are culturally mediated (Antonacopoulou & Gabriel, 2001) and developed through interaction in social relationships. Cultural factors influence not merely the experience of specific emotions, such as shame, anger or pride, but influence how appropriate their display is. Commenting on this approach, Callahan and McCollum (2002, p. 14) indicate that “emotions are created or constructed as part of a common sense-making process in social structures” and that “social constructionism knits together the personal and the social.” Barsade et al. (2003, p. 15) point out that even within social constructionist approaches to emotions in organisations there are different perspectives, with some writers preferring to focus on the social forces that impact on the display of emotions and the suppression of emotional display, while others concentrate on “how specific social structures and local norms shape individual behaviour, and, particularly, the experience and expression of affect.” Harré (1986), who refers to these culturally situated norms as the ‘local moral order’, points out how the lexicon of emotions varies from one society to another. He thus exemplifies the ‘strong’ social constructionist position that while emotions may be accompanied by physiological responses, language - as mediated through discursive practice - determines people’s understanding of both what emotions mean and how appropriate are their experience and expression. ‘Weaker’ social constructionist perspectives on emotions, according to Williams and Bendelow (1996), hold greater promise of enriching our understanding of emotions as the complex interplay between physiological, cognitive and social forces.

A social constructionist view of organisational change takes the position that those affected can perceive a change in different ways (Mills, 2000). The nature of the rhetoric used signals how a change player (or researcher) portrays experience. For example, to gain commitment to a change, a change leader could frame it as an exciting move for the organisation and its personnel. However, change recipients might view the impending change with anxiety as they perceive negative outcomes such as increased workloads (O’Connell Davidson, 1994; Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999) or possible redundancies (Bean & Hamilton, 2006). Discourse produces multiple perspectives which influence the thoughts, emotions and actions of those engaged.

The term, resistance to change, is fraught with ideological interpretations and

could be viewed as reluctance, refusal, obstruction, defiance of authority, promotion of alternative actions and so on (Coetsee, 1999; Bovey & Hede, 2001a; Bryant, 2006; Matheny, 2004). The connotations people give to the term are often developed through multiple discourses on organisational change (Ford et al., 2002). Leaders of change often construct resistance as a negative force, and given their positional power, they often control the rhetoric of change to suit their own ends (Badham & Buchanan, 2008). From an epistemological perspective the words used by various actors and the researcher may reflect different meanings. Organisational politics and mechanisms of influence occur in change-related scenarios where different constructions of events, motives and potential outcomes are sometimes rampant (Dawson, 2003; Buchanan & Badham, 1999). For example, Ford et al. (2002, p. 106) propose that:

resistance is a function of the socially constructed reality in which someone lives, and that depending on the nature of that constructed reality, the form of resistance to change will vary. Since constructed realities provide the context in which people act and interact, the nature of these realities establishes the opportunities for action, how people will see the world, what actions to take, etc. Accordingly, change, and resistance to it, is a function of the constructed reality; it is the nature of this reality that gives resistance its particular form, mood and flavour.

Ford et al. (2002) also suggest that it is the myriad conversations around change that form the background against which people construct their own realities of the change. Visible or vocal acceptance of, or resistance to, change therefore depends partly on how an individual gauges the appropriateness (and consequences) of public responses, as the quotes from Turnbull (1999) and Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) reveal. People in management positions are expected to support changes, even when they do not agree with them. This socially constructed assumption is contained within the term - 'acting professionally' (Fournier, 1999; Lively, 2000; Harris, 2002) - which is further manifested in the expectation to reveal only 'appropriate emotions' about the change.

Integrating social constructionist approaches to emotions and change, it is evident that discussions about the emotions of the change also contribute to the perceived reality. According to Kiefer (2002b, p. 45), "Such expressed and communicated emotions influence group processes, organizational climate, as well as the individual and social construction of change." Some of the participants (middle managers) in Turnbull's (1999, p. 133) study of emotional labour and cultural change in an organisation remarked, "People have to say they're committed"; "You keep your

head down”; “You do what your manager wants you to do.” Another was more specific about the emotional climate: “In a fear culture it is difficult to protest” (p. 134). Respondents in Bryant and Wolfram Cox’s (2006, p. 123) study made similar comments, such as, “We had to hide what we felt”; “could not show how it affected us.”

Other factors in the model have been subjected to a social constructionist analysis. One of the dominant themes was the concern for justice shown by the participants, which Lamertz (2002) believes is also a socially constructed concept. As I argue in the literature review, people’s notions of justice are potentially derived from multiple sources, one of the most powerful being their many social experiences. Time in organisational settings is both subjectively and collectively interpreted (Ancona et al., 2006; Clark, 1990; Pettigrew et al., 2001) and can be seen, for example, against the backdrop of expected cycles and pacing of organisational change (Huy, 2001; Jansen, 2004). The concepts of leadership and followership are also considered to be social constructions (Meindl, 1995; Grint, 2005). Discussions by followers about the abilities and personalities of organisational leaders, and by leaders about followers, shape the perceptions of both about the two roles. Feedback in both directions becomes part of the construction process. Shamir and Lapidot (2003) have shown that trust is not merely an individual disposition, or an element of interpersonal relationships, but also a socially constructed notion that arises from issues and experiences on a broader organisational level. While there are dispositional influences and personal interpretations of dyadic and group relationships, people also base their trust in leaders on the related and observed experiences of others (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005).

Organisational culture is almost by definition a social construction, as it is a system of shared meaning (Pizer & Härtel, 2005) by which organisations simultaneously copy the cultural practices of other organisations while trying to evolve their own unique style and identity (Pedersen & Dobbin, 2006). People in organisations absorb, to varying depths, the cultural precepts, taught or observed, that are prevalent (Schein, 2004). The values that penetrate organisational culture are themselves social constructions that are reinforced in formal and informal ways. The distinction between organisational cultures which are geared or resistant to change was highlighted in the literature review (e.g. Lashinsky, 2006; Berner, 2007). Organisational culture was also highlighted as a key feature of emotional labour (e.g. Bolton, 2005; Mann, 1999b), particularly in the context of change (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006; Turnbull, 1999). The emotional culture of an organisation (Zembylas, 2006) provides ground rules for

expected expression or suppression of emotion (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989; Martin et al; 1998; Gabriel, 1998).

In summary, many aspects of the emotions of change have been viewed in the literature through a social constructionist lens. Positive and negative responses to change often spread through a process of contagion (Hatfield et al., 1993; Barsade, 2002) and influence individual cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. Yet the individual may still interpret events in an idiosyncratic way because he/she has been party to other discourses, has had different experiences and has a different disposition.

3.3 Epistemological and Methodological Issues

In this section I explore some of the key issues that underlie a constructionist study, specifically pertaining to the development, collection and interpretation of material. From both epistemological and methodological points of view one needs to distinguish between the ways in which experiences are constructed by people to make meaning of situations and the researcher's attempt to make meaning of the reported experiences of participants. Seidman (2006) and Guba (1990) agree that the construction of the meaning of a participant's experience is a function of the interaction between interviewer and interviewee. Schwandt (1998, p. 222) summarises the roles of the researcher and the participants in a constructivist or interpretivist approach:

The constructivist or interpretivist approach believes that to understand this world of meaning one must interpret it. The inquirer must elucidate the process of meaning construction and clarify what and how meanings are embodied in the language and actions of social actors. To prepare an interpretation is itself to construct a reading of these meanings; it is to offer the inquirer's construction of the constructions of the actors one studies.

Construction of experience thus takes place on various levels. In any form of primary research the researcher must first decide what factors are worth including. The end result may at first seem fairly arbitrary to the reader but if done well by the researcher it becomes convincing. Some of the factors may emerge from perceived gaps in the literature, some from personal experience, including observation and conversation, some simply because they are of interest to the researcher. The breadth of factors included also depends partly on the aims of the researcher. Does he/she investigate a few factors, as many as possible, or let the factors emerge from the narratives of the subjects? And if, for example, issues arise that were not originally conceptualised in a carefully planned investigation, are they ignored or factored into the

interpretation of the findings? In addition, how deeply does the researcher go? The nature of the material provided by respondents depends, therefore, on what the researcher was exploring and how she or he went about mining it. A weakness of the “traditional question and answer” interview, according to Holloway and Jefferson (2000, p. 31) is that the interviewer decides what the themes are, the order in which they will be presented and the language in which they couch their questions. This can limit the nature of the answers given in a way that a more open narrative approach might not. Conversely, narrative accounts (Boje, 2001) and grounded theory approaches (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) may not engage concepts that the researcher thinks may be relevant and will therefore remain unexplored.

In this study the range of factors to be investigated was intentionally wide but I did not exclude the possibility that other factors may have played a role. Had fewer factors been investigated, but to a greater depth, the findings would have looked quite different to those presented in the next chapter. Had more factors been included and had more or fewer or different questions been asked, the results would again look different. Any claim that a researcher has ‘uncovered’ people’s experience of change can only partially be substantiated. The reader therefore has to contend with the author’s construction of which factors were relevant.

The participant’s construction of the experience of change first occurs through examination of the issues, causes and consequences surrounding it, then through reflection, and even later and more concretely through the articulation of language. The words participants use in interviews are the outcomes of retrospective, and therefore reconstructive, processes. The ‘reality’ they refer to is that which was recalled in the interview, and not necessarily that of the time of the change. Thus interviews are likely to trigger some memories, but not all.

The next level of construction is that made by the researcher of the constructions of the participants (Schwandt, 1998). In one sense this is the co-construction of events referred to by Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006). Transcript material can provide a wealth of detail and the choice of the researcher in deciding what to use is subjective. Additionally, the researcher and subject may place different meanings on words, as the discussion of the interpretation of ‘resistance to change’ in this study indicates. When people are given - and take - the opportunity to add to or in any way amend the details of a transcript, which was part of my interview protocol, they may to some extent indicate agreement with the interviewer’s construction of the conversation. However,

my participants chose not to comment on the content of what had been recorded in the interviews, nor added new material. Secondly, they did not get to see the analysis of textual data and may therefore not agree with my interpretations.

My own biases and values may be detected in the constructions I place on the constructions of the participants. I have experienced change in various organisations where I have worked, as change leader, manager, agent and recipient. In my current organisation alone changes have included a new strategic direction, new organisational and departmental cultures and leaders, restructuring, redundancies, office relocations, and changes in technology, schedules and policies. I have been party to many discourses on change in this organisation (and others), at different hierarchical levels, and in many contexts. My own perceptions of these events and their affective and behavioural components could have influenced my constructions of the reports of participants in this study. So too could the professional body and academic workshops or conferences on change I have attended and the classes on change I have taught. I therefore had to be aware of these potential influences. One source, cited in Gergen and Gergen (2000, p. 1033) suggested that her ethnicity did not give her “insider status” in researching another ethnic group but that shared experience enabled her to provide a “comparative perspective that is implicit, intuitive and informed by my own identities and positionalities.” Likewise, my experience has provided me with useful insight into organisational change processes, and their causes and consequences, but could well have coloured both the interview questions and the analysis of the responses. Issues of this nature are explored in more depth later on.

Arguing against the conventional wisdom that researchers should be dispassionate and objective in the research process, Gubrium and Holstein (1997, p. 59) suggest that ‘emotionalists’ (defined as qualitative researchers of emotion) “plunge directly into the subjective fray, at times becoming passionately engrossed.” Similarly, Ellis (1991) suggests that researchers of emotions should reflect on their own emotional experience as a means of better understanding those of their subjects. She goes even further by suggesting that, within limits, researchers can express their own emotions in the context, for example, of fieldwork or interviews, to encourage the subjects to open themselves to emotional expression. “In interactive introspections, the researcher works back and forward with others to facilitate their self-introspections. The object of study is the emergent experience of both parties” (p. 129). However, I mostly resisted this temptation, and this degree of co-construction, opting for the more traditional, objective

- and dispassionate - approach. On a few occasions, however, I admitted to participants that I had experienced similar reactions to them. This did not appear to affect the nature of the interview in any way, or influence the data.

Where there are two or more researchers different constructions are brought into play. As part of the process of writing a thesis a researcher presents an analysis of data to supervisors. Their comments influence the final product. The first conference paper that emerged from the empirical work in this study (Smollan, Matheny & Sayers, 2007) went through various stages of co-construction. I had conducted the interviews and produced a table of quotes on the chosen theme and an analysis of them. Then all three of us separately analysed the table and the transcripts and discussed our interpretations. Other joint conference papers and the book chapter (Matheny & Smollan, 2005) were the outcome of a process of co-construction. The final level of construction is that which the reader brings to the researcher's interpretation of the participants' responses. Each person in the chain of construction of meaning may have a different interpretation.

3.4 Method

We can learn...through interviewing, about people's interior experiences. We can learn what people perceived and how they interpreted their perceptions. We can learn how events affect their thoughts and feelings. We can learn the meanings to them of their relationships, their families, their work, and their selves. We can learn all about the experiences, from joy through grief, that together constitute the human condition (Weiss, 1994, p. 1).

The Participants

In the initial approach participants were sourced from New Zealand-based management and human resource consultants whom I knew. I approached third parties so that I had no prior knowledge of the potential participants and no previous relationship with them. To protect participants' identities I agreed with the consultants that I would not use all the names they provided, nor inform them of who I had or had not interviewed. When this method provided too few participants, I expanded my sources of 'consultants' to include academic colleagues. In total 10 contacts put me in touch with the interviewees. Participants provided demographic details on a participant information sheet and were advised that they could withdraw their consent at any time prior to data analysis. They were informed that they would be given an opportunity to read the transcript and add or amend details. Only two, however, made minor (grammatical) changes to the transcripts.

Between March 2006 and April 2007 I interviewed 24 people in Auckland. There were 13 men and 11 women, 16 European, two Maori, three Asian and three of Pacific Island background. At the time of the interview (not the change) six participants were in their thirties, 12 in their forties and six in their fifties. They were employed in a wide range of industries and types of organisation in the private, public and non-profit sectors, such as manufacturing, retail, travel and tourism, distribution, healthcare, community services, professional services and communication. The participants also worked in a variety of different functional departments such as engineering, production/operations, human resources, client services and accounting. The relatively high proportion of human resource professionals/consultants (nine) could be attributed to their part of the network of contacts identified by the human resource and management consultants I approached. I aimed to obtain a cross-section of hierarchical levels, and from my interpretation of the role they described, ascertained that there were eight non-managers, one first-level manager, two middle managers, 10 senior managers, two general managers and one business owner. In the literature review it was pointed out that the roles of players in change cannot always be easily distinguished and this proved to be true in this study. While some of the participants were simply change recipients, others played a combination of roles in various aspects of the change, including those of change leaders and change managers, but none were change agents in the sense I have used in this study - internal or external consultants. Hierarchy was not always the determining factor. A table of participant details is found in Appendix 1 in which participants are coded from A to Y, excluding I.

The Interviews

A semi-structured interview was the preferred method since it allows for an examination of cognitive and emotional processes, with “an emphasis on depth, nuance, complexity and roundedness” (Mason, 2002, p. 65), and lets the researcher “get closer to the actor’s perspective” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 5). Lee (1993, p. 104) specifically refers to depth or unstructured interviews as “providing the means of getting beyond surface appearances and permitting greater sensitivity to the meaning contexts surrounding informant utterances.” Semi-structured interviews may have similar impact if sufficient scope is given to exploration of participant comments. Responses to change can be multi-faceted. For example, some aspects might be construed as fair and produce positive or no emotion. Some aspects might be perceived as very unfair and trigger

anger and frustration. These two different perceptions and emotions have different triggers and different consequences and using a semi-structured interview allows the researcher to uncover issues of complexity, and sometimes of contradiction, ambivalence and confusion (Cresswell, 1998).

Fontana and Frey (2003, p. 74) distinguish between the aims of structured and unstructured interviews, with the former focused on:

capturing precise data of a codable nature in order to explain behaviour within preestablished categories, whereas the latter attempts to understand the complex behaviour of members of society without imposing any prior categorization that may limit the field of inquiry.

A semi-structured interview format was designed and after two interviews was modified. Questions on emotion management and behaviour were left to later. A general question on fairness was modified to capture the four main types identified by Colquitt (2001) - distributive, procedural, informational and interpersonal. Since respondents did not always identify emotional responses I later repeated one question many times as different facets of change were explored, that is, “And did this have an emotional impact on you?” The revised version contained over 40 questions, which on a continuum from structured to unstructured, tends towards the former (see Appendix 2).

The interviews began with a less structured approach, with an indication that the researcher would first ask for a description of the change(s) and the participant’s emotional reactions, then move to specific aspects of the change and the emotions they evoked. The purpose of this approach was firstly to allow the respondents to get comfortable with the interview protocol by describing what happened, and secondly to highlight the emotions, and their causes and consequences, that *first* came to mind. It is plausible that for some participants the most memorable emotional responses were surfaced in this fashion. Other participants would progress through the interview and highlight different issues which may have been of equal or greater intensity, or which had more serious consequences.

A priori categories had been established for later questions and were based on the model, which itself was derived from key conceptual and empirical work detailed in the literature review. The next group of questions was therefore designed to investigate the variables that mediate cognitive responses to change (Research Question 1 to 4, which were about outcomes, scale, temporal issues and fairness). They were then asked a summary question (number 23), “Based on what you have said so far...what were your views on how positive or negative these changes were?” The purpose was for them

to reflect on the combined influence of the various factors which they had discussed so far.

The interview then moved on to the variables in the interviewees that moderated cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change (Research Questions 5 to 8, on emotional intelligence, disposition, previous experience of change, and change and stress outside the workplace). After questions designed to provide insight into the interviewees' emotional intelligence and its relationship to emotional labour, questions were inserted to explore behavioural responses, and specifically resistance to change. The balance of questions relating to the individual were then asked.

The next group of questions were designed to explore the factors that the interviewees perceived in the leaders and/or managers of change (Research Questions 9 to 11, on leadership ability, emotional intelligence and trustworthiness). The last two questions explored factors in the organisation (Research Questions 12 and 13 on its culture and change context). The purpose of the last question, "Were there any other organisational issues that affected your responses to the change?", was aimed at surfacing context issues, and anything else that the interviewees recalled, but since many context factors had been covered in the course of the interview few participants responded.

Many of the answers needed exploration, clarification and confirmation. The main aim was to capture the experience of change, as narrated by respondents, rather than to lead the respondents to produce answers that neatly fit the boxes in the model. The order of questions was not always strictly adhered to. At times respondents discussed an issue that would have been raised later. If respondents indicated that an issue did not have an emotional impact on them I moved on but may have returned to it if something contradictory or ambiguous was said later.

Rosenblatt (2002, p. 897) reports on his technique for digging deeper for the 'truth' and one that I attempted to follow:

...on important matters I often return to a question that seemingly has been answered completely. I might ask the question from a different angle, or with different words, or with additional permission to the interviewee to say something that is embarrassing or difficult. Or I might ask that the question be answered from another perspective. I might frame the renewed questioning as a matter of aiding interviewee memory, so the whole truth can be given. Or I might frame it as looking for additional specifics.

The complex nature of interviewing has been discussed by several researchers. Fontana and Frey (2003, p. 62) suggest that "Increasingly, qualitative researchers are

realizing that interviews are not neutral tools of data gathering but active interactions between two (or more) people, leading to negotiated, contextually based results.” They contrast the traditional concept of the interviewer as a passive and neutral recorder of information with creative interviewing, which is “based on *feelings*: it assumes that researchers, qua interviewers, need to ‘get to know’ respondents beneath their rational facades, and that researchers can reach respondents’ deep wells of emotion by engaging them, by sharing feelings and thoughts with them” (p. 91). Through this process the data is constructed by both interviewer and interviewee and this conceptualisation of the nature of interviewing supports the idea that the text is negotiated or co-constructed (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006).

As Schneider (2000, p. 162) puts it:

detailed analyses reveals the interview not simply as an opportunity for knowledge to be transmitted from one person to another but rather as an interactional accomplishment in which knowledge is constructed by interviewer and interviewee during the course of the interview. In this view, interviewers are no longer simply conduits for answers but rather are deeply implicated in the production of answers.

A problem with this conceptualisation of interviewing is the assumption that the text is negotiated. The interviewee is asked questions and (usually) responds. If the interviewer seeks confirmation or clarification of a point or of a concept, one could say the understanding is negotiated. However, when writing up an analysis the interviewer interprets the answers in the context of the aims of the research study but may not have captured accurately what the interviewee meant. As Holloway and Jefferson (2000, p. 3) put it:

If we are prepared to disagree, modify, select and interpret what they tell us, is this not an example of the kind of power that we, as researchers, have that should be kept in check by being faithful to the voices of those who we are researching?

In similar vein, Alvesson (2003) warns that interviewers who believe that the data gained through interviewee responses simply reveal reality are being romantic and naïve. In his view interviewees usually try to interpret what the interviewers are after and give them what they think is expected. He believes that they are also influenced by factors that are irrelevant to the questions, such as the age, gender or ethnicity of the interviewers, wanting to give a good impression to the interviewer and helping to create or maintain a positive self-image. Interviewees may try to use the interview as a vehicle for influencing management action. This past point is more likely to be relevant in ethnographic studies than in interviewing people from a variety of organisations.

With regard to some of the points made by Alvesson (2003), I was aware that what interviewees were saying would not be 'verified' by seeking others' perceptions. Interviews conducted with one person in an organisation cannot be taken to be the only reality. Not only can different types of change player (for example, change leaders and change recipients) construct the reality of change differently, so too can different people within the same category. My own personal experience of organisational change - and other organisational issues - is that there are many constructions of events and each individual's 'reality' is somewhat or vastly different to others. The main point of the interviews was to gain insight into how individuals perceived situations and how this led to emotional reactions.

I found interviewees were not always able to articulate their views or their feelings. How then can it be said that what appears on a transcript is always 'negotiated'? Even if interviewees are given an opportunity to view and suggest amendments to a transcript (which is what I offered) some may not be motivated to do so (and none of mine made any substantive amendments). Secondly, it is the researcher who selects material from a number of transcripts for the data analysis and the way in which the interviews are written up are the writer's construction of the conversations. This is not negotiated with interviewees. Ideally researchers should present their analysis of interview data to the interviewees and seek their comments on the presentation of their unique responses. However, this is time consuming and may be impractical and inconsistent if all respondents cannot be tracked down or do not respond. Interviewees are unlikely to read the whole research report and it becomes a major task to identify those parts that refer specifically to an individual respondent and multiply this by the number of respondents. Qualitative researchers are both producers and consumers of empirical studies and rely on the competence and integrity of fellow researchers while still questioning, as they tend to do with regard their own respondents, whether the researcher has really 'got it right'.

Clearly, the aims of the researcher influence the nature of the questions, the ways in which answers are elicited and the ways in which the data is interpreted. This thesis explicitly explores, *inter alia*, emotional responses to change. The aim was to allow the participants to describe their reactions to change but the nature of the questions was inevitably based on the constructs I believe are useful in shedding light on change experiences.

In the first draft of the methodology section I took on board the caveat against

the use of leading questions since they can be seen as manipulating the interviewee (Arksey & Knight, 1999) and delivering a distortion of the 'truth'. However, in the interviews, if I sensed that what I was digging for was there but had not been unearthed, I resorted at times to asking leading questions. The purpose of asking leading questions, which in most cases I was aware I was doing, was to clarify what the participants may have been struggling to articulate, or may not have considered, or contradicted what they had said before. I consciously asked several participants the question, "I may be putting an answer in your mouth, but would it be fair to say that you felt...?" I was assured on each occasion that this was indeed the emotion experienced.

3.5 Ethical issues

Referring to ethical dimensions of qualitative research, Punch (1998, p. 168) points out that "In essence, most concern revolves around issues of harm, consent, deception, privacy, and confidentiality of data."

A number of these ethical concerns arose during the research process for this thesis. Lee (1993, p. 103) acknowledges that in talking about sensitive topics respondents "may be asked to reveal a great deal about themselves, perhaps at some emotional cost." It is almost tautologous to state that discussing emotional experience is itself an emotional experience. Emotional reactions to change are often personal, private and sensitive. Interviewing people on sensitive subjects may be stressful for both the interviewer and the interviewee (Brannen, 1988). If, as many authors suggest (e.g. Smollan, 2006c; Fineman, 2003; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995), emotional expression is generally not acceptable in organisations, or in broader aspects of life, talking about emotions to a researcher may be an emotional experience in itself. In interviewing subjects on emotion and injustice in organisations, Harlos and Pinder (2000) report that the nature of the experiences being discussed triggered strong emotional reactions during the interview - in both interviewer and interviewees. Warren (2002) also notes the emotional costs for the interviewee and interviewer of some types of interviews. Patton (1990, p. 315) warns of the need to mask interviewer emotions and refrain from conveying judgement, "I cannot be shocked, I cannot be angered, I cannot be embarrassed, I cannot be saddened." In reflecting on the methodology he used for his doctoral study on emotions and organisational change, Poder (2004) admitted that in one interview he felt insecure and uncomfortable when an interviewee was expressing emotions and that this affected how he conducted that interview. Reporting on her

experience in interviewing, A. Clarke (2006) was hesitant to probe when she sensed it was inappropriate but also indicated that she was not always sure whether this was necessary or not. Some of her interviewees spoke in matter-of-fact ways about very emotional issues.

A very different approach is taken by Gubrium and Holstein (1997) and Ellis (1991) who call for what they respectively term 'emotionalism' and 'emotional sociology', which encourage researchers, in appropriate ways, to respond to the emotions of their subjects by sharing their own views, and their own emotions, so as to elicit, record and understand the emotional experience of both. I mostly avoided this approach but did show empathy and in a few cases admitted that I had experienced a similar situation.

When a participant releases emotion during an interview the interviewer needs both the sensitivity and skill to be able to respond appropriately so that harm is not unintentionally caused (A. Clarke, 2006). Brannen (1988) points out that interviews on sensitive issues can leave the interviewee vulnerable to three parties - the interviewee (who will re-engage in a potentially emotional issue), other people (including those from the same community or organisation), and the interviewer (who may exploit the interviewee). On the other hand, she also cautions researchers to be aware of the urge to 'help' the interviewee deal with the potentially stressful encounter. She recommends that researchers, who themselves may find the dynamics of the interview, and the material divulged, to be stressful, to seek their own forms of support, collegial and if necessary, professional. Arksey and Knight's (1999) guidelines on dealing with the emotional displays of participants were also followed. My participants were offered a list of counselling agencies should they need professional help. In retrospect, the interviews did not seem to be overly emotional experiences for the respondents. Some of them got quite heated, particularly in recalling injustice, others admitted a degree of embarrassment or shame in the way they had acted, but none showed stress in the interview, although they might have done so when the changes had actually occurred.

Guba and Lincoln (1998) argue that ethics is intrinsic to a constructivist paradigm and warn of problems that may arise around matters of confidentiality and anonymity. Lee (1993), however, provides detailed guidelines on how confidentiality can be maintained so that readers are unable to discern the identities of the respondents or their employers. In describing the participants in this study I have striven to conceal their identities and those of their organisations. Clearly it is up to the researcher to

anticipate ethical issues and manage both expected and unexpected issues when they arise. In addition, before commencing the interviews, I completed the university's ethics application form in which I had to predict the types of issues that might arise and build in mechanisms to deal with them.

While dealing with qualitative information is a significant ethical concern there are other phases of the research process that need careful thought (Kvale, 1996; Lee, 1993). Interview questions need to be designed that will provide answers to the research questions. However, the questions have the potential to provoke embarrassment, shame and other emotions. While semi-structured interviews provide an opportunity for researchers into change to explore responses in some depth, caution needs to be exercised in delving into areas that may prove stressful for the interviewees.

3.6 Evaluating a Qualitative Study

Authors have pointed to the different lenses which researchers using various paradigms wear to evaluate the quality of any research study. Positivist approaches to data analysis are based on issues validity, reliability and objectivity or generalisability (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Parallels in qualitative research are considered by Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Lincoln (1995) to be credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Cresswell (1998) suggests that verification is a more appropriate concept than validity, even though the term means to prove or check the truth of something. People reporting on experience may provide verification of a theorised relationship, for example, anger resulting from injustice.

However, some researchers use the same language for qualitative research that is commonly used in quantitative research. For example, validity is essentially a concept from a positivist paradigm (Kvale, 1996; Mason, 2002) that researchers need to prove or demonstrate what they set out to do. Constructionists, according to Easterby-Smith et al. (2002, p. 53), ask the question, "Does the study clearly gain access to the experiences of those in the research setting." Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 11) assert that qualitative data analysis necessarily involves drawing conclusions and that "The meanings emerging from the data have to be *tested* for their plausibility, their sturdiness, their 'confirmability' - that is their *validity*" [authors' emphasis]. Grbich (2004, p. 53) takes the view that post-modern and post-structural approaches to validity have resulted in a shift from:

a focus on accuracy of measurement of the defined area (quantitative) or a demonstration of

the attainment of truth of the matter (qualitative) and now lies in a move away from defined criteria with no pretence of outcomes of prediction or generalisability.

Hyde (2002), however, believes that one of the goals of the qualitative researcher is to expand on and generalise theories, but not to predict the frequency of a phenomenon.

In an interview context validity “means whether the interview study investigates what is intended to be investigated” (Kvale, 1996, p. 88). I am satisfied that the answers I obtained helped me develop a good understanding of the emotions people experienced during change, and what their causes and consequences were. The qualitative equivalents of validity are plausibility (Miles & Huberman, 1994) or credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1995) and the responses of participants in my study did appear to fit these terms. In one case, however, I questioned, privately and then openly, one participant’s contention that a change for him was not an emotional experience, because at various times in the interview he had used terms such as excitement, passion, stress, comfort and enjoyment.

Seidman (2006, p. 24) prefers to interview people three times over a maximum of three weeks, which, he believes, helps to enhance validity by getting participants to “account for idiosyncratic ways and to check on the internal consistency of what they say.” While this may be a useful approach it is not always practical; it demands the time of both interviewer and interviewee. I was aware that in 60 to 90 minutes I could not explore every research question in depth and that more interviews could provide extra depth. I was also conscious that re-interviewing people to gain deeper insight into some of the responses, or to clarify certain aspects, would have provided very useful information. However, I stuck to the one-off formula and the internal consistency that Seidman, (2006) refers to was at times checked spontaneously during the course of the interviews.

Reliability is traditionally taken to mean that a person will produce the same answers regardless of when he or she is asked (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). Kvale (1996), however, uses the terms reliability and validity under the umbrella of verification. Interviews, especially those done in different organisations, provide insight into personal experience, and illuminate the perceived antecedents and consequences of various change events. For example, interviews on change will not produce ‘proof’ that injustice causes anger, but will verify that some people did feel anger because of some aspects of change outcomes or processes. Holstein and Gubrium (2004) comment that a quantitative concept of reliability means that the same answers will be produced on

different occasions, but that in a qualitative framework one cannot expect this consistency since the circumstances may vary. For example, it is likely that when interviewed on change a person's mood on one day may be somewhat different to that on another day. These moods could influence the emotions and moods they recall experiencing in the context of the change (Sakaki, 2007). Reliability in a qualitative enquiry, according to Mason (2002), means that the researcher strives for thoroughness, carefulness, honesty and accuracy, and according to Knight (2002), it means consistency in the way interviews are conducted. From a constructionist perspective, Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) consider it to represent the transparency in how sense was made of the data.

In determining generalisability Easterby-Smith et al. (2002, p. 30) ask, "Do the concepts and constructs derived from this study have any relevance to other settings?" Mason (2002) provides a detailed examination of how researchers can argue their case for generalisability of their findings. She suggests that the strongest approach is one which rigorously provides comparisons from different contexts and which "uses rather than glosses over specificity and difference" (p. 197). Appropriate comparison of empirical qualitative material to similar data gathered by other researchers lends weight to claims of generalisability.

While the data from interviews with a relatively small number of people (24 in my study) do not encourage me to make a strong claim to generalisability, it is reasonable to suggest that, using Easterby-Smith et al.'s (2002) concept, one could say, for example, that if a phenomenon like restructuring is identified by two-thirds of my respondents as producing strong emotional reactions, the findings could be termed generalisable. However in doing so one is playing the game by quantitative rules.

Individual readers may take differing positions on how generalisable one isolated response may be. However, an important point is that an interpretivist/constructionist approach to research can uncover how individuals experienced a phenomenon (such as an organisational change) and what underpinned the experience, rather than speculating on how most others might have reacted. A person may have had a reaction to an event that others may not have had but this is not an indictment of the research process. Rather it would be revelation of a unique reaction to an experience. People do not react to events in identical ways and one of the lessons practitioners (and academics) could learn from reading idiographic accounts of organisational change is that people cannot be predicted to act in the same ways and that

idiosyncratic reactions may realistically be expected.

To conclude the methodology section, I was pleased that the interviews yielded a wealth of useful material that would allow me to analyse the participants' affective responses to change, and their cognitive antecedents and behavioural outcomes. I appreciated their willingness to discuss personal issues, especially those they found particularly difficult. The social constructionist approach to analysing interview data confirmed that individual responses to organisational change are in many ways moulded by the social forces that participants experience at work and in other aspects of their lives.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS – THE DEDUCTIVE PHASE

4.1 Introduction

The broad aims of this study are to investigate the impact of emotion on the experience of change at the individual level, to examine these experiences from the perspectives of people who play different change-related roles, to identify the causes and consequences of emotional responses, and to explore the strategies individuals use to cope with the change events and the ensuing emotions.

The findings and discussion are presented in two parts. In this chapter I analyse responses to the 13 research questions, drawn deductively from the literature and the resultant model, and which deal with the factors that were theorised to impact on responses to change. Given the focus on resistance in much of the change literature a special section will be devoted to it at the end of this section. In the next chapter I move into inductive analysis to examine other factors that emerged in the interviews.

4.2 Method of Analysis

Data is a term that has been shown to have many different meanings (Thomas, 2006). In quantitative studies it is, by definition, conceptualised in numerical terms. In qualitative terms, however, “data are categorized and examined for patterns and themes that can be integrated into narrative accounts” (Thomas, 2006, p. 91). The approach to analysis in this study allowed for individual experiences to be given voice and a comparison of different responses to be made.

The interviews were transcribed by third parties and a number of steps were taken to develop a framework for interpreting the comments of the respondents. In the first step I listened to the tapes while reading the transcripts to ensure their accuracy. In the second step seven headings were inserted into the transcripts to group the interview questions into the 13 research questions, derived from the literature review, and embedded in the model. For example, interview questions 1 to 8 were on the type of change, outcomes and scale (Research Questions 1 and 2), 9 to 14 were on temporal issues (Research Question 3), 15 to 22 on justice (Research Question 4), and so on.

In the third step tables were drawn up that were based on the seven headings. The tables captured key points made by each participant or quotes by them. This allowed for an easy form of open coding (Cresswell, 1998). Coding was done at different levels. For example, outcomes were coded as favourable and unfavourable,

and for self and others. Similarly, four separate categories of organisational justice and three temporal dimensions of change were described in the literature review and responses were coded accordingly. In addition, on many occasions, when answering one question, participants referred to a construct covered in another question. For example, when discussing the nature of leadership a participant would raise the influence of organisational culture. Comments like this were noted in two (or more) of the relevant tables. Coding also allowed for concepts not directly embraced in the interview questions. For example, no questions were asked that specifically related to changes to the psychological contract. However, some respondents' answers revealed issues with regard to changes to perceived mutual obligations of employer and employee and these were linked to perceptions of fairness.

A fourth step was taken with the creation of another level of coding. For example, in the first table the types of change were coded in terms of Porras and Robertson's (1992) framework of characteristics of the work setting, or the targets of change (see Table 4 in the literature review). The purpose of this analysis was to ascertain whether the changes covered a range of situations and this was the case. Given that one change (such as a restructure) could trigger several other types of change, the number of types of change adds up to more than 24. There were 24 references to *Organizing Arrangements*, 17 to *Social Factors*, 6 to *Physical Setting* and 13 to *Technology*. Some of the interviews focused on one particular type of change but the participants may also have made passing reference to other types of change. Since interviewees selected different aspects of an organisational change, a detailed analysis of the 23 sub-categories in the Porras and Robertson model proved elusive and of questionable value in terms of understanding the affective responses to the changes. For example, one participant moved to a similar role in a company that had taken over his division of his original employer and relocated the manufacturing facility. This indicates that just about every sub-category in the model had changed, but not all were discussed during the interview. Nevertheless every one of the 23 sub-categories were discussed by at least one respondent. Of particular note, however, was the high number (22) of organisational restructurings that were reported on, with an attendant impact on job redesign. Interestingly, Porras and Robertson classify *Formal Structure* under *Organizing Arrangements*, and *Job Design* under *Technology*. Six participants were made redundant and 10 reported on the redundancies of others. It is likely that these more dramatic forms of change were the subject of the interview since they had made a

strong impression on the interviewees.

The fifth step of data analysis was the listing of the observation of key points that emerged from the analysis of the table. These would serve as the starting point for the writing up of the findings. The tables of data analysis are included in Appendix 3. They are essentially rough notes, quotes and observations.

The sixth step took place when I presented the supervisors of this thesis with copies of the sections of the transcripts that dealt with one of the research questions (on the temporal dimensions of change) and a table highlighting key responses from each of the respondents. We met to discuss the structure of the table and the themes that had emerged. This discursive process produced a conference paper (Smollan et al., 2007) and presented me with alternative methods of analysing the data and alternative interpretations of the respondent comments. While the joint process was not repeated, the lessons I learned were applied to the analysis of the other 12 research questions and the inductive research process. Therefore the seventh step took place when all seven tables had been drawn up, analysed and compared, so that key overarching themes and issues could be identified. These are reported in depth in both the deductive and inductive analyses of the data.

For the purposes of reporting responses the 24 participants are coded from A to Y (excluding I).

4.3 Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Responses to Organisational Change

It can be stated unequivocally that organisational change is an emotional event, with all 24 respondents reporting on affective reactions to various aspects of one change or a series of related changes. The emotions were elicited by cognitive processes as the respondents tried to make sense of the changes and assess how they would affect themselves and others. Most participants were able to regulate their emotions, or at least modify their emotional expression and other behavioural responses, but some did regret the nature of their actions and reflected that they wished they had acted differently. This aspect of the model was therefore confirmed and supports the cognitive appraisal theories of Lazarus (1991, 1993, 1999) and Scherer (1999) that appraisal of situations triggers emotion as people consider their wellbeing and how to cope with the situations.

What follows now is a detailed reporting of how each of the 13 factors in the model contributed to cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change. The first set of variables are those directly relating to the change itself, followed

by factors in the individual, perceived factors relating to leaders and managers of change and factors in the organisation.

Variables Mediating Cognitive Responses to Change

Perceived Favourability of Outcomes of Change

Research Question 1a: How does perceived favourability of the outcomes of change mediate cognitive evaluations of the change?

Research Question 1b: What affective responses occur as a result of these evaluations?

In the literature review outcomes of change were categorised in terms of their nature, timeframe and focus by individuals on themselves and other stakeholders. With reference to these concepts outcomes are evaluated by people involved in organisational change as favourable (positive), unfavourable (negative), a combination of the two (mixed or ambivalent), or neither, and these cognitive responses are accompanied by affective responses.

In the first category, the nature of change, participants in this research study generally noted a combination of favourable and unfavourable outcomes. With reference to positive material outcomes, L experienced pride and relief on finally winning a role she had to contest with another employee, O was content to obtain a new job while also receiving redundancy pay and F was pleased to move to a new career within the company. Participants were disappointed or distressed with negative material outcomes. For example, C was allocated a shabby office, B was given remuneration that was not commensurate with the new project she was undertaking, and at times dealt with an unmanageable workload, D and K were made redundant and V was suspended and later fired. These losses were particularly difficult to manage on an emotional level.

Regarding the non-material outcomes, E and R, who were senior human resource managers, reported that being involved in a major change delivered favourable outcomes of better relationships, higher credibility and more influence. Conversely, A, a senior manager, felt “disenfranchised” by the change since he had not been consulted, as would have been the case in the past, and P, also a senior manager, was likewise angry and frustrated when she and colleagues were rarely consulted in a takeover. H felt humiliated in a takeover by being relegated from a general management position, and subsequently excluded from board meetings and some social functions. Fairness issues,

which will be pursued in more depth in research Question 4, can be as much about material as non-material outcomes.

The second category of outcomes relates to timeframes and was very relevant to some participants. Most noted a combination of both positive and negative outcomes but the ramifications often only became apparent over time. For example, B initially found involvement in a restructuring a good career opportunity and was very “energised”, but also reported that the demands of the process “pushed me to the point where I broke and it changed my life”. The demands included a huge interim workload and difficult interactions with staff in the absence of managerial support. Conversely, D was distressed and shocked at suddenly being made redundant but in retrospect found that it helped kick-start a new career. Similarly, F found the transition phase of a restructuring exercise “bloody horrible”, partly due to the uncertainty as to his future role, but was pleased to move to a completely different department and a change in career direction. L also had to ride out a long and “dark” period of uncertainty regarding her role but felt proud that she had emerged from the period with an enhanced position and reputation. V had to wait more than two years before he won a court case about his dismissal. In most of the above situations the respondents were change recipients, even those in management positions. In Research Question 3 I deal in detail with the impact of temporal issues of organisational change but it should be briefly noted here that the outcomes of change might be known to employees or uncertain. Over time, as the outcomes are clarified, and the implications are manifested, the cognitive and emotional responses may change.

In the third category, participants were asked to describe outcomes for themselves and others and comment on their favourability. Those who did well out of the change, such as by gaining improved roles or enhanced reputations, commented on how pleased and proud they were. Those who were disadvantaged by the change were naturally negative. Participants’ emotional reactions were also evident when appraising the consequences for others but these reactions were generally more muted and took the form of concern. Those who had managed redundancies were acutely aware of the consequences for those who were laid off and described the negative affective reactions of the victims as shock, grief, anger, stress and anxiety. As Q admitted about the outcomes of restructuring, job design and redundancies, “We had to hurt people to achieve it.” These change leaders and managers seemed to have more of an emotional investment when they could make an impact on others’ outcomes. G and P expressed

pride that they had staged processes that were ethical and produced no personal grievances and G was particularly pleased when victims praised the way he had acted. Some, like E and M, spoke of embarrassment when aspects of a process had been poorly handled by others.

Affection and concern for others are altruistic emotions but also have implications for the wellbeing of both parties to a relationship. For example, people who had managed downsizing, such as E and N, were very concerned about the impact on victims. L was put in the invidious position of having to spend several years duelling for a senior role with a colleague who finally left. In addition to her own anxiety, and anger at having been put in this situation, she also demonstrated real consideration for the feelings of the other person and for the loss of the relationship which they had previously developed. O, who negotiated her own early redundancy prior to probably being laid off, spoke of the anger she felt when team mates were not being shown due concern and were expressing signs of stress.

People also compare themselves to others. The negative emotions of envy and anger can arise when others have gained and the individual has lost something because of a change, while guilt occurs when one has been advantaged and others not, particularly if fairness concerns play a role. W managed a restructure and redundancy process and reported that some people, unjustifiably in his opinion, thought they were being victimised, particularly when new people with different types of skill were being recruited. When H was relegated from a general management position after an ownership change, she was dismayed when told to report to someone new, who for a short time had reported to her and who had considerably less industry experience. Positive emotions such as pride and happiness can also result when one has favourable outcomes despite unfair procedures that could have benefited others. The potential outcomes for F and L, referred to above, forced them to compare themselves with others who were line for the same position. L felt relief and pride, and even spoke of elation, at obtaining the job when the rival left before management had made its decision, but also expressed empathy for the rival's situation. F was pleased and relieved to have negotiated redeployment before management made a decision on the best candidate for the redesigned role.

Participants also commented on the favourability of outcomes for stakeholders other than their subordinates or peers, such as for their own immediate supervisors - "it was the one secret pleasure I got out of seeing him uncomfortable over it" (D); senior

management in general - “they wanted to get rid of a lot of people” (B); the organisation itself - “the results are starting to show that we did the right thing” (S); new owners - “they had an inside man in the business” (H), and external stakeholders - V wanted to let external stakeholders of a community-based organisation know what impact a restructuring of his organisation might have on them. Emotions expressed related to the specifics of the situation and while some participants sounded very bitter, others were reasonably neutral or proud if they had achieved positive outcomes for others.

Summary of findings and discussion

The nature of change-related outcomes, in the short-, medium- and long-term, for self and others, unleashed a range of positive and negative reactions, cognitive and affective. The nature of the comments of respondents supports the findings of other research studies that the perceived favourability of the outcomes of change contributes substantially to emotional reactions (e.g. Kiefer, 2002b; Matheny & Smollan, 2005). Findings in the three categories of outcomes also confirm many of the results of previous research.

In the first category, the nature of the outcomes, both the material and non-material were important to the respondents. In researching the psychological contract Lester and Kickul (2001) found that eight of the ten most important outcomes to employees were material or intrinsic, such as opportunities to promotion and advancement, trust and respect, open and honest communication and fair treatment. But regardless of ranking, Kickul et al. (2002) found that contract breach during radical change produced negative behavioural responses to both types of outcomes.

Many of my participants negative emotions arose from a feeling of loss, both in material and non-material terms. Wolfram Cox (1997) showed how loss in factory staff undergoing change evoked resentment, sadness and gloom. In the current study, while the loss of participants’ jobs through redundancy or dismissal was the most potent form, loss of power, status and authority were also triggers of negative emotions, as they contributed to a sense of erosion of self-identity, consequences suggested in the conceptual work of Fineman (2003) and Carr (1999). Loss can be the start of a grieving process that evolves through a variety of emotions (Kübler-Ross, 1969) as people come to terms with the implications of the change.

In the second category of change outcomes (timeframes), as the implications became more manifest over the duration of the change, cognitive, affective and

behavioural responses varied. Isabella's (1990) empirical study indicates the various sense making processes people engage in when coming to terms with change as it unfolds. The current study also reinforces the affective responses. A number of my participants used Kübler-Ross' (1969) term grief cycle, or the words anger, shock and denial that are included in it. The phases of the emotional rollercoaster effect depicted in the various models of change reported by Elrod and Tippett (2000) partly reflect the phases of change - anticipation, announcement, planning, implementation and aftermath.

The third category of change refers to the separation of outcomes for self and others. Lau and Woodman (1995) found that a proposed change was viewed by employees in terms of how it would affect their jobs, rather than on how it would affect the organisation. Vince (2006) found a similar reaction to an organisational change (a takeover) in senior and middle managers and the affective responses were more intense for participants' own outcomes both in his research and the current study. Cognitive approaches to the study of emotion (e.g. Frijda, 1988; Lazarus, 1991) note that the significance of an event for an individual is a predictor of the intensity of the emotional response. However, some participants did admit to strong emotions when dealing with others' negative outcomes such as downsizing. This mirrors the reported reactions of managers of downsizing who found the exercise extremely draining but who also empathised with the victims (Clair & Dufresne, 2004; Gandolfi, 2008). When the outcomes for oneself can only be achieved at the expense of others, or vice versa, emotions of guilt, pride, jealousy and envy occur. In having to contest a role with another, L encountered both positive and negative emotions till she finally won the position. Her mixed emotions were related partly to the outcomes, partly to the perceived injustice of the process. The relationships between emotions, outcomes and justice were demonstrated in an experimental study by Cropanzano et al. (2000). In one of the earliest theories of distributive justice, Adams (1965) makes the point that people frequently compare themselves to others and respond on cognitive, affective and behavioural levels. Justice issues will be reported in more depth in Research Question 4.

In conclusion, the results of the current study indicate that various aspects of employee outcomes contribute to employee responses and some become more salient during change processes. An additional key point that emerged from the findings was that where people were leading or managing change they had greater control over their own outcomes and were therefore more pleased with what eventuated. Conversely,

when change was imposed it tended to produce poorer material and non-material outcomes, such as a less challenging job and a deflated sense of self.

Perceived Scale of the Change

Research Question 2a: How do perceptions of the scale of change mediate cognitive evaluations of the change?

Research Question 2b: What affective responses occur as a result of these evaluations?

Many of the participants in this study considered the changes they experienced as large-scale and used terms like big, significant, massive, huge and even “life-changing”. In some cases they were referring to the change for themselves, some for other people and some for the organisation. Several participants reported on restructuring, a number of which resulted in redundancies affecting a sizeable number of people. Some reflected on changing corporate strategies such as takeovers and mergers, or changes in functional strategies, such as in distribution or human resources, that affected many employees. These types of change are bound to be viewed as large in scale because of the significance of the outcomes or the wide scope of those affected. When major change occurs for a number of parties the emotional stakes are raised. W noted he had to simultaneously manage three significant change initiatives in different parts of the business. While this represented an interesting personal challenge, it was also a sizeable one, and he also knew that some of the staff would find the change threatening, particularly those who had already experienced considerable change in the past (an issue explored in Research Question 3).

A common theme was detected in the nature of the emotional reactions to the size of the change - they were stronger when individual outcomes were considered. These impacts (which were noted in the findings for Research Question 1, favourability of outcomes) had longer-term considerations, such as the perceived nature of the role, and shorter-term considerations, such as the extra effort that would be required in the process of change implementation.

A few respondents acknowledged that the change was big for the organisation but had little impact on their own jobs. U, for example, was a sales assistant in a retail organisation that merged with another, but since her job and working conditions were substantially unaffected, she experienced very little emotion, particularly when it had been announced very early in the process that there would be no redundancies and

minimal change at the operational level. But she did assert, “They didn’t pay attention to how we feel, because they just paid attention to the big things and not the small things.” Some leaders and managers of change acknowledged that strategic changes were significant at the organisational level, and had major implications for individuals or groups of people, but little impact on themselves, apart from the extra effort necessary in managing the change process. Curiously, even C, who moved to new premises when his division was taken over by another company, and was disappointed that his job (perhaps temporarily) had less challenge, said that the change was not that big since the product range and manufacturing processes were the same. In contrast, some interviewees acknowledged that the change was big for them but not for the organisation. J, for example, said that a change in a pricing approach, on the face of it a minor change, was a big change since it created significant difficulties for the department he managed.

Change of a substantial nature requires a process of sense-making as individuals tend to review and revise existing schemata. R encountered considerable resistance to change from partners in a professional services firm which moved to a more conventional corporate model and which then introduced a series of changes that dramatically changed other aspects of its culture. In K’s organisation employees in some roles had to either take the role of contract consultants or face redundancy.

The scale of the change triggered intense emotions for some participants. V was suspended, then dismissed, and two years later won a court case for unfair dismissal. He used a large number of negative emotion words in recalling the experience - sad, gloomy, angry, hopeless, pain, heartache and anguish. Redundancy, a big change for anybody who is laid off, can naturally produce a strong sense of loss, accompanied by anger at the outcome and/or process, and anxiety about future employment. D spoke of shock, distress and betrayal at the announcement of immediate redundancy. The term uncertainty was used by most of those involved in downsizing, be they managers of the process, the victims or the survivors, and was strongly associated with anxiety. O said the process was stressful for her and traumatic for others. K reflected that it had a huge impact, it gets “you out of your comfort zone...What do you do with your life?” and spoke of the anxiety of meeting family commitments, such as paying the mortgage. Given that the names of victims of redundancy are often not known for some time, and this was the case for some of the participants, their emotions moved from anxiety to anger, sadness or surprise. Survivors experienced anxiety then relief, but also sadness

for those leaving and sometimes anger at management. Those managing redundancies also experienced negative emotions, particularly regret and sadness. As E recalled, “I have never been so exhausted in my entire life and so depressed, because we had shattered so many lives.”

The intensity of the emotion is also related to the extent people think they can cope with the change. While a more detailed treatment of this concept will be explored later in this chapter (Research Question 6 - disposition, and Research Question 7 - previous experience of change) it seems logical that the larger the change the more chance there is that people may think they cannot meet the challenges required, and feel a sense of inadequacy and anxiety. B was stressed by the overload of time and responsibility and the abuse she had to deal with and felt she was “drowning”. Change self-efficacy plays a role in the cognitive and affective responses to the size of the change. R, who managed a series of transformational changes involving structure, culture, remuneration and performance management, spoke on the one hand of the inspiration and excitement from managing the change, and on the other of the “shock and horror” of having “so many balls in the air” and the anxiety that one would drop. Despite the pressure she was confident she could cope. Most respondents who were change leaders or managers reported being confident that they could deal with the requirements of change.

Summary of findings and discussion

A wide range of factors therefore contributes to perceptions of the scale of a change and the adjustment that is required. Firstly, the size of the change was viewed by a number of participants in terms of its personal impact. In the previous research question on change outcomes it was noted that personal outcomes are usually viewed as more meaningful than those for other staff or the organisation and this also applies to perceptions of scale.

The literature on sense-making and change, which is substantially about cognitive processes, describes the need of individuals to review and revise existing schemata (Lau & Woodman, 1995; George & Jones, 2001). Change theorists have used the term third-order change (Bartunek & Moch, 1987) and gamma change (Golembiewski et al., 1975; Porras & Silvers, 1991) to capture the nature of radical change where the schemata themselves are changing. An illustration of this is R’s account of the difficulties of partners of a professional services firm during its transition

to a corporate decision-making approach. On a smaller scale, but one that was nevertheless big for those involved, police officers in Colletette et al.'s (2006) research reported that an information technology change was seen as large scale because of the need to acquire new skills and make adjustments to the way in which some of the work was done. The negative reactions to downsizing of participants in this study are similar to those reported in other studies (e.g. Ryan & Macky, 1998; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Barclay et al., 2005) as people struggle to come to terms with a major loss.

Secondly, the emotional responses to radical change that were reported by participants in the current study confirm the findings of Huy (2002), Mossholder et al. (2000) and Robinson and Griffiths (2005) that radical change, partly because of its unpredictability, has strong affective overtones, mostly negative. In her study of a merger Kiefer (2002b) found a number of reasons for negative emotions. Employees experienced frustration when some element of the change went wrong, anger over increased workloads and anxiety about possible redundancies and coping with new demands.

Thirdly, other factors also play a role in participant responses to the size of a change. For some employees in the current study their cognitive and affective responses to large scale change were also influenced by dispositional factors, such as change self-efficacy, locus of control and optimism. Previous research (e.g. Jimmieson et al., 2004; Caldwell et al., 2004; Wanberg & Banas, 2000) has shown how these factors can impact on cognitive responses to large scale change, but has not specifically addressed the affective responses. This will be dealt with in this study more fully in Research Question 6. The scale of a change can also be seen, as in the case of R, to be a series of ongoing changes, which will be analysed in Research Question 7, previous experience of change. Continuing change adds to the perception of a large-scale change that could potentially lead to stress, burnout and resistance as Kiefer (2005) and Halbesleben and Buckley (2004) have reported.

It is therefore helpful now to look at how the temporal dimensions of change, namely frequency, timing and speed, trigger cognitive evaluations and affective reactions.

The Perceived Frequency, Timing and Speed of the Change

Research Question 3a: How do aspects of frequency, timing and speed of change mediate cognitive evaluations of the change?

Research Question 3b: What affective responses occur as a result of these evaluations?

Frequency, speed and timing are three discrete dimensions of organisational change but can overlap (for example, introducing an additional change too quickly can embrace all three) and combine to influence cognitive and affective responses.

The frequency of the change

Several participants had experienced a number of work-related changes over time. The ongoing changes led by R, and her positive and negative emotional reactions, were detailed in Research Question 2. W, also a senior manager, anticipated that a restructuring would be unpleasant for many staff. Not only would some of the outcomes be difficult to accept but this development also followed other changes that had occurred. S felt excitement in the management of regular change but did not experience negative emotions. Nevertheless, mostly negative emotions surfaced in participants dealing with ongoing change. C spoke of “quantum changes in owners and the sense of direction of the company”, and how this had affected his sense of job security. F referred to his organisation as “change weary” and “punch drunk” from a history of changes, but did not admit to negative emotions of his own. Similarly, N, who was brought in at senior level to oversee a major change, commented:

I've seen a couple of people in the last few months elect to leave the business because of the degree of change and they've said that the reason why they've left is that there's been too much change in this organisation over a period of time. And some of these people...have been in roles for 10 or 15 years [and are]...brow beaten. Change is cool, we all accept that, but it's the frequency and the degree of it, and that degree of uncertainty...[that have] a significant emotional impact on people.

Some believed that ongoing change was normal, evidenced by P's contention that “this sector is used to change...we take it as part of the game.”

The timing of the change

Only a few participants identified timing of the change, or a phase of it, as an issue

either for themselves or others. E commented that it is difficult to identify the right time for a change but that people do get more weary towards the end of the year. However, the change was completed just before Christmas but did not have much emotional impact on himself or others. U, a retail assistant, found that the timing of a merger was good because although it had been completed just before Christmas little change would take place at the operational level where she worked and because all staff were able to process the change before a very busy period.

In managing redundancies a factor that played some role was the timing of the announcement of those who were to be laid off. G, a senior manager, believed that it was unfair to lay off people by closing a branch just before Christmas but that the delay in doing so meant that head office managers were put under extra pressure to balance costs and revenues over a longer period than desirable. C, also a senior manager, reflected that the timing of a relocation and retrenchment of staff done just before Christmas undermined people's enjoyment of the holiday season but enabled them to save money and plan for the future. On a personal level the timing had little impact but he ventured the opinion that it could not have come at a worse time for the business itself. B was "absolutely furious" when an agreed schedule was changed at very short notice by the CEO. Her anger was partly triggered by what she considered was an unfair outcome, a huge extra workload she had to deal with immediately, and partly by the perceived unfairness of a unilateral process.

The speed of the change

Respondents fell into four categories: those who thought the change was too fast, those who believed it was too slow, those who thought that the pace was acceptable and those who found it difficult to evaluate.

Change was considered too quick when it gave those affected too little time to either do the work that was required, as in B's case, or to adjust to the change on a psychological level, as in U's experience. The latter reported that when a company she had worked for had been put into liquidation, staff had been extremely surprised to come to work one day to find that locks had been put on the doors, when they had been told that the process would take weeks longer. O, who was a change recipient, felt at the end of a change that it was "freefall" and that she was powerless to do anything about it. D, a professional, was shocked and angry when told that her division was being closed and that she was to be made redundant with immediate effect. Having fought her

employer over the date of her departure, which took several months, she commented, “I cannot work out in my own mind, having gone through it, whether it’s better to have it done quickly or consulted with and done slowly. I mean both are bad.” Similarly, V, a non-manager, was surprised to be called into a staff meeting to hear that his job was to be disestablished. He contacted various external stakeholders to inform them of developments and was stunned when he was suspended the next day for this action. Change was also considered too quick when it denied respondents the opportunity to contribute to change decisions. A, a senior manager, felt “disenfranchised” that in a restructuring process a division he had built up over many years was “gone in the blink of an eye.”

Change was considered too slow by change leaders and managers who experienced frustration that the plan was taking too long to be implemented, and that it was taking too long for others to ‘get the picture’ and demonstrate the required behaviours. W called it the “marathon effect”, a term he admitted he had read about, (possibly in Bridges, 2003, p. 65). The frontrunners in large city marathons are well down the road while others are still standing at the start, waiting for those in front of them to give them space to move. Some change recipients were also affected by a slow pace. People who anticipate bad news, such as in a redundancy, want finality and, if need be, to start the process of job-hunting immediately or exploring other options. Q remarked that some staff were saying, “Can you hurry up and make the decision and give me the money, because I’ve already bought a business or I’m doing this or that.” V was dismissed two months after his suspension but eventually won compensation in a court case more than two years later. Of these last two phases he said:

I just really wanted it to be over and after a two-year period there’s only so much emotional hurt that you can go through and uncertainty and it was almost like closure, just knowing that it was over and that I could move on. It was really, really, difficult during that period of time.

One change manager suggested that “delay causes pain”, another that “uncertainty can demoralise people”. One who was privy to certain information about a change, felt guilty that he could not reveal it to those who would be affected by it, and when he did confide in some of his colleagues he experienced some anxiety that this could reach the ears of his fellow executives and be deemed a breach of confidence. A few managers commented that some of their staff believed that change was too fast and some believed that it was too slow, and that perceptions depended on the context of the change or the personalities of the staff.

Summary of findings and discussion

A number of important points on the three temporal dimensions of change emerge. Firstly, people's differing "prevailing temporal agendas" (Blount & Janicik, 2001, p. 570) influence how they cognitively and affectively react to change. Each person construes organisational rhythms and routines from their own perspectives, in particular how they impact on their own work. Change leaders, managers and agents may have different temporal agendas to other stakeholders of the change and need to be aware of this. W's frustration that many staff, including middle management, took too long to grasp the need for change was understandable, particularly since time had been invested in explaining the importance of the change. Different agendas may be partly determined by personality traits, which will be explored in more depth in Research Question 6. B, for example, claimed that she liked fast change and other participants observed that they were comfortable with change, even ongoing change. Nevertheless, when B's CEO changed the schedule of announcement of redundancies she became angry. Blount and Janicik (2001) maintain that people dislike 'hastening' (a concept involving both speed and timing) if it negatively affects their work schedules. The increasing velocity of change (Cameron, 2006) can, according to Leiter and Maslach (2001), contribute to burnout. Nearly half of the respondents to a survey of nurses indicated that change took place too quickly (Ball, 2006). While a fast change maintains momentum (Jansen, 2004) and salience (Meyer & Stensaker, 2006), over a long period it can lead to change fatigue (Meyer & Stensaker, 2006).

Secondly, temporal issues can be also be affected by other factors, such as perceptions of leadership and justice. Of relevance here are the experiences of B and V described above, and also those of F and L, who had to wait a long time to have the nature of their roles confirmed. Riolli and Savicki's (2006) study showed that when members of a group had been given detailed information about the need for a rapid change and the chance to raise questions, they experienced much less burnout than those in the control group who had been given little information and no chance to participate. They concluded that perceptions of procedural justice (to be covered in the next research question) and leadership (Research Question 9) had a significant impact.

Thirdly, even though some people like change, handling too much of it can have deleterious effects. Participants often noted the negative effects on others of ongoing change but most seemed to be able to deal with it themselves. Rahe et al. (2000) found that an accumulation of both positive and negative life changes, inside and outside

work, could lead to stress. Frequency of organisational change has been found to cause negative emotional responses and reduce acceptance of change (Woodward & Hendry, 2004; Kiefer, 2005; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Herold et al., 2007). Change weariness was reported by a number of respondents in Connell and Waring's (2002) research and by Huy (2001) in his analysis of GE. There is a difference between change weariness and the more extreme burnout, the latter evidenced by emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Of the 24 participants, in the current study only B seemed to show signs of burnout, using the phrases "pressure cooker finally bursting" and "I burnt out." According to Russell (1980) lay people often have a different understanding of psychological concepts, and B's story is an example of self-reported burnout. That said, it cannot be stated that ongoing change by itself led to her burnout, but it did contribute to it. The major causes in this case were a very heavy workload for a relatively inexperienced person who had to manage a negative type of change, redundancies, with inadequate management support, and who felt an overriding sense of injustice. This reinforces an earlier point that other factors may be relevant.

Fourthly, a key issue that surfaced for many of the participants was the lack of control over aspects of the change. Their dissatisfaction with some of the temporal dimensions of change in many cases stemmed from their inability to control other aspects of the change, not merely the frequency, pace or timing, and this was exacerbated when they expected to have exerted more influence. Control over one's life is a powerful psychological driver for people (Rotter, 1990; Ashforth, 2001) and, when denied, creates additional tensions.

Fifthly, a distinction needs to be made between individual reactions to changes that take place *over* time and the reactions *because of* some element of time. With regard to the former, reactions such as denial, anger and accommodation, which Elrod and Tippett (2002) found in many rollercoaster models of change, could in many cases occur *regardless* of the frequency, timing or speed of change.

Finally, heed should be taken of Huy's (2001) advice that individuals' inner or subjective time become important when leaders and managers plan and implement change. They need to take account of the type of change, previous or concurrent changes, and other organisational, departmental and personal priorities, in determining, not only when or how quickly change must be implemented, but what type of leadership style they should employ.

Perceived Justice of Change

Research Question 4a: How do perceptions of organisational justice mediate cognitive evaluations of the change?

Research Question 4b: What affective responses occur as a result of these evaluations?

Perceptions of fairness and unfairness played an important role in most participants' cognitive and affective responses to the change they described. Justice issues have already underpinned some of the responses to the first three research questions. In the literature organisational justice has been separated into a number of discrete categories with some evidence that there are four main types: distributive, procedural, informational and interpersonal (Colquitt, 2001). Participants were specifically questioned about these forms of justice as they related to an organisational change, and asked to describe the emotions they consequently felt.

Distributive justice

Perceptions of distributive justice (which is about the outcomes of decisions) were related to a number of aspects of an organisational change and were of varying degrees of importance. Justice in the context of gains and losses was seen from both material and non-material perspectives.

Participants were satisfied or pleased with fair material outcomes, for example where they benefited from a good redundancy payout or a better role. Those who experienced unfavorable material outcomes were disappointed, angry and frustrated. C thought it was unfair to be given a shabby office in a relocation, B felt the same about a lower salary and heavier workload, in moving into the downsizing project, and X was unhappy with more expensive or less convenient parking options. Stronger emotions were expressed when consequences were more severe, especially for those whose jobs were lost or downgraded through restructuring. Some respondents experienced mixed outcomes with varying perceptions of fairness, and mixed emotions. For example, L was initially "undermined" by having to share a role she previously held alone, but two years later was "euphoric" at securing the role for herself when the other person resigned.

The fairness of non-material outcomes due to changes in status produced positive and negative emotions. Some were proud that they had emerged from the

change with enhanced reputations and more influence. On the other hand, H was appalled at being relegated to a lower status role in a takeover, and P was angry and frustrated that:

our function was being devalued, the name was being changed which didn't recognise what we felt we actually did and I suppose emotionally that had a huge demoralising effect on the team, on myself. And you know, who wants to work for an organisation that actually doesn't understand the importance of what you do?

Positive evaluations of fairness and the resultant emotions often occurred in situations where people gained from the change and negative reactions when they did not. E, a change leader and manager, suggested that "When people feel they have lost something the element of fairness comes into it". According to A, who was a senior manager, but in this case was a change recipient, "things that seem fair and equitable when you're benefiting from them don't seem quite so fair afterwards when you're not." Participants expressed different views on the convergence of favourability and fairness of outcomes. Even some who were made redundant confessed that although the outcome was unfavourable it was not unfair. Losing one's job in a restructuring was perceived to be unfair by others (including those who managed the process), in the sense that people often lost their jobs without doing anything to deserve it. F commented that:

If you were to take a legalistic, highly rational, mechanical definition around fairness, you would say yes it was fair because the restructuring process was built and driven by rational, mechanical criteria. In terms of emotional impact, very unfair...There were some opportunities that emerged from it, but I think the emotional cost around those was very significant.

Procedural justice

Respondents perceived many cases of procedural injustice. When L was told that she and a new employee would be given the same level of management position and that in due course one would take full control, she got very angry and anxious and cried. Similarly, F experienced anxiety during the early stages of a restructuring when it was unclear for a considerable length of time whether he or another manager would be given the position of departmental head.

Some negative perceptions were based on exclusion from decision-making. Lack of participation or 'voice' is a key issue because of the potential of poorer material and relational outcomes. However, participation can enhance perceptions of procedural

fairness even when outcomes are unfavourable. Participants who were senior managers were particularly angry about their lack of involvement, given that they expected to be included in major decisions, as they had been before. “I think my biggest distress is actually the process, because of lack of involvement, and a decision that had a major impact on my role being presented as a *fait accompli*” (A); “Decisions were already taken before they even came to us...not a transparent process...cut out of circulation of papers for comment” (P). Even at lower levels of management and among non-managers lack of involvement was sometimes a sore point. Consultation was “token” (F); “I was absolutely furious” when an agreed procedure was suddenly changed without consultation (B); “We were all treated as if you’re okay, these are your orders, you follow this and this and that. There was never a meeting...no consultation, no consent” (X).

Procedures were mostly seen as fair by those who led or managed the changes and who reported extensive consultation, a free exchange of views and a very supportive environment, particularly when redundancies were being implemented. Little emotion could be detected other than a sense of satisfaction or some pride that the processes had been done in a competent and ethical fashion. Some change recipients did not perceive unfair procedures even though their outcomes were unfavourable.

Perceptions of unethical behaviour triggered strong emotions. V was surprised and confused when his computer was removed and searched, and dismayed when he was suspended without being able to offer his observation of events. B was highly upset when faced with the prospect that employees might first hear of redundancies through the media (also an issue of informational injustice). X was distraught when he missed out on a promotion to someone with shorter tenure and by what he believed was a clear act of nepotism.

Informational justice

Absence of information made it more difficult for participants to deal with uncertainty, make correct decisions and communicate honestly. It was also be interpreted as undermining relationship issues. The provision of information about outcomes and procedures is vital to create trust and mitigate negative emotions. X claimed he was lied to about the reason he was given for missing out on promotion and cried about it in a meeting with his supervisor. P complained that “Nobody was talking to us about why these things were happening...I think this team felt that there wasn’t enough of a clear

or convincing rationale to explain why those things were happening.” A was satisfied with information about the nature of the change and the timeframe, but not the reason. O was happy at the initial amount of information given about a major restructuring but then resented the lack of continuity and what she viewed as a dishonest approach:

I think in the beginning it was really transparent...they had a project plan around the review and we had union representation on a steering committee. So in terms of that process I thought it was good because it was democratic and there were representatives and we had our own meetings as a union caucus and we'd get periodic reports. So I guess the process was good and the timing of the process and the fairness of it, but I guess when we got down to the nuts and bolts of someone actually losing their job, I found that there was a lot of camouflaging and they actually broke the protocol. The management did a couple of times because they sent out information before it had gone through the steering committee or that was out of sync with what was supposed to happen in their own timeframe document, and I guess in the end that was part of my justification for breaking it, because they broke theirs.

Explanations enhance perceptions of justice and not only influence acceptance of change, or alternatively minimise resistance, when outcomes are unfavourable, but can also mitigate negative emotions. If there is uncertainty and anxiety about the change, information may help to allay these fears and contribute to perceptions of justice. U, for example, felt relieved to hear at an early stage of a takeover that no jobs were threatened.

The timing and media of communication also influence perceptions of fairness. B was incensed when she heard that a major redundancy was to be announced by the CEO the following day. She believed this was unfair in various ways (for example, it was done without consultation and she had to work all night to get out redundancy notices) but in the context of informational injustice she was adamant that staff should not first learn of redundancies from the media.

People who are constrained in giving information about change can feel negative emotions, such as anxiety, if it reflects on their integrity, and frustration, anger or guilt if staff are disadvantaged by the lack of information. T believed that staff, who were relocated and engaged in a different line of work, had not been told of some of the difficulties they might encounter. B was both angry with the way employees were being treated and guilty because of the role she was required to play:

Some cynical decisions made with the intent to pull the wool over the employees' eyes and it annoyed me because they thought that the employees were so stupid that they couldn't see it and that just really pissed me off...I felt like I'd deceived people...I felt

compromised...I felt a bit dirty...I had been sullied...And I felt bad that I was having to go and spout this stuff but I knew it wasn't really the whole story. I had to cloak it in really nice terms.

E, an experienced change leader and manager, advises full disclosure wherever possible because:

the information would be act more of a settling thing than anything else because it was very clear then there were no other agendas....often change causes anxiety if people believe they've got some facts but there's more that they don't know and they should.

Sharing information and providing explanations for a change can create perceptions that change managers are neutral, honest, reasonable and sincere. Deception makes people angry and resentful. Yet in some cases managers can also be caught between the desire to act honestly and organisational approaches that constrain this. M felt guilty when he could not release information to his staff when restructuring processes were still being decided. "You know that you're not telling the whole truth...You've got to tell them lies." Similarly, C confessed:

It was a difficult time because frankly you know you're telling lies and because there's stuff there that you know about that you cannot just come out and divulge...Because people are protective and they know there's stuff going on. They see people looking round the factory in suits and they see lawyers in the office and you know there's all sorts of things that happen where they, the staff, perceive something is up, and so they ask you questions and you can't answer them. As I say, you've got to tell them lies.

Interpersonal justice

Perceptions of interpersonal justice revolve around issues of respect, politeness and dignity and tend to rely primarily on direct contact with a decision-making agent, usually one's immediate manager. They can also relate to the ways in which outcomes, procedures and information are communicated. Participants reported a mix of justice and injustice and positive and negative emotions. Those who were treated in a decent fashion expressed satisfaction. Recipients who believed that they were not treated with respect expressed stronger negative emotions. M was a senior manager involved in major restructuring but found that when he challenged the CEO, "he took everything like that as a threat and...he yelled and ranted and raved." M reflected that these outbursts made him feel devastated, angry, frustrated and weak. From the opposite perspective, managers and leaders of change were proud that they had handled interpersonal situations well, even when they were faced with hostile and abusive staff.

There were different interpretations of inappropriate behaviour and consequently

different emotions. When D was made redundant she observed that her boss felt very uncomfortable in discussing it with her, perhaps because he had been pressured by senior management into doing so, and would not look her in the eye. D felt some pleasure at her manager's discomfort, possibly as a counter to the anger and shock she was feeling at elements of distributive and procedural injustice. Without any apparent awareness of its affect, L's male boss announced "may the best man win", despite the fact that two females had to contend for a management position.

People can perceive interpersonal injustice with regard to the way they and others are treated. P, for example, reported that when the organisation was being taken over existing management was supportive but the new management was "cold-hearted". O said her own manager was very approachable but that the CEO was "cold and clinical". B commented on the different orientations of middle and senior management to a major redundancy. Whereas middle managers were considered to be caring of their staff and dealt with them appropriately:

senior management [were] completely cut off from and insensitive to the junior work force and just make stupid comments to the media. They just didn't think about the staff. At that point they were just so cut off from them. They never got out amongst the workforce. They never listened to them. They never interacted with them.

Summary of findings and discussion

A number of issues emerge from the findings on the fairness of change. Firstly, fairness was an important factor to most change recipients, with differing emphases on the four main types of justice, and there were more comments about injustice than justice. Conversely, most of those who led or managed change claimed that all types of justice were generally delivered, but some also noted that other change players held different perceptions. While positive perceptions of this nature may be an outcome of a self-serving bias (Gomm, 2004; Veal, 2005), my interpretation of their comments was that they had tried extremely hard to manage the change in fair ways. Most of these managers also saw fairness in the way they themselves had been treated by the organisation or their line managers.

Secondly, some participants equated personally favourable outcomes with fair outcomes, confirming the findings of a meta-analysis by Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) who define favourable outcomes in material terms. But others could accept that outcomes were negative but fair, stating that the organisation had the right to make decisions that disadvantaged them. A's wry observation that when he had benefitted

from previous decisions he tended to see them as fair, but not when matters went against him, is an indication that some people do not see fairness issues as simply black or white. Another point made by Brockner and Wiesenfeld is that unfavourable outcomes can be mitigated by perceptions of other procedural justice. Thibaut and Walker (1975) theorised that people see fairness when they give input to decisions and participate in making them. Some of the participants in the current study who managed redundancies and other types of negative changes, stressed the efforts they had made to inform and consult staff wherever they could. Those who were change recipients were incensed when they were denied participation or given inaccurate or too little information. Literature is replete with empirical studies of organisational change that show how participation and communication enhance fairness evaluations (e.g. Riolli & Savicki, 2006; Barclay et al., 2005; Korsgaard et al. 2002; Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Paterson & Cary, 2002). Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) interpreted their meta-analysis to indicate that procedural justice becomes more important than distributive justice when outcomes are negative as people query why their outcomes are poor. However, Lind (2001) has questioned this, citing evidence that people are more concerned with personal treatment than outcomes because the former can undermine relationships and self-identity. Evidence of this approach is how one of my participants, M, found it particularly disturbing when his boss lost his temper on several occasions, even though the incidents did not affect his material outcomes. Barclay et al. (2005) found that negative perceptions and emotions arise when people blame others for using unfair procedures in organisational change, even when they benefit from them. This type of situation was recounted by my participant, L, who finally secured a role for which she and another employee had to battle.

Thirdly, while positive emotions, such as pride and satisfaction, accompanied perceptions of justice, they tended to be more muted than the “hot and volatile” negative emotions resulting from perceived injustice (Bies & Tripp (2002, p. 210), such as anger and fear. Both B and Q referred to hostile and aggressive change recipients in situations where emotional contagion was evident and B spoke of her own fury at the injustice of the CEO’s approach to communicating downsizing information ahead of an agreed schedule. Barclay et al. (2005) indicate in their empirical study that the importance of the outcome to the individual is a major contributor to the intensity of the emotions associated with the various fairness elements of the situation.

Fourthly, participants were not always able to separate the emotions arising from

the different types of justice or injustice. In B's case her intense anger was due to her poor material outcomes (long working hours to get the information to victims before a media announcement - distributive justice), her non-material outcomes (exclusion from decision-making - procedural injustice), and because she had anticipated the impact on others (employees hearing bad news via the mass media - informational injustice). The incident was to her also an example of interpersonal injustice, with respect to herself and others, "because he had not honoured the agreement" and because "he felt so little of the employees." Similarly, D was shocked and angry about losing her job, the manner in which it was done and the way in which her manager had avoided eye contact with her, and admitted that her emotions resulted from a combination of types of injustice. Some participants identified specific types of justice, others used one element as a broad indicator of the fairness of the change. It is plausible, as Lind (2001) advises, that one salient feature may serve as a heuristic for overall fairness.

Fifthly, in some cases respondents reported on what they saw as unfair treatment which was not always related to the change, but in their minds it may have appeared to be. For example, X believed he was unfairly denied a day's sick leave by the manager who had unjustly been promoted above him.

Sixthly, cognitive and affective reactions to the fairness of change were partly influenced by perceived changes to the psychological contract. While this construct was not specifically raised in the interview questions, perceived breach or violation of the psychological contract was seen in each of the four types of injustice experienced by respondents. It is unsurprising that those managers who expected to be included in organisational change decisions, but were not, implied that this infringed their rights, an issue that has been well documented in the literature (e.g. Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001; Turnley & Feldman, 1998). Participation in decision-making was rated as an important item by MBA students in Lester and Kickul's (2001) study of psychological contracts. The emotions that arise depend on whether the contract was seen to have been inadvertently breached or deliberately violated (Robinson & Rousseau, 1997) and are more intense for violation. Violations during restructuring were common perceptions in a study conducted by Turnley and Feldman (1998), and several of my respondents particularly viewed redundancy or downgraded jobs as a violation of the psychological contract if they believed it was unjustified. D felt "betrayed" by the sudden termination of her employment, the same term used by Morrison and Robinson (1994) to depict employee reactions to psychological contract violation. Lack of information and

insensitive language and behaviour from management in a change context could also have been seen as a contract violation. Respondents to Lester and Kickul's (2002) survey listed open and honest communication, support from management, trust and respect as contract items.

Finally, lack of control over change processes outcomes again emerges as a key factor in the participants' cognitive and affective reactions to change, partly because exclusion from decision-making is seen as procedurally unfair, partly because it undermines influence over the favourability and fairness of change outcomes (Thibaut & Walker, 1975).

In conclusion, fairness was a very important element to most participants but the interviews and the literature (e.g. Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Lind, 2001; Barclay et al., 2005) remain ambiguous and inconsistent as to the interactive effects of various types of justice, and the nature and intensity of the emotions they produce. Important outcomes to participants, such as redundancy, were not always considered unfair, and emotions, both from fairness and unfairness, showed differing levels of intensity. The four types of justice identified by Colquitt (2001) were only sometimes congruent, and the multiple combinations and contexts reflect the ambiguity of the role of justice in cognitive and affective responses to change.

The four research questions analysed above reveal that affective reactions to change events are based on a number of issues that lie within employee perceptions of the change itself. The analysis also reveals how the factor may overlap. For example, perceptions of negative outcomes may be accompanied by, and exacerbated by, perceptions that the change was too big, too fast and unfairly executed.

Variables within the employee moderating cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change

People's responses on cognitive, affective and behavioural levels are moderated by four factors that lie within the individuals themselves: their emotional intelligence, personalities, previous experiences of change, and change and stress outside the workplace. It should be noted again that EI in this study is conceptualised as ability. Some researchers (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997) have considered EI also to have personality dimensions but in these findings they will be covered in Research Question 6 on disposition.

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Research Question 5: How does employee emotional intelligence moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change?

This research question investigates the impact of people's *own* EI on their responses to an organisational change. This is different to how they perceive the impact of their *managers'* EI on their responses (Research Question 10) but comments made in the latter question, and elsewhere, provided additional insights into their own EI. Respondents were asked what emotions they and others had experienced, and, where relevant, how they had managed both. One of the interesting aspects of the research question is what impact EI has on the roles of change recipient, manager or leader.

The ability model of emotional intelligence of Mayer and Salovey (1997) in Figure 2 will be used as the basis of analysis of findings as it was identified in the literature review as the one that has garnered the most academic support (e.g. Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Jordan 2005, McEnrue & Groves, 2006). The model contains four levels or branches of ability: perception of appraisal and expression of emotion; emotional facilitation of thinking, and understanding and analysing emotions; employing emotional knowledge; and reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Each level has four subsets of skills and these were used as codes in interpreting the data. Given that there are 16 EI abilities and three different types of change player in the 24 interviewees it is not feasible to provide a full review of these 48 combinations. I will present my analysis of participants' EI one level at a time before making an overall evaluation of the role EI played in the cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change of the different types of change players.

Level 1 deals with the perception of participants' own emotions, and those of others, and the ability to express emotions accurately. Participants showed varying degrees of ability to express their emotions (albeit in the interview rather than when the change took place). Some seemed to have no problem articulating their emotions in some parts of the interview but hesitated and stumbled in others, even after prompting. Respondents were repeatedly asked to identify their emotions with respect to a variety of aspects of change and the findings chapter is peppered with identification of emotions. Some statements serve as useful examples: "I was furious because he had not honoured the agreement that we'd had and therefore had undermined the employees" (B); "At the time, confusion which caused self-doubt, certainly a bit of anger in there"

(L); “At the beginning I guess my emotion was shock, horror... Sometimes it was inspiring, you know, oh my God, this is all happening and isn’t it great, and you sort of get into that excitement of seeing it all move” (R).

The ability to perceive others’ emotions was evident in all participants. Change recipients such as O observed a colleague who, during a restructure and redundancy initiative, was “traumatised, crying, didn’t want to be at work, really frightened”, while B noted that some lower staff had felt “betrayed” and “devastated” and that some middle managers had felt “gutted” because “they cared about their people deeply”. Some change managers and leaders were particularly adept at discerning the emotions of subordinates and colleagues. C, who was transferred to a new organisation following a buyout, commented that some of those who were made redundant showed “shock, dismay, real concern”, while others were happier and more satisfied because of the redundancy payout. In other redundancies, G noted denial and anger in those laid off and stress in colleagues on the management team who had to manage heavier workloads and difficult interpersonal issues; W detected anger, denial, and frustration in those who lost their jobs, but also enthusiasm among those retained in restructured roles; and N observed, “You see people in organisations putting on very brave faces but some are falling apart inside”. Some participants even focused on the emotional reactions of their bosses and more senior staff. Box 1.4 of the Mayer and Salovey model refers to the ability to discriminate between honest and dishonest emotional expressions. X thought his boss to be completely phoney in saying, “let us pray together”, when he bitterly complained about being unfairly passed over for promotion.

Level 2 is concerned with the degree to which EI facilitates thinking. This was not directly investigated in the interview questions but comments made elsewhere are testimony to the use of this ability. Box 2.2 refers to emotions aiding memory (and judgement) and one might thus be tempted to state that people who could recall emotions from several years back are high in EI. However, this recall might simply highlight an event of emotional intensity or a good memory rather than ability to think with emotion. From a conceptual point of view those who have insight into their own emotions or those of others should be able to manage their own behaviour or respond to others appropriately. It was apparent that a number of change leaders and managers who anticipated that others would manifest negative affective reactions from unfavourable outcomes organised briefing sessions about upcoming changes and made counselling

and other forms of support available. Some used their own feelings of anxiety to ensure that their actions were well thought out.

Level 3 is about understanding and using emotions in a number of ways. Those who have considerable ability at this level can accurately label emotions, see what triggered them, understand how complex they can be and how they can change over time. Most respondents had no difficulty understanding why they or others experienced positive or negative emotions during change. Some change leaders and managers noted that they simultaneously had positive and negative thoughts and feelings about the change, for example, that they could feel excited about the outcomes of change and the challenges of multiple processes, as well as some anxiety about possible failure. Others felt a degree of guilt that certain outcomes or processes were not handled well and pride that most had been.

The most advanced skill at this level is the ability to understand transitions between emotions. A number of participants used the terms rollercoaster or grief cycle to convey how they (and others) experienced the emotional highs and lows of organisational change. They showed understanding of how people are often stunned by bad news, and go into a state of denial and anger before reaching some level of accommodation. This conceptual knowledge was probably acquired through a variety of formal, informal and non-formal learning opportunities but was usefully applied in situations of actual change. Some reflected that they themselves went through this type of cycle and were able to emerge from the experience with their dignity and integrity intact, even though they bore some emotional scars. This was particularly evident in two change recipients. D reflected that the process of her redundancy was “a real cathartic exercise, it made me move on mentally” and V, when he finally won a court case for unfair dismissal, commented that “there’s only so much emotional hurt you can go through...and it was almost like closure, just knowing that it was over and I could move on.” During the processes, however, these respondents had battled to contain their feelings.

Those who are able to move from recognition (that emotions can change) to regulation are demonstrating skills at Level 4 of the Mayer and Salovey model. This contains the highest level of EI abilities with people able to stay open to positive and negative feelings, detach from them when necessary, monitor and regulate their own emotions and effectively address the emotions of others. Participants reported both success and failure in emotion regulation: “I had to put on a brave face” (A); “I usually

keep my mouth shut” (E); “I find it hard to be an actor. I tend to wear my emotions on my sleeve. I found it difficult not to show my emotions” (H); “implicitly I felt it necessary to internalise and not pass on all the conflict that was happening in the design process” (P). Two admitted that they had cried (one male, X, one female, L) and it seemed they would prefer not to have done so. D confessed, “I wanted to sit there and howl my eyes out.” However, she managed to maintain her composure and laughingly remarked that it was because she was “English, stiff upper lip, you don’t, try not to show your emotions.” H admitted that she had an emotional outburst in a meeting with the chairperson of the company and that she had found it difficult not to show her frustration.

A number of reasons were provided: “I am very disciplined” (P); “it was just part of my job” (F); “I was being paid to do it” (B); or because they believed it was “professional” (A, F, K). Some participants concealed their emotions because they knew that their display might count against them at some time (M, X), or because it was not part of the organisational culture (L). When L cried in a meeting she was told she was soft and should never do it again, particularly in the male-dominated “very stiff upper lip environment.” X said if a person verbalised negative emotions in meetings it was considered resistance to change and “you became a target”.

There were other pressures outside of those of cultural expectations. Participants who were change leaders and managers often experienced frustration at the slow pace of change, or people’s resistance to change, but believed that they needed to contain their emotions to be effective. R was told to “calm” her enthusiasm by senior staff who thought she was “too strong, too passionate.” Y believed that as owner and CEO he needed to regulate his negative emotions because they could impact on morale.

The pinnacle of EI ability, according to Mayer and Salovey (1997), is simultaneously being able to regulate one’s own emotions and manage the positive and negative emotions of others. W, a senior manager, ventured the opinion that, “sometimes management is assumed to have no emotions and to be hard and callous and uncaring.” The demands placed on some people were very taxing. B, a relatively young human resources officer at the time, was involved in union and worker meetings regarding a redundancy. In some ways she was operating as a change manager and in others as a change recipient. She commented on what she termed was a “horribly dysfunctional culture” in the organisation and was somewhat ambivalent in recalling how she dealt with it:

...it was almost violent, aggressive. It was very aggressive. Almost having a hint of menace and violence to it....At one time actually the guys...were really swearing at me and using really full on swear words and things...and these guys were just absolutely going for it you know. They were being really abusive and swearing at me and calling me a bitch and all sort of stuff...It was really out of control and that didn't worry me, I mean sometimes it didn't worry me too much.

Q had been brought into a company to manage restructuring, redundancies and job redesign and found some elements of the exchanges to be very demanding while others were very pleasing:

You had people in your office screaming and yelling and telling us we've been doing this for 20 years and what you're asking us to do is no different, so why are you putting us through this stress? To people saying, thank goodness, someone has finally recognised that we need to do this and make this change, and for goodness sake, just give me the authority to make these changes and do these things.

To manage the strong, negative feelings of others requires insight and considerable skill. E, a senior manager with extensive change experience, advises that:

If someone bursts into tears, don't keep saying, "there, there, it's alright". It's not, it's not for them. The best thing to do is just shut up and pass them a tissue and the fact is the person will now feel particularly embarrassed because they have burst into tears. But don't make a big deal about it. Just let them gain their composure, be the first to move forward.

In addition to maintaining outward and inward control of their emotions, a number of my participants employed other types of coping strategies, such as spending time with friends and family, going to the gym or using other forms of exercise and relaxation. A "deliberately tried to reframe, "you know, to look for the benefits, but there was also a recognition that things had to change" and X "just kept on focussing on a good outcome." Others tried more proactive approaches by arguing against certain aspects of change or recommending practical actions. When asked how he managed his emotions Y replied that he did not, he just got on with the job at hand. E's approach was to "work through priorities, you filter out what you need and you put in hours." F acknowledged that one of his ways of coping was "actively looking out for myself at the same time as well, looking at other options...So I knew I had a plan B." Some decided that the only way to deal with the negative cognitive and affective outcomes of the change was to exit the organisation. Not all approaches used by participants were successful in either dealing with their emotions or resolving the situations that led to them.

Summary of findings and discussion

In summary, there was considerable evidence of how most of the abilities of EI of the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model contributed to the responses to change of each type of change player. This study therefore adds to the sparse qualitative literature on EI, and while none of it has directly examined organisational change, some commonality has been found. Conceptual and empirical literature on EI provides more useful points of comparison, although even here the context of change has seldom been researched.

Huy (2002) and Jordan (2005) have proposed that EI helps change players cope with various aspects of change, Paterson and Härtel (2002) have suggested that it would be particularly helpful in coping with the anxiety of downsizing, and Jordan et al. (2002a) believe that EI could also help alleviate some of the uncertainty associated with job insecurity. In one study, Jordan and Troth (2002) found that EI is helpful in dealing with conflict and speculate that this might be useful in change contexts. The findings in the current study indicate that EI did help participants to cope with the emotions arising from conflict, downsizing and job insecurity.

In one of the few empirical studies on EI and change, Vakola et al. (2004) found that overall EI contributed to attitudes to change. Of particular note was the use of emotions in problem solving. This Level 2 ability of the Mayer and Salovey model was applied by respondents in Akerjordet and Severinsson's (2004) qualitative study of EI (albeit not in a change scenario). One remarked, "When I get a feeling during an encounter with a patient I have learned to take it seriously", while a second stated, "I think that feelings can contribute towards good decision-making as they give me signal about what is right and wrong" (p. 16). While my respondents were not quite as specific, some change leaders and managers indicated that awareness of potential emotional responses of others helped them plan the communication and participation aspects of change. Some also analysed their own positive and negative emotions and used this information to deal with their emotions.

The impact of EI on transformational leadership, which has a strong orientation to change, has been demonstrated empirically (e.g. Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer et al., 2000; Brown et al., 2006). Change leaders and managers in the current study made a number of comments that showed considerable EI, although I could not ascertain what impact this had on followers. The perceptions of the participants of the EI of *their* leaders will be addressed in Research Question 10.

Many of the emotion- and problem-focused coping strategies to manage stressful situations identified by Folkman and Lazarus (1985; 1988) were employed by the participants. Most participants used various forms of social support which Folkman and Lazarus (1988) say covers both types of approach. Some simply spent time with people whose company they enjoyed while others discussed work-related issues with colleagues and more senior managers. In their qualitative studies of EI, N. Clarke (2006) and Akerjordet and Severinsson (2004) found that sharing emotional experiences with colleagues or supervisors in a supportive environment was a helpful way for nurses to deal with their emotions, and of learning new ways of doing so. In this study G spoke of the value of peer counselling in his organisation and how this had helped him in particular to deal with change issues.

A number of my participants used other emotion-focused coping strategies listed by Folkman and Lazarus (1988) such as exercise (a form of 'distancing'), 'positive reappraisal' (such as A's attempt to reframe the nature of the change) and 'self-control' (for example, by participants trying to act professionally and not show emotion inappropriately). The need to be professional was particularly evident in managers, and noted in the findings of Kramer and Hess' (2002) study. Managers, and the member-based associations that represent them, view themselves as professionals (e.g. the New Zealand Institute of Management, 2008; the Australian Institute of Management, 2008). Professionals are considered to be those who have a sense of competency and whose personal actions meets a standard often defined in a code of conduct (e.g. Australian Institute of Management, 2008) or taken to be an implicit element of the role (Fournier, 1999). Some used the problem-focused approach of what (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988) term 'planful problem solving' by arguing against certain aspects of change or recommending practical actions. Empirical literature on organisational change has shown the value to employees at different levels - and their organisations - of using coping strategies (e.g. Fugate et al., 2008; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Woodward & Hendry; 2004; Rudisill & Edwards, 2002).

While Mayer and Salovey (1997) have arranged their model in hierarchical form, they do not indicate that people can only demonstrate the highest level of skills if they have mastered those at lower levels. Some participants who appeared to me to have high levels of EI were found wanting (by themselves too) in various aspects of a change or in the normal course of their jobs. For example, both L and X cried in confrontations with their bosses and regretted doing so. For L, it was particularly galling as she had to

deal with a male-dominated environment that frowned on emotional displays. In interviewing female leaders, Sachs and Blackmore (1998, p. 271) found a common theme. “You never show you can’t cope. Being in control of your feelings and emotions was important if you wanted to be taken seriously in the job and if you were to be rewarded by promotion.” In the same way that people with advanced musical or sporting ability are not always ‘on form’, it cannot be assumed that people who are high in EI always manage their emotions well or respond to others appropriately. Just as performance on a formal EI test can be subject to the influence of mood, so too can performance in a real change depend on mood, environmental circumstance and the peculiar demands of the change. Nevertheless, those who lead or manage change may at times need the highest levels of EI. Huy (2002) found that to be effective managers of change have to be able to balance both followers’ and their own pleasant, high activation emotions, such as excitement, with low activation, negative emotions such as disappointment and fatigue.

The findings in the current study also demonstrate the intersection of the constructs of EI and emotional labour, the expectation that certain emotions will be expressed and others hidden (Hochschild, 1983). It was an effort for many of the participants to control their negative emotions. There is little empirical work on the relationship between EI and emotional labour. Prati and Perrewé (2006) found that respondents with high EI experienced less stress and burnout when required to fake or hide emotions. Brotheridge (2006) reported that people high in EI are more likely to engage in deep acting rather than surface acting. In N. Clarke’s (2006) qualitative study of EI among nurses, respondents pointed to the more supportive professional nursing culture as an influence on how they engaged with the emotions of patients while dealing with their own. In the context of organisational change, hiding emotions was found to be necessary by respondents of Turnbull (1999) who thought it best to keep their feeling to themselves, and of Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006), some of whom had been criticised for expressing negative emotions and not acting in the purported interests of the organisation.

Finally, it is interesting to note that a number of participants were informed about the construct and used the terms EI or EQ of their own accord. Others used the term emotional rollercoaster (Goss et al., 1998; Kochan, 1999; Schneider & Goldwasser, 1998) and either the term grief cycle referred to by Kübler-Ross (1969) or the words that capture phases of it, like shock, denial and anger. Previous exposure to

these constructs seemed to help participants understand the emotional nature of organisational change.

Some researchers have considered EI (Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997; Tett, et al., 2005) to be partly related to personality and it is to dispositional factors that I now turn.

Disposition

Research Question 6: How does employee disposition moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change?

Respondents were specifically asked how, in terms of their personality, they usually responded to change. Some gave additional insights into various aspects of personality elsewhere in the interview. Some comments were directly related to change, others more indirectly. The Big Five model of personality (Digman, 1990; McCrae & John, 1992) is the most widely accepted (e.g. Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004; Van Rooy & Viswesveran, 2004). I will therefore use this framework first, and even though it considers that all traits are subsumed under one of the five categories, a number of specific traits were highlighted elsewhere in the change literature and surfaced in the interviews.

The most important Big Five characteristic in dealing with change is openness to experience, which produces cognitive reactions that lead to emotions of varying levels of intensity. Most participants claimed that they were comfortable with change, or positive about it, whereas B said it was exciting, Q found it energising and S remarked, “I love change, I thrive on change.” Some had a more considered view, that if change was beneficial, particularly to them, but also to the organisation, they naturally embraced it more willingly. Two had somewhat different views that also reflected some ambivalence. C commented that although:

I am quite relaxed about making change...I don't make change easily. I won't sort of chop and change every five minutes but I will make change. Everything I do is considered and if change is necessary I will make it.

He said that he had lived in the same house, and until recently had been in the same company for over 30 years and was comfortable with that. In one sense he noted that he was out of his “comfort zone” in terms of moving to an a new organisation, but in another way “in the comfort zone because of...things if you like I can do in my sleep, same products, same people, and same people I was dealing with outside this

company.” Similarly, D confessed:

I always say I hate change and yet when I look back on my life I do tend to go for things that require change...I do dislike change but once I've been through the pros and cons and I think it is a good idea then I move on.

The second Big Five trait of relevance is conscientiousness, with participants saying that when change was required, regardless of their thoughts or feelings, they did what was necessary, several claiming that they did so because it was the professional approach to take. P said she was “disciplined” and that “my role as public servant is to implement government policy.” Managers, in particular, were adamant that even when they disapproved of a change they felt it was incumbent on them to do what was required. L deprecatingly remarked, “up until that point in my life I've always done what is expected of me pretty much. I've always been very conscientious.” R revealed, “I don't like to fail...and I don't like to promise something and not deliver.”

Agreeableness is a characteristic that indicates that people will be pleasant when dealing with others and trusting, warm, kind and considerate. Of special note is L's reference to how she views her relationship with others affected by change, “I do care a lot about people's feelings and I don't like to hurt people” and remarked about the way a rival for her position had been treated by management. “I felt sad. I constantly checked...and reflected to make sure I had not contributed to any more bad feelings that she was already having.” O also took responsibility for supporting a colleague who found change traumatic, and showed that sympathy can be altruistic but also beneficial to a person's own wellbeing:

I seriously had concerns for her health and she's a very shy, quiet person and her father had died actually, which probably compounded the situation...it meant that I could focus on someone other than myself and care for her and provide support for her...that feeling of helping is good.

Extraversion is a quality that enables people to voice opinions and feelings and can be used to influence change initiatives or in some ways cope with the change. While it will be explored in more detail in a later section on behavioural responses to change, it should be noted that most respondents, particularly those in management positions, commented that they had debated the changes, and often argued against them, with their colleagues and superiors. Extraversion was detected more from what most participants reported to have said than any comments they made about their personality traits. M, however, was more explicit: “I am a pretty open person...I tend to be a vigorous debater” and confronted his boss about aspects of the change even though the latter was

known to frequently lose his temper. B commented, “If it’s change I don’t like then I announce that I don’t like it” and E believed his extraversion helped manage others’ emotions during change.

The last of the Big Five variables is neuroticism, which is characterised by excessive anxiety, anger and irritability. The comments participants made in Research Question 5 on EI can generally be construed as reflecting people who tend to experience more positive than negative emotions, and are able to control their emotions when necessary. Some exercised control as a protective mechanism, others because it was expected of them as ‘professionals’, particularly if they were managers, and acting professionally was a reflection of their self-identity. While some admitted that they had been unable to regulate the display of emotion when they would prefer to have done so, one cannot take isolated incidents of control, or lack of control, as being representative of a personality trait. Many specifically referred to a predilection for being positive when dealing with organisational change.

In addition to the Big Five, a number of other traits contributed to the ways in which participants responded to change. Two of these are closely related: locus of control, the belief that one can influence events; and self-efficacy, the belief one has the ability to deal with certain types of situation. Several respondents made it clear that the more control they had over change the more comfortable they were with it: “It all depends on whether I’m the architect of change or whether I’m having the change imposed on me” (A); “It’s better if I’m driving it” (R); “I think I’m good with change to be honest. I like to initiate it so I guess that’s an issue and because I wasn’t in control of part of that process and probably felt too far from the loci, I suppose, which is something I learnt about myself” (O). People with a high internal locus of control tend to have the confidence (self-efficacy) that they can deal with the cognitive, emotional and behavioural challenges of an organisational change, and most participants believed they had the ability to cope with change. E spoke of some people who focused on what he termed was a “circle of influence” and those who focused on a “circle of concern”, and that change often moves people from the former to the latter. They “love to spend their time worrying about what is beyond their ability to influence, so it depends on personality.” People with a high internal locus of control need the added capacity to know when they can influence events and when they cannot. A noticeable emotional reaction of those with a high internal locus of control was frustration when confronted with situations where they were unable to exert sufficient influence. H noted:

Well I tend to get quite frustrated and I show frustration, I find it very difficult to withhold...to not be frustrated. So to go to this environment...there's some absolutely ridiculous things happening and...if I think something is ludicrous, I find it very difficult to not show my frustrations of what's happening. But no, as far as change goes, I'm normally quite comfortable.

Most respondents demonstrated empathy. Many comments elsewhere in the findings section of this study indicate that participants were keenly aware of how change was impacting on others, and that support needed to be provided. G referred to the “trauma” and “anxiety” that accompanies downsizing. C spoke of the “shock, dismay, real concern” when redundancies were announced but also noted some were “happier” and “somewhat pleased” at the prospect of redundancy pay. “With people who were obviously upset you had to try and sort of gauge how they felt...and you treated each person differently.” Some of the change leaders specifically mentioned the term empathy to characterise some of their own responses to the emotions of others and pointed out that support needed to be provided:

I've been through nine organisational restructures in my 20 years of employment...What I think it helped me most with, though, is actually having some empathy and understanding. Because there are people who have never been through organisational change and...there's been people in this business who've been in the last few years aware of change but it hasn't actually impacted on them. Until it's personal it's actually quite hard for people to kind of really understand what it means (N).

In some respects I guess part of what I do is put myself out there to be the person that they can do that with because they need that and you want to be that for them. So recognising the pain they're going in you want to give them the best opportunity to get that out, because holding it in is even worse...I find myself empathising with them...absolutely empathising with the situation they're in, whether they're frustrated and angry or personally not making sense or whatever. They are where they are and they need to get it out and it's important to be there to allow them to get it out. So I try very hard not to take it personally (Q).

Yes, I'm always concerned of the personal impact. I have empathy for people's situations. I've personally been made redundant from my employer twice, so I know the impact it can have and there's always other things going on in people's lives that we don't necessarily know about as employers. So I think we try to treat people with dignity and respect and be cognisant of the impact that these decisions are having on them (W).

Optimism is an aspect of positive affectivity and openness to experience and was specifically identified by a number of participants as a way they tended to view organisational change. People who are optimistic about change are likely to support it or at least look for positive elements. “I am a natural optimist”, said Q, “optimistic

about the way people behave but never surprised by the way they behave.” Some participants tended to focus on outcomes for themselves. For example, D and K were made redundant and reflected in the interviews that this helped them kick-start their own businesses, and F moved into a new functional discipline within the same organisation and started a satisfying new leg of his career. Some participants were optimistic that some changes would benefit customers, colleagues or others. Optimism is also partially dependent on change self-efficacy. People who are convinced that a change will turn out well for them may partly believe this because they have the confidence to succeed at something new and because they have the capacity to deal with the emotional consequences. But, as C explained, a positive attitude could not always be maintained:

I tried to be as positive as possible with various staff I had to work with and talk to in terms of the change....At most times I tried to remain positive and look at a positive outcome...It became difficult at times.

Pragmatism was evident in some respondents who viewed organisational change as inevitable and requiring an intelligent response. J remarked, “My attitude to change is that it’s expected and it’s going to happen anyway so it’s not the change, it’s how we respond to the change...I find change to be natural and expected” and V commented, “I think change is something that we just live with.” This does not indicate a submissive or agreeable nature, but rather a cognitive orientation, which is neither optimistic nor pessimistic, that what cannot be influenced should not become an emotional bugbear. People with cognitive rigidity are unlikely to change, even when the necessity arises.

Resilience is a quality that helps people manage difficult situations, including those arising from change. H indicated, “I consider myself quite a resilient person... I’m used to having lots of things on the go...and being quite resilient.” However, after being demoted from the most senior management position following a take over, she noted that “this time I didn’t seem to have the resilience.” Resilience may be a crucial factor in coping with change or even develop as a result of dealing successfully with change. Q observed that people in the company were “battle-hardened” and that “change happens all the time, get over it even when it’s happening to you, [being made] three or four times redundant in a life isn’t an unusual thing.” The less resilient may view previous unsuccessful change with cynicism. Past experience with change will be dealt with in more detail in the next research question.

The need for closure influenced the way in which V reacted to change. He found that the extended period in which he fought a case of unfair dismissal was draining and

reflected that “there’s only so much emotional hurt that you can go through and uncertainty and it was almost like closure, just knowing that it was over and that I could move on.” Change is often accompanied by uncertainty which triggers anxiety, and the ending of a process, even one with negative outcomes, brings relief. It is difficult to assess whether V’s need for closure was dispositional or situational but it does seem likely that many people would find it difficult to cope with the range of issues from a series of events of this nature. People who suffer the agony of waiting to see if their name is on the redundancy list also want closure since there are both practical and psychological implications. O decided to pre-empt this and found another job before names were announced.

Cynicism, which has negative emotional overtones, can be dispositional and in the context of change can lead to resistance or at least lack of engagement in it. Cynicism about organisational change can also arise from previously failed change initiatives. It is not easy, however, to gauge in a multi-faceted interview, whether the cynicism of interviewees is dispositional, situational or both. F remarked on one aspect of the change, “They’d recognised somehow that people were actually important in this process. Good gracious me.” At the end of the interview B commented on organisational change in general, not the specific change she talked about and which had happened several years previously:

I don’t think I can consider an organisational change in any positive way in terms of the impact that it had on the organisation afterwards. In terms of the individual...I think sure there are big costs...it just ends up by being for the individual such a tough thing. Even if it’s in terms of workload increases or that they lose their best mate or they take away the cafeteria. It’s never about adding more stuff, it’s about taking away... I don’t think I’ve ever known a change process that added something, it’s always taking away and it’s always pitched positively and people always know that’s a crock.

Summary of findings and discussion

Disposition clearly can play a key role in how people respond to change and in different contexts different traits become salient. It should be emphasised that the traits discussed by participants are mostly reflective of insights into their own personalities. In some cases I have interpreted their responses to indicate specific traits but do not claim that these are accurate psychological assessments. These methodological issues will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 7.

The Big Five theory has been researched in the context of change and all

variables have been found to correlate with attitudes to change (Vakola et al., 2004). Openness to experience, which Watson and Clark (1997) identified as a component of positive affectivity, is the most relevant of the factors in terms of dealing with organisational change. Most respondents claimed to be comfortable with change, supporting the findings of other research studies. Tolerance for risk and ambiguity are hallmarks of people who adapt well to change (Judge et al., 1999). People who are open to new experience, according to Oreg (2003), lack cognitive rigidity and will change their minds when it is right to do so. Presumably, the affective and behavioural components of attitudes to change will likewise alter, but some discrepancy or ambivalence can be expected (Piderit, 2000). Wanberg and Banas (2004) took a slightly different route by surveying responses to *specific* changes in an organisation and found that openness to change to be a significant influence.

The other Big Five factors have also been empirically related to organisational change. Conscientiousness has been found to be relevant factor by Brennan and Skarlicki (2004), Moon et al. (2008) and Vakola et al. (2004) and a number of participants in the current study used the term professionalism in explaining how they responded to changes they did not like. The orientation to professionalism is consistent with the findings of Kramer et al. (2004, p. 97), whose research into responses to change by pilots led them to conclude that “Professionals who are highly committed to their work are more concerned about their jobs than about their organizations.” Agreeableness appeared to be a trait that influenced a number of participants to either accept the change or help other staff to adapt to it. There is little empirical support for the value of agreeableness in organisational change, apart from the study of Vakola et al. (2004) and the report by Brennan and Skarlicki (2004) that a negative form of agreeableness, ‘angry hostility’, correlated with opposition to downsizing. Extraversion, also a factor in the Myers Briggs et al. (1998) model, does not seem to have been researched other than by Vakola et al. (2004). However, in the current study a number of respondents indicated that they tended to voice their opinions on organisational change, both positive and negative. The last of the Big Five factors, neuroticism, has been negatively correlated to organisational change by Vakola et al. (2004). This is a trait that is difficult to discern in one-off interviews and proved to be the case in the current study. In summary, participants demonstrated some evidence of how the Big Five factors influenced their responses to change, and supports previous research, thin as it is, with regard to some of the factors.

The interviews also showed the relevance of other specific traits that are located within the all embracing Big Five and which have been shown by other researchers to be important in dealing with change. For example, there is strong research evidence for the relevance of locus of control, change self-efficacy, resilience and cynicism (Herold et al. 2007; Holt et al., 2007, Chen & Wang, 2007; Lau & Woodman, 1995; Judge et al. 1999; Jimmieson et al. 2004, Wanberg & Banas, 2004; Stanley et al. 2005; Wanous et al., 2000; Connell & Waring, 2002), and to a lesser extent for pragmatism (Myers Briggs et al., 1998), the need for closure (Kruglanski et al., 2007), and optimism, the last being seen as an element of positive affectivity and openness to experience (Watson & Clark, 1997; Judge et al, 1999).

People who have reflected on their personality - and particularly those who have been guided in doing so - are often able to cope with change in productive ways if they can harness their strengths and address their weaknesses. One respondent, G, was even aware of his personality profile in terms of one well-known model (Myers Briggs et al., 1998) and how it affected his response to an organisational change. He provided some examples of how he thought his personality had helped him deal with organisational change:

I'm not that demonstrative... if you look at me in my Myers-Briggs profile I am an INFP, which is really strange for an HR manager but you learn that extravertiveness...So that was how I was using my emotions. If somebody was angry I could empathise with the anger and I'd walk them through it. If somebody was denying that they needed to worry about getting a job, I'd say well, you know what's going on in life.

However, the cognitive, affective and behavioural demands of a change may exceed people's coping mechanisms. The quote from H above on the limits to her resilience is a case in point. Cole et al. (2006, p. 467) specifically found that psychological hardiness (which incorporates elements of "commitment, control and challenge") contributed to resilience, predicted lower cynicism and produced more positive emotions. In their studies of nurses in cancer wards, Ablett and Jones (2007) found hardiness to be a helpful trait even though some nurses claimed not to like job-related change.

Thus while disposition may provide a foundation for individual responses to change, it has to operate in tandem with other individual differences (Oreg, 2006; Holt et al, 2007). For example, being able to control one's emotions may be a sign of the *trait* of emotional stability (McCrae & Costa, 1987), but could also be taken as evidence of the *ability* to control one's emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1997). The wide range of

factors identified in the model presented in this thesis also play a role, including the context factors of a specific change, previous experience of change and perceptions of both change leaders and managers. Some of these issues will be pursued in the next Research Question 7 on previous experience with change and in Research Questions 9, 10 and 11, which deal with the perceived leadership ability, EI and trustworthiness of change leaders and managers.

Previous Experience of Change

Research Question 7: How do employees' previous experiences of change moderate cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change?

People respond to an organisational change with a combination of abilities, attitudes and dispositional traits. Some of these responses are influenced by previous experience of change (at work and in other facets of life). Regardless of their attitude to an announced change, the ability to learn from previous experience, particularly of change, is a key factor that helps people cope. Change can result in a more challenging workload, require the acquisition of new technical, organisational or people-oriented capabilities, and at times necessitates considerable psychological adjustment.

Participants were therefore directly questioned on whether previous experience of change had affected how they dealt with the change they had chosen to discuss. The majority had been involved in redundancies, as survivors or as victims, some both, and as leaders, managers or recipients of the process. These experiences had given them insight into their own responses and those of others. While almost all participants believed they had gained valuable experience from various changes in the past, their comments fell into three categories. In the first were those who believed previous change had helped them manage the change in question. Those in the second group said that because this change was different to those in the past, previous experience was of limited, if any, benefit. In the third category participants indicated that previous change had not prepared them to cope with the emotional demands of the change under discussion.

In the first category were several change managers and leaders who had considerable experience in change, as line managers, as human resource managers and as management consultants. E said that his extensive experience had given him “without sounding conceited, a sense of wisdom”. Some referred to lessons in better ways of planning and implementing the mechanics of change, some to how they dealt with their

own pressures and emotional issues and some to how they dealt with other people's cognitive, affective and behavioural responses.

Lessons from the past gave participants a different perspective on how to manage change:

I think the thing I've found about restructuring is that you've got to follow the planning and the detail that goes into it has to be absolutely worked out in terms of how you do it, when you do it, what you say, what you do (K).

I have a personal interest because of my interest in change and transition so here was an opportunity to continue to apply some methodologies that I've used. So personally it was of interest professionally...it was an opportunity for me to train our management on change and transition management. It was a good opportunity for me to apply those skills myself and there were some mistakes...I was very confident that I had a lot of value to add to it and I strongly influenced the process and methodology that was followed and personally reviewed all the communications and took a keen role, particularly at the beginning in the shaping and the design (W).

We had that change implemented in six weeks. So if you can get engagement and ownership and see the worth in what you're trying to do, people will come on the journey with you. They'll resist cause they're personally affected and they want some pay and all the other things that go with change. But at the end of the day, if you get their hearts and minds, you'll get their bodies. And I think the biggest issue is to engage people in why you do the things you have to do (G).

One manager believed that having previously worked in one professional services firm she was well tuned in to the cultural dynamics of a similar organisation. Another manager's experience in public sector change gave her a broad perspective on what to expect in an organisation in this sector, which was facing radical change:

My career has been in organisational structures and systems and organisational development and particularly in change environments, so I suppose I have been on different sides of the table. I've been part of teams that initiate change. I've been part of teams that have to live with it and been done to. So, in that sense, I can stand back and see the bigger process... I think there's a certain degree of comfort in the sense that the basic tasks don't change but you just learn to anticipate and read the politics and structural sort of discussions (P).

Experience in change helped some people manage their own responses: "You can be quite negative and fall into a bit of a destructive pattern of whatever, or you just learn to anticipate it. (P); "never had any problems with being quite fluid...made me more tolerant of the bad stuff than I should have been, but I probably just covered it up" (B); "You build in mechanisms to cope...work through priorities, filter out what you

need, put in the hours” (E). Q learnt that a way of coping with her own emotions from dealing with angry and anxious employees - and simultaneously managing other people’s emotions - was not to take things personally, particularly when facing unfair accusations.

Other participants also believed that experience in change helped them deal with their own and others’ emotions. Of particular interest are the comments of S:

Emotional impact at the time was significant because I had to be firm and resolute in terms of pursuing the strategy I had put in place, but at the same time taking into consideration the emotions that my people were going through. And whilst I understood that people go through certain phases, once change has been implemented, when you actually see it happening, it’s quite tough and so in all of that year where we implemented the change, it was pretty tough on myself...Because I’ve worked for this organisation for a long time and as an organisation we have undergone numerous changes over the...eight years that I’ve worked for the company, whether through acquisitions or structural changes, name changes, whatever, I guess I’m highly seasoned in change and what goes with it, and so I have a good emotional intelligence around what goes on.

In the second category of respondents were those who simply said that previous change was of such a different type that this experience was irrelevant in the new context. For example, W admitted that, despite his considerable experience in managing change, that there were aspects of the change he was currently leading that were of a complexity he had not encountered before.

In the third category were those who said that previous experience had not prepared them for the emotional demands of the current change. No parallel was found in previous experience to the stress of being made redundant (D and O) or being suspended then fired (V). H observed that the resilience that had helped her cope with previous change was inadequate in dealing with the overwhelmingly negative elements of being demoted and marginalised by the firm’s new owners and directors. In A’s previous experience as a manager in the company, he had been extensively consulted on change but found it difficult to cope with the sadness and disenfranchisement he felt from now being excluded. He also noted that whereas he had previously benefited from change, in the current change he was now struggling with the loss of status and influence.

Summary of findings and discussion

Previous experience in organisational change thus played an important role for some participants, but was of limited value to others who faced highly demanding

circumstances. Lessons from the past helped some to plan and implement change better, for the benefit of the organisation and its staff, as it helped them predict cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. For example, participants who had themselves been made redundant, like N, Q and W, had developed the empathy that allowed them to address the emotions of those who were to become victims. Some had also developed the capability of managing their own psychological adjustment. Change self-efficacy is a personality trait (Jimmieson et al., 2004; Herold et al., 2007, Holt et al., 2007) that may develop over time through a variety of experiences in change.

Some participants may have become cynical from previous change initiatives. As Stanley et al. (2005) and Bareil et al. (2007) have shown, cynicism can be dispositional and/or situational. One-off interviews are imprecise ways of distinguishing between the two. B's cynicism, for example, appeared to have different sources - personality, incompetent and insensitive management - and change practices she had encountered in the past in a number of organisations. The full quote, which appears in Research Question 6, is some evidence of this (e.g. "I don't think I've ever known a change process that added something"). Reichers et al. (1997) found that employees who had experienced many failed change efforts had become very cynical about change and the 'bend over here it comes again' syndrome conditions people to expect the worst in change (Connell & Waring, 2002). People have long memories, especially of poorly managed change and its association with negative emotions, particularly if the emotions were intense (Talarico et al., 2004). B, reporting on an organisational change nine years previously, commented that lack of transparency in management actions in a restructuring and redundancy initiative created "huge cynicism" amongst the workforce. This could have derailed future changes unless trust was restored. Collerette et al.'s (2006, p. 164) survey (conducted in 2002) found that a change in the late 1980s had left a "bitter memory...and many people were looking at the coming change with apprehension." In the context of the current study, situational cynicism implies that managers of an organisation are perceived as lacking the motivation, competence or integrity to manage an upcoming change - or any change (Wanous et al. 2000). W said that in trying to manage changes in an organisation his company had bought, he believed that the lack of trust was due to people having been "deeply scarred by their previous employer". Cynicism is also related to perceptions of justice (Bernerth et al., 2007) and where previous change was managed unfairly, people are likely to be cynical about current and future change. The level of perceived organisational support plays a

role in how people react to another organisational change even when, or particularly when, an organisation faces ongoing change (Self et al., 2007).

In summary, organisational change can be complex and past experiences may provide people with the opportunity of gaining skills in dealing with future change and devising emotion- and problem-focused strategies (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Judge et al. 1999). Emotional intelligence, according to Jordan (2005), should help people to learn from the past and manage their emotions, and those of others, better in future changes. People who have experienced both positive and negative change, and who have coped effectively, may still have attitudinal resistance to a new change, but also have the knowledge, skills and self-efficacy that contribute to the belief that they can deal with most challenges that come their way. If people remain in the same organisation they can use previous experience in that organisation to frame their responses to future changes.

Change and Stress outside the Workplace

Research Question 8: In what ways are employees' cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change moderated by changes and any stress-producing event outside of work?

Participants in this study were directly asked whether any personal factors, outside the organisation, had affected how they had responded to the change. Very few reported this to be relevant. Even though M had planned and negotiated his own exit, he confessed, "There's always a sense of failure in you, probably when you decide to leave a job for the reasons I did", and that it had coincided with publicity surrounding the success of a sibling. Two participants got divorced partly because of work pressures and related work-life balance issues. Change in personal circumstance appeared to be in some way the result of work-related commitments, including - but not specifically related to - organisational change, and the participants did not comment on how personal issues impacted on job performances, or their ability to manage work changes.

Only one participant, J, suggested that change outside of work affected how he coped with an organisational change. The birth of his first child and the illness of his mother at the same time exacerbated his negative reaction to a work-related change. He said, "I'm naturally dedicated to my work so it was really hard for me to balance my family and my work at the same time so you have a feeling of being torn." Shortly thereafter these family issues, together with the dissatisfaction he felt about the nature

and process of the organisational change he was required to manage, motivated his resignation from the organisation.

Summary of findings and discussion

There were only isolated cases of participants dealing with work-change and non-work changes at the same time. Conceptually work-life balance issues can impact on job performance a person's resources to deal with change at work could be depleted by change or a stressful situation from non-work sources. The life changes index (Rahe et al., 2000) indicates that change on multiple fronts is stressful. While there is literature on how non-work stress and change can generally affect performance at work and job satisfaction (Wharton & Erickson, 1993; Harris, 2002; Montgomery et al., 2006; Rahe et al., 2000), none of it specifically covers its impact on work-related change.

Thus while personal change and stress can impact on how one manages work commitments, particularly those relating to change, further research is necessary to develop a deeper understanding of how coping with change (and other issues) outside of work affects capacity to cope with change at work.

The above four research questions have shown that factors within the person experiencing organisational change combine to influence cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to it. Although specific interview questions were asked of respondents to gain insight into the research questions in this study, the nature of answers showed the interwoven nature of several of the research questions and the constructs embedded within them. For example, empathy is considered both an EI ability and a personality trait and researchers often find difficulty in distinguishing between the two (Kellett et al., 2002; Munro et al., 2005). Previous experience of change often develops or enhances the traits of resilience and self-efficacy and the EI ability to deal with emotional outcomes. In addition, these 'internal factors' usually work in tandem with the 'external factors' that are found in change players' perceptions of their direct managers and more senior staff.

Variables within the Change Leaders/Managers Moderating Employee' Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Responses to Change

It was noted in the literature review that the employees' perceptions of factors within the change leaders and managers - leadership ability, emotional intelligence and

trustworthiness - have considerable overlaps. In Research Question 9 only the abilities of leadership will be discussed (not personality traits). The emotional intelligence of leaders (as ability) will be highlighted in Research Question 10. Trustworthiness, but no other traits of leaders, will be discussed in Research Question 11. While employee perceptions of each variable may have been particularly salient for some participants, the combined influence may be more important in impacting on their own cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions to change.

Perceived Leadership Abilities of Change Leaders and Managers

Research Question 9: How are employees' cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change moderated by the perceived leadership ability of the change leaders and managers?

A number of intersecting issues surfaced in the interviewees' comments on leadership ability: the positive/negative evaluations, how they differ with respect to the various roles played by their immediate supervisors and more senior managers, the nature of the leadership style, and the impact on employees' responses.

Some of the changes involved an interviewee moving from one department or organisation to another, or when one manager replaced another. Respondents' perceptions of leadership abilities were therefore based on different phases of the change processes and different people. In some cases participants identified only positive or negative evaluations while others could see both. Some had very different perceptions of their immediate supervisors and more senior managers. P found that management in her own organisation "showed huge leadership" but those in the organisation that took it over "were a bunch of bastards." Likewise, A saw some positives in the leadership ability of his manager but considered senior executives in the holding company to be "arrogant, vain and petty people." A number of people had ambivalent perceptions of the leadership abilities of their own supervisors. B, for example, said that her boss "was a crap manager...naïve...bumbles along" but "a nice guy." Although he was "personally really supportive....I was drowning and nobody recognised it." M found his boss to be good in group meetings but poor in one-to-one situations, the latter sometimes characterised by abusive language. J believed his manager had good technical skills but very poor interpersonal skills. Both F and L saw competence in their managers but resented the ambiguous nature of their roles following structural changes. Some participants, such as A and D, disliked the ways their

managers behaved but thought that they may have been pressurised into acting that way by more senior managers.

Participative leadership styles were welcomed by respondents at all hierarchical levels. Two participants, B and M, were displeased with lack of consultation of staff at other levels and believed that this had undermined acceptance of change. With a few exceptions, those who were involved in leading change found that their supervisors had provided sufficient backing for the change project and had allowed them and their colleagues to handle their respective portfolios without interference. The exceptions were when new owners (including those in the public sector) had legislated change without consultation or had directed existing management to do so. For change recipients, exclusion from decision-making was a bitter pill to swallow, particularly for senior managers, like A and P, who had previously been consulted on change.

Participation involves interaction and poor communication of information (often also seen as informational injustice) was a key factor in some interviewees' evaluations of their bosses' abilities. This related partly to the amount of information they were given or the process of communication. Some of these views were associated with perceived lack of consultation and lack of trust in the integrity of their bosses. B was scathing in her comments of the CEO, who intended to announce redundancies in the media ahead of the agreed schedule and without consulting her and other HR staff first. O and X felt that senior management had initially done well to inform staff of the major upcoming changes but failed to keep this up. X also believed that some staff members had been deliberately excluded from some briefing sessions. K observed that:

Our direct manager was quite a hostile sort of guy who didn't communicate really well to most of the team, but I got on quite well with him, but his best form of defence was to attack and he did quite a bit of that.

Sending out appropriate information helps employees to make better decisions but also secures commitment to change, or at least reduces resistance to it. Content and process are both important. H, at a senior management level, experienced anxiety and frustration when the management put in by the new owners communicated important information by email, even though her office was next door. V was astonished that the first he heard of his job being disestablished was in a general staff meeting and M was upset at his boss' tirade in a personal meeting. Some acknowledged that confidentiality issues or dictates from more senior levels had limited the amount of information their bosses could divulge to them. Listening to employees and openly encouraging them to contribute ideas to the change agenda can contribute to better decisions, helps to detect

emotional as well as cognitive responses, and signals respect for staff. Despite other instances of open communication, T became angry and frustrated. “I spoke my mind but it often fell on deaf ears.”

Support from participants’ immediate superiors was another factor that some respondents found very meaningful. This included providing the resources needed, visibly promoting the change to staff and giving encouragement to the participant. G spoke of a mutually supportive management team, including the CEO, and particularly appreciated the peer supervision by a colleague with a counselling background. Most of those leading change seemed to take it for granted - they and their colleagues were trusted to manage it effectively. S, however, thought that her boss could have been more encouraging:

He needed to be around more for me. His role as general manager took him out of the business and so he saw the outcomes and the outcomes were always good but he never saw what went from here to there and the pain people went through.

As a general manager H found that when one board chairperson was replaced by another she experienced problems:

There was a distinct shift in that relationship. So I didn’t feel that I had any, there was no one from within the organisation that I could talk to. I lost that support. Cause these other changes, to my old boss I could say, look this doesn’t make sense, and he would say, look I understand...but it’s about winning the battle and not winning the war...You know, we would have an open and frank discussion.

Many participants responded emotionally to the way their supervisor and more senior staff led and managed the change, and the perceived EI of managers will be explored in more depth in the next research question. Before the questions of manager EI and trustworthiness were raised, participants were specifically asked whether the ability of leaders of change had impacted on their cognitive, affective and behavioural responses, but some still wove these concepts into their answers. A number admitted that poor leadership had made them sceptical of their bosses’ ability to manage the change effectively, others found that good leadership gave them confidence that the change would succeed and feelings of satisfaction and comfort. To some extent comments on leader ability during change were influenced by their perceptions of ability shown in many other organisational contexts. Some thought that leadership ability had significantly affected the way they thought and felt about the change but that this did not necessarily influence their behaviour. D, however, indicated that the way her boss handled her redundancy “really got my back up, and that is why I got as

strophy as I did...I had no inclination to make life easy for him in any way after that.”

Overall, perceived leadership ability did impact on participants’ reported responses to the change, but with varying emphases on cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes. To restate earlier points, comments on leader ability were suffused with notions of preferred leadership style, fairness, EI, trustworthiness and other personality traits, and not just change competence.

Summary of findings and discussion

Evaluations were based partly on expertise in the technical aspects of managing change, but mostly on the leadership style. Participants did not distinguish between the leadership of change and leadership in other organisational aspects - the one was simply a manifestation of the other. Perceptions of leader ability were enhanced when respondents experienced participation, communication and support.

Participative leadership styles were welcomed by respondents at all hierarchical levels. This confirms the value of participation in organisational change expressed by theorists (e.g. Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Handy, 1985; Covey, 1991; Schein, 2004) and empirical researchers (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004; Lines, 2004; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004; Szabla, 2007). Participation produces better organisational outcomes through the contributions of experience and insights from different people (Edmonson, 2003), but also because it gives people a greater sense of ownership (Dirks, et al., 1996) and control of decisions (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), and thereby greater commitment to the change. Some of the participants in the current study were incensed when they were excluded from decisions about change, other were anxious and saddened. These negative emotions substantially exacerbated attitudinal resistance to changes even though participants tended to behave in expected ways.

Communication, which is also a facet of participation, was related to commitment to change, and the type of emotions experienced. Theorists such as Kotter and Schlesinger (1979), Klein (1996) and Armenakis et al. (1999) have indicated how informing staff of key aspects of change reduces uncertainty, increases trust and enhances commitment, and how employee input strengthens feelings of inclusion. The importance of these factors have also been empirically demonstrated (e.g. Schweiger & Denisi, 1991; Jimmieson et al., 2004; Nelissen & Van Selm, 2008; Kramer et al., 2004). One of the respondents (a senior executive) in Daly et al.’s (2003) research advised that “if your people aren’t kept totally in the picture and informed and involved then don’t

think any of these changes will work.” The complaint of two of my respondents that communication had deteriorated over time signals the importance of the need to maintain the nature, frequency and quality of communication. However, as Kramer et al. (2004) revealed, communication may reduce uncertainty but may not lessen opposition to change if staff see clarified outcomes as adverse.

The value of support from leaders was important to my participants when it gave them confidence about their roles, the authority to fulfil them and a validation of the emotional difficulties they were experiencing. If considered genuine, support shows empathy for the person experiencing change but pseudo-support, which B and X noted, diminishes a relationship by undermining perceptions of integrity. This was evident in the case of X’s boss suggesting they pray together and B’s boss ineffectually patting her on the back when she needed more tangible support. The construct of perceived organisational support during change (Masterson et al., 2000; Naumann et al., 1998), has been considered a facet of organisational culture (which will be explored in Research Question 12), but staff may see individual managers as proxies for the organisation.

It is interesting to note that participation, communication and support have all been linked empirically to perceptions of organisational justice. One of the antecedents of procedural justice is participation in decision making (Thibaut & Walker, 1975) and in the context of change has been found to lead to greater acceptance (Korsgaard et al. 2002; Kickul et al., 2002; Daly & Geyer, 1994). Communication about change has also been found to contribute to perceptions of informational justice (Schweiger & Denisi, 1991; Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Kickul et al., 2002; Naumann et al., 1998). Interpersonal justice is enhanced when managers talk - and listen - respectfully to their staff, and provide them with psychological support to deal with the ramifications of change (Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Kickul et al., 2002; Naumann et al., 1998).

Given the wealth of research into charismatic and transformational leadership (Barling et al., 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004), and its relationship to organisational change (Bass et al., 2003; Kan & Parry, 2004; Bommer et al., 2005), it is worthwhile analysing some participant perceptions of the qualities of their leaders that relate to these theories. There was little evidence in participant responses of the mesmerising or inspirational nature of charismatic leadership (Conger et al., 2000), which is considered to be an aspect of the transformational qualities of idealised influence (Gardner & Stough, 2002) and inspirational motivation and which can be heavily imbued with

enthusiasm, optimism and emotional appeals (Bass, 2002). Since many of the changes reported by interviewees were concerned with restructuring, redundancies and negative outcomes for participants or others, it is unsurprising that they did not refer to inspirational appeals or compelling visions (George, 2000). With regard to some of the other transformational leadership behaviours interviewees did, however, give examples. Intellectual stimulation is partly demonstrated when a leader delegates authority or encourages participation in decision-making, and earlier comments by respondents in this research question showed how this can influence commitment to change. The complexity of perceptions of leaders was revealed by Kan and Parry (2004) in their research into organisational change in a New Zealand hospital. They paradoxically found in quantitative data that nurse leaders displayed high levels of transformational leadership, but in the qualitative data it appeared that the potential effectiveness of these leaders in managing change had been constrained by political, operational, structural and cultural factors. Some of the comments by participants in the current study also showed ambivalent attitudes towards leaders. Individualised consideration involves empathy and emotional intelligence, which are examined in Research Question 10, and the integrity and trustworthiness of leaders are facets of idealised influence which will be explored in Research Question 11.

Overall, perceived leadership ability did impact on participants' reported responses to the change, but with varying emphases on cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes. To restate earlier points, comments on leader ability were suffused with notions of preferred leadership style, fairness, EI, trustworthiness and other personality traits, and not just change competence.

Perceived Emotional Intelligence (EI) of Change Leaders and Managers

Research Question 10: How are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses of employees to change moderated by the perceived emotional intelligence of the change leaders/managers?

Research Question 5 examined the role of participant EI in responses to change. A closely related issue is the participants' perceptions of their leaders' EI and how this played a part in their responses to change. Some evidence of interviewee perceptions of leader EI has already appeared in previous research questions and the key issues will be highlighted here.

Positive expression and control of emotions by leaders was a telling point for

some participants. Of more concern was the way some leaders could not control their emotions. M, a senior manager, found that some of his conversations with his boss were peppered with emotive and abusive language which made him feel angry, frustrated and weak. D's manager could not contain his discomfort when informing her of her instant redundancy or his anger when she refused to accept it. While his lack of control gave her some satisfaction, his lack of responsiveness to her emotions had a negative impact on her.

An important issue for many participants was the extent to which their managers understood the emotions the participants were experiencing and were able to respond appropriately. They appreciated the showing of empathy in a sincere way and found that this form of support gave them strength in managing or coping with the change process. This was particularly noticeable in the responses of those in management positions. P said that the way her manager had responded to her concerns "validated my feelings". This form of acknowledgement goes a long way in creating good relationships, and even if it does not increase commitment to the change, it helps an individual come to terms with negative outcomes. Leader EI may also have given some participants emotional capabilities of their own. R was occasionally told to "calm" her enthusiasm. She did not indicate that doing so constituted emotional labour, and although she did not explicitly indicate that this was a positive contribution, it seemed that she had adjusted her behaviour to match the expectations of her boss and other managers without negative consequences to herself.

On the other hand, a number of respondents were unimpressed at the lack of understanding and emotional support provided. D thought that her boss had mistakenly believed that she was not emotionally affected by her redundancy because she had not cried about it. Some people found their bosses to be somewhat inconsistent. L felt that the managers she reported to were "patronising in some situations, empathetic in others". C said his manager had been surprisingly sensitive given that "he could be a proper bastard when he wanted to". O thought that the CEO was "cold and clinical" but had detected that many staff were feeling gloomy about the changes. B was also amazed that nobody in management noticed the high level of stress she was facing from work overload and said of her boss that he was very supportive and:

he's such a lovely guy...but he's got the lowest EQ of anybody I've ever met...I remember one day going into his office and bursting into tears and he was just absolutely, you know, just couldn't work out what was going on...he didn't really know what to do really. He kind of patted me on the back.

Some respondents thought that their managers had understood their feelings but had not discussed them or shown sufficient psychological support. For example, S remarked of her manager, “He never saw the pain people went through”, and that as a result he was of little assistance to her when she had to manage the emotions of her staff. D believed that her boss felt guilty about her redundancy and would not look her in the eye. Others were less charitable: “It was more lip service than true understanding” (J); “it just doesn’t go in...he heard the noise but he didn’t understand the message” (M). When X literally cried with frustration at missing a promotion due to what he perceived was an unfair process, his boss “put her hand on my back and she said I understand, that’s all she says, and she says, let’s say a prayer together.” This was seen as a hypocritical and cynical mismanagement of his feelings, and together with other factors, prompted his resignation.

Participants in my study were asked whether they had been expected to hide their emotions and gave varying responses (and in Research Question 5 evidence was presented of how it took some effort to control their emotions). When asked whether his manager knew how C felt he replied, “Probably not because I’d learnt not to talk about those things at that level with my bosses over the years.” Managers with low EI tend to show little empathy or sensitivity and cause employees to hide their emotions during change. When many leaders in an organisation believe that emotions should be hidden it becomes a cultural imperative that further reinforces employees’ reluctance to open their hearts.

Summary of findings and discussion

Respondents appreciated the EI of their managers and others more senior, because their support made them feel more secure and because it acknowledged that their feelings were legitimate. Conversely, leaders low in perceived EI ignored the feelings of participants, provided inadequate support, or even worse, made inappropriate comments that triggered or exacerbated negative emotions in the followers.

These findings confirm the theoretical position that leader EI enhances the capacity of employees to deal with their emotional responses to organisational change (Jordan, 2005; Huy, 1999; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004; Chrusciel, 2006). It also substantiates findings in the empirical literature. Huy (2002) reports on how the ability to express emotions in a management-led forum was helpful to some people experiencing radical change. In his research, but not in a change environment, N. Clarke

(2006) maintained that workshops to talk through emotional issues with sensitive and supportive supervisors (and colleagues) allowed staff to develop emotional abilities of their own. Ferres and Connell (2004) found that EI reduces cynicism about change. The cynicism about change revealed by some of my participants could have been reduced had their leaders been more able to detect participant emotions or control their own. The more general empirical literature on EI and transformational leadership, which is geared towards change, has demonstrated the relationship between the two constructs (Barling et al., 2000; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer et al., 2000; Brown et al., 2006.)

Low leader EI often discourages followers from showing their emotions, a point that was noted in Research Question 5 on participant EI. The reluctance of some participants to talk about their emotions was based partly on the lack of EI of the individual manager and partly on the collective EI of their organisations' leadership. In their interviews on organisational change, Turnbull (1999) and Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) revealed how low leader EI, reinforced by high expectations of expected emotional labour, forced their respondents to hide their emotions, and led to higher levels of stress. When leaders deny the validity of follower emotions they strengthen resistance to change. D's perception that her boss felt too uncomfortable to look at her when discussing her redundancy echoes the findings of Skarlicki and Folger (1999), Clair and Dufresne (2004) and Gandolfi (2008) that managers of redundancies try to reduce their guilt by distancing themselves from the victims.

Perceived Trustworthiness of the Change Leaders and Managers

Research Question 11: How are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change are moderated by the perceived trustworthiness of the change leader/managers?

Trust in a manager's or leader's *ability* was reported in Research Question 9 and this section focuses on trust in their perceived *integrity*, and how it influenced responses to change. Participants reported positive and negative evaluations of leaders' honesty and a range of affective reactions. Although propensity to trust others is a dispositional trait, participants noted the negative impact of the actions of managers who they believed had acted deceitfully or deliberately ignored their wellbeing. Some respondents viewed their outcomes as evidence of their manager's good intentions. C, for example, thought that his boss "probably did his best to accommodate me, and my future...he wanted to do

right by me.” Some perceived management actions in a fairly neutral light. F offered the opinion, “There was no deceitfulness...There certainly was political, manipulative behaviour on the part of some, but it didn’t go so far as to lead to a sense of distrust.”

Several interviewees indicated that change leaders or managers had acted in dishonest or deceptive ways. Some comments revealed that managers had not revealed all the information they could have, and questioned their motives. For example, B remarked, “there were some cynical decisions made with the intent to pull the wool over the employees’ eyes.” K believed that a reduction in headcount was a means for his boss to get a bonus for achieving financial objectives. Q likewise felt that a job design exercise was not simply designed to improve productivity and remove poor performers, but was also “manipulated” to reduce staff costs. L said issues of trust made her more wary. “Is this what I am seeing or is there something else? Is it a smokescreen? ...Where’s the trap?”

Sincerity is a key component of trustworthiness. B was very dismissive of the “slash and burn disguised as a touchy feely, caring programme” which she claimed other people could also see through. X viewed his boss’ suggestion to pray to be totally lacking in integrity. This exacerbated the negative feelings he had experienced when he had missed out on a promotion due to a process he viewed as unfair, and these feelings were further intensified when his new boss had “tried to gain advantage for herself and some of her favourites.” He claimed that management had “betrayed trust”.

B also used the term betrayal in describing how employees felt about an organisational change. “People were suspicious, they felt betrayed. They felt that it was another management trick.” Other respondents also questioned the integrity of the processes that had been followed. M was a senior manager but still felt that “You had a view that while we debated openly there was stuff going on behind closed doors so there was a trust issue there.” He also remarked, “I have some personal values that I won’t compromise and it stretched some of those pretty tight which makes you really question your own integrity.” He had felt particularly guilty when he had information on upcoming changes but was not authorised to divulge it.

Broken promises erode trust and create anger and anxiety, particularly when organisational change has led to unfavourable outcomes. Reporting that he had lost faith in his manager when he had failed to deliver on promises that he had made, A paradoxically said, “I think he’s a very honourable guy, and a nice guy, but just these things were no longer important to him.” U reflected on her experience with a previous

employer, an organisation which had gone into liquidation. The staff had been promised that they could have a month to wind up their affairs and were anxious and angry when suddenly one day the liquidators informed people that they had to be out by the end of the day. Staff, in her opinion, had felt “cheated”.

The emotions of distrust were strong. Participants spoke of anger, disgust, fear and frustration when their bosses had acted in untrustworthy ways. Some participants resorted to emotion management - they could not trust their bosses to deal with disclosure of feelings in a confidential manner and kept quiet. More muted emotions were generally directed at individual managers who may have been directed to implement unwelcome changes.

He was probably less trustworthy than others I have worked with...Who knows what he was being asked to do by his board of directors?...He was possibly doing stuff that he didn't want to do, that he didn't believe in but that you know, that's the direction that the board of directors wanted the company to run (C).

I had an unrealistic high level of trust before you know. It's probably up to more a realistic level now....What I've realised is not that I don't trust him less but I've realised his authority and power to interface with me in a way in which I expect is greatly diminished. He now has much greater constraints on him (A).

Some participants reserved more intense emotions for leaders at a higher level. P, for example, was trusting of her direct managers but was vehement in her assessment of the top staff from the other organisation hers was merging with, labelling them untrustworthy and “a bunch of bastards”.

Trust develops over time and a previous culture of distrust makes it difficult for management to regain lost ground. Newly appointed to a position to oversee major changes, R found that in trying to change the remuneration and performance management system that she was “dealing with people who had no faith in a system because they didn't understand it, they didn't know how it worked and they didn't trust it, there was no trust that anything would improve.” Similarly, W's company had taken over an organisation in which trust in previous management had been lacking, and he observed that:

inevitably people are influenced about another change based on their past experiences, so we got damned by how previous employers had treated this work group. So that meant there was suspicion, lack of trust and a number of feelings like that.

Those leading change tended to have higher trust in their managers, possibly because they themselves had been trusted to manage the change. Referring to his senior

management team G claimed, “Trust is something we thrive on”.

Summary of findings and discussion

A number of factors operating simultaneously can therefore influence employees’ cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions to the perceived trustworthiness of change managers and leaders. Trust in some levels of management but not in others will bring ambivalent responses. Where the issue was important to the individual negative emotions ran hotter than the positive emotions.

The conceptual and empirical literature on trust has identified a number of key variables that were also noted in the comments of the participants. First, trust is a belief that another has acted honestly and with no intentions of doing harm to others (Gurtman, 1992; Clark & Payne, 1997), and my participants spoke of varying levels of trust in their bosses. Second, trust can have strong affective overtones (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Williams, 2007; Young & Daniel, 2003), partly because of the nature of the outcomes decision-makers can deliver (Morgan & Zeffane, 2003) and partly because it sends messages about the value of relationships (McAllister, 1995; Williams, 2007). The complaints of betrayal by B and X were particularly damning and triggered bitter emotions. Third, trust is linked to perceptions of justice - people trust leaders who act fairly (Korsgaard et al., 2002), an aspect that penetrates this study. Fourth, the propensity to trust can be dispositional but is also based on past experience (Gurtman, 1992; Lilly & Virick, 2006; Ferres et al., 2005). It was difficult to deduce to what extent lack of participants’ trust in their leaders was dispositional or situational. Fifth, trust in a leader may be different to trust in collective leadership (Clark & Payne, 1997) and in this regard several participants gave ambivalent answers. Sixth, levels of trust may change over time (Kernan & Hanges, 2003; Mishra & Spretizer, 1998), which was also noted by some of my participants, as information was given or dried up and outcomes became manifest. Seventh, trust influences responses to organisational change (Paterson & Cary, 2002; Morgan & Zeffane, 2003; Ferres et al., 2005). It is this last point that needs elaboration and touches on the other variables.

Morgan and Zeffane (2003) boldly conclude from their large-scale study that “any change negatively affects trust” and that this was especially true of major forms of restructuring, which were associated with downsizing, lower job satisfaction and poorer work-life balance. Lack of consultation was a significant factor. Researchers have also shown that perceptions of various forms of injustice have lowered trust and evoked

negative emotions. Paterson and Cary (2002) found that procedural and interactional injustice - but not distributive injustice - decreased trust and security. Ferres et al (2005) found that a combination of procedural justice, support and leadership affected levels of trust during redeployment. The strong focus on fairness during change for participants in the current study thus reinforces the extant literature and show how badly trust can be eroded. The emotionally-loaded term, betrayal, used by two participants, has also been analysed by Erlangovan and Shapiro (1998). They suggest that not all forms of betrayal are unethical as seen by the perpetrator. Nevertheless, employee perceptions of deliberate malevolence strongly coloured their feelings. Empirical studies of changes to the psychological contract have also produced accusations of unfairness and betrayal and highly negative emotions (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Kickul et al., 2002; Ferres et al., 2003; Turnley & Feldman, 1998; Korsgaard et al., 2002). In a broader context trust and respect were found in a survey by Lester and Kickul (2001) to be the second most important item of the psychological contract items.

Trust builds up over time, as Schweiger and Denisi (1991) reported, and can erode slowly or be destroyed swiftly. Perceptions of procedural, informational and interpersonal justice affect levels of trust over time as new developments occur (Kernan & Hanges, 2002). A number of my participants indicated that the information they were first given about change seemed full and genuine but when it evaporated they became suspicious. Others found that sudden moves by management immediately destroyed trust. This has also been reported by Morrison and Robinson (1997) and Mishra and Spreitzer (1998).

Some participants wondered whether unfair processes had been due to their boss's lack of integrity or whether more senior management had pressurised them into certain actions. Erlangovan and Shapiro (1998) believe that when this happens employees do not see this as a betrayal of personal trust. This confirms the views of Hubbell and Chory-Assad (2005) and Clark and Payne (1997) that there is a difference between trust in a manager and trust in the organisation, and that they often have different causes and consequences. The relationship between cynicism and low levels of trust can be a consequence of disposition (which was addressed in Research Question 6) or poor management practices and has both have been found empirically to increase resistance to change (Ferres et al., 2003; Bareil et al., 2007; Wanous et al., 2000).

To summarise employee comments to this section of the findings, factors in their

managers and leaders (leadership ability, emotional intelligence and trustworthiness), produced positive, negative, neutral and mixed responses to change, on cognitive, affective and behavioural levels. Over a period of time (and not only due to the implementation of change) employees' perceptions of their bosses changed as new developments took place. Participant perceptions are subjective and may reflect personality traits. People who have dispositional cynicism (Dean et al., 1998; Stanley et al., 2005) or high levels of negative affectivity (Watson & Clark, 1997) may misattribute motives and ignore signs of leadership ability and EI in their bosses. Nevertheless, these perceptions are real to the participants and influence their responses to organisational change.

Views of the actions of individual managers, and management as a whole, were often seen as a reflection of the organisational culture, and the specific change contexts that were prevalent at the time. Attention is therefore now focused on these last two factors.

Variables in the Organisation Moderating Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Responses to Change

Perceived Organisational Culture

Research Question 12: How are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change moderated by the perceived organisational culture?

Organisational culture provided both a context for the interviewees' responses to organisational change and for some it was one of the contents or targets of change. Comments were made about the types of culture, how they changed and what the consequences were for the organisation and the interviewee. Some participants also noted the place of emotion in their organisational cultures and how this had affected their responses to change.

Culture shapes the way people believe they are supposed to think, feel and behave. According to L, "the culture was such that if you weren't an engineer then you were an overhead, therefore you cost them money, therefore you take up as little time as possible, but you'd better achieve because they are paying you." This also became a factor when change was being designed. A, a senior manager, experienced regret that a consultative culture in his regional division had given way to a more directive one, due to the influence of head office management installed by new owners. Conversely, R was

brought in as a senior human resources manager to effect a number of structural, operational and cultural changes in a professional services firm that she described as archaic, conservative and traditional. Her approach of “trying to build a culture of integrating and sharing and working as a team” was met with considerable opposition by the senior partners but was strongly supported by the CEO.

A number of change managers and leaders spoke positively about the way their organisations allowed free debate about important issues - such as upcoming changes - particularly in the management team. Some were proud that their organisations provided support to staff during difficult periods of change. Those who managed redundancies said they had put in considerable effort to give tangible help, such as help with writing curricula vitae, and approaching neighbouring firms to hire their staff, and also provided psychological support, both personally and through employee assistance programmes. G spoke of the company’s development and articulation of values where people are important. “Our frame of reference was, if that was happening to me, what would I want to happen?” The way they managed the redundancies was consistent with these values. Yet D was surprised to find that her employer, which she had previously found to have a very supportive culture, suddenly found it acceptable to try to make her redundant with immediate effect, and with seemingly little understanding of the pain and embarrassment that this would cause her. The cynicism that was evident in a number of participant comments in Research Question 6 may have been due to pervasive aspects of the organisations’ cultures rather than a personality trait.

Participants reported that negative cultures were characterised by the absence of psychological support and a host of unfavourable consequences. Three participants were particularly critical of cultural aspects of their organisations which had contributed to their decisions to resign. J said his organisation had a culture of “bowing down” to customers to reduce prices, regardless of the financial cost to the company and the emotional cost to the employees who had to compromise quality standards. B had found no understanding of the way in which she was “drowning”, little concern for people shown by those at senior management level (but more at lower managerial levels), lack of trust and instances of injustice. The most scathing was P, whose organisation was subsumed in a government department. She referred to a “cultural takeover” where her organisation’s culture “died”:

There was a real culture of stamping on any of the sort of features of [our] culture in the past. It was...big brother stomping on little brother....We were able to take calculated risks on how we grow providers, how we might pilot particular services. Now in that kind of

culture that stuff didn't survive and wouldn't survive in the Ministry because it's a bureaucratic organisation, it's the centre of government. Bureaucracies can't help themselves, they impose processes that completely kill any degree of risk taking that you can take so in that sense, the culture wasn't going to survive in that kind of environment....It was an organisation where a lot of that culture was fostered and supported by a very devolved management style so people were allowed to get on with their job within clear parameters. People were allowed to try different things and do things, make a few mistakes, come back, be held accountable but then be supported to learn and do it better and I think in the Ministry the command-control bureaucracy was very evident in the early days. You know we used to be able to give people some delegation around managing contracts and signing off funding. That didn't happen in the Ministry. They took that away and so that has a huge affect on people's ability to be quite passionate about their role if they feel they can do something about it but having to go through 10 layers of decision making to get contracts signed is just nuts.

A number of participants saw other negative elements in their organisation's culture. L found it hard to deal with sexist attitudes, including her boss's remark that "may the best man win" (when referring to two women), typical of a firm dominated by men. She commented that the culture of the organisation was:

very male, engineering male, technical, not emotional on the outside...a very stiff upper lip environment...as a woman operating in a senior role...I don't think along those gender lines. I don't actually draw gender lines but there were lines drawn and I had to work with those lines drawn...I was expected to toe that line always, and it was confusing too because...sometimes they expected you to be girly and other times they didn't but you actually couldn't really tell when was the right time.

When she cried she vowed not to let it happen again because of the macho culture that prevailed in a mostly male organisation. However, she did note that she had worked for the company for over 13 years and that over time sexist attitudes and an emotionally neutral type of culture had improved markedly.

H was replaced as general manager by the new owners and the predominantly male management team quickly introduced a very different type of culture which, together with the diminution of her role, led her to negotiate an exit. One change in culture was the practice of new managers emailing her from the offices next door; another was a stronger focus on sales and profits and less on people. Gender issues also surfaced:

...it was all about Friday night drinks, and you know, if you could share a drink with the boys on a Friday...the office girls would join in, and I would occasionally come in. I stopped having drinks with them at that point, but the girls were then excluded from the rest of the evening's proceedings, so the boys, and that included my accountant, would be

invited, he wouldn't attend, but I would never be invited...they would usually go to the rugby, or go to the races or something like that, and the males sort of went, but all the girls were excluded from that and I became, I was sort of like the office girls...not that I would have ever had gone, you know, but...

Perceptions of issues of nationality also appeared to play some part in organisational changes. O and V felt that CEOs who had arrived from other countries to take up jobs in social service agencies in New Zealand were unfamiliar with local ethnic issues. Compounding the problem for both was a different form of leadership style which was more autocratic and more aloof.

Organisational culture is not a unitary construct - sub-cultures can be based on departmental, professional, ethnic or gender lines. The extent to which departmental sub-cultures affected participants' responses to change in this study was not often evident. However, B, a human resource officer, commented that one department of a large organisation had a "horribly dysfunctional" culture, but this seemed to mirror her views of the organisation as a whole. The earlier quotes from L (also in human resources) show a divide between what appeared to be a human resource management culture from the dominant engineering culture.

The influence of the affective climates varied. In Research Questions 5 and 10 I explored the role of emotion management. While some of the drivers were personal some lay in the organisational culture. For some participants emotion management was considered part of the role of the 'professional' image of manager and a few indicated that their organisational culture played a part. W felt that emotional expression was a facet of senior management interaction but he admitted that he was more controlled about revealing his emotions to lower level staff. A, a male manager in an engineering company, claimed that "people in this profession are notorious for not getting in touch with their emotions" and that his organisation was no different. He also advanced the view that his organisation has "a very strong professional managerial culture" and this influenced the way he controlled his emotions when the culture became less participative. Two female managers, H and L, observed that in male-dominated environments they had to be particularly careful in controlling their emotions.

Summary of findings and discussion

In some cases, organisational change affected the culture, whether deliberately intended or not. The emotional climate influenced the way in which participants responded to the change. Culture is essentially about values (Schein, 2004; Martin, 2002), and a number

of participants referred to their relevance. G, a change leader and manager, believed that the ethical way in which his organisation managed redundancies was consistent with its people-oriented values. His view that the culture was “the glue that made it doable” echoes the assertion of Ryan (2005, p. 432) that culture, “provides a ‘glue’ and understanding in that it can help individual members make sense of events and change activities.” Jones et al. (2005) found that readiness for change was enhanced when organisations had human relations values. When my participants felt a disconnect between their own values and those of the organisation they became alienated and some left. Empirical research on person-environment fit shows that if people feel their values are incongruent with those of their organisation they experience lower job satisfaction, lower affective commitment and greater intentions to quit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002; Vandenberghe, 1999; Herold et al., 2004). The comment of one of Ryan’s (2005, p. 437) interviewees, “It is hard to accept this new formal cold regime - one that is almost totally based on numbers”, is very similar one made by my participant, H, who was unhappy that when her service-oriented company was taken over. “It became very much about dollars and cents and bottom line and about the numbers...it was all about sales, sales, sales and aggressive chasing of debtors.”

People often need psychological support when they face change and the affective climate and level of perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) influences their responses. In positive affective climates attention is paid to the emotional needs of staff (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Martin et al., 1998, Ozcelik et al., 2008) and organisation-wide emotional intelligence is a feature of the culture (Huy, 1999). The use of employee assistance programmes (Alker & McHugh, 2000) and psychological support can be particularly useful during transitions (Rudisill & Edwards, 2002).

A number of change leaders and managers in my study reported that their companies had done their best to provide various forms of support to staff and deal with their emotional reactions. The positive and negative perceptions of the change recipients are reflective of those in other research settings. Naumann et al. (1998) found that perceptions of organisational support (together with interactional justice) led to higher levels of organisational commitment in layoff victims for the period they remained employed by their company. Masterson et al. (2000) demonstrated that when a new performance appraisal system was introduced perceived organisational support was one of a number of factors (including procedural justice), in raising job satisfaction and

lowering intentions to quit. Negative affective climates have led to the hiding or faking of emotions and resistance to change (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006; Turnbull, 1999).

Participant references to issues of gender, nationality and departmental subcultures have also been analysed in other research into change. Gender, according to Helms Mills (2005), is one way in which people make sense of an organisational culture, particularly one in transition. Her study of the number of photographs of women in annual reports over a 20-year period, and of the technical and hierarchical roles they played, showed little difference even though the rhetoric of equal employment opportunity had become prevalent in the engineering-based organisation. Callahan (2002) noted uncomfortably that even as an outsider - a researcher of cultural change - she had felt constrained as a woman by a sexist ethos in a male-dominated military organisation. This partly stemmed from a warning by a female manager not to respond to derogatory comments by men, but mostly because she wanted to complete her research work and could only do so if she did not lose rapport with the men she was interviewing. The literature on emotional labour is rife with reported expectations that women, in particular, hide 'inappropriate' emotions (e.g. Hochschild, 1983; Mumby & Putnam, 1992; Lewis, 2000; Lively, 2000; Guy & Newman, 2004). These studies give weight to the views of my participants, H and L, that gender as an element of corporate culture can marginalise women, even in the face of fine-sounding human resource policies.

Two participants, O and V, thought that the nationality of CEOs from other countries was a barrier in the way that change was implemented. According to Vandenberghe (1999, p. 197), "any corporate culture partly reflects the values of the country in which the organization is located." While this is true, it appeared that it was the leadership style of the CEO that was the more important issue for these participants, rather than simply an alleged lack of awareness of ethnic issues.

The relevance of departmental subcultures was apparent in the comments of several participants. B and Q were human resource professionals who encountered problems in implementing change in other departments whose members saw the changes as negative. In L's engineering company HR was seen as an almost irrelevant and costly overhead. Ogbonna and Harris (1998) showed in their study that responses to change depend on how much a sub-culture is willing to change, how strong the culture is and how the change is perceived to affect each group. Some discourses about change take in departmental locations where emotional contagion is possible (Mills, 2000). An

example is B's reference to a "hint of menace" and a "horribly dysfunctional culture".

When culture changes as a consequence of other organisational change, or is the target of change itself, it is one of a number of factors that impact on employee wellbeing. The emotional nature of change requires an organisation to anticipate it and respond to it, yet as Turnbull (2002) showed, even well-intentioned emotion-management programmes can founder if the designers and implementers lack sufficient insight into the complex dynamics. Culture touches on perceptions of justice, leadership, trustworthiness, emotional intelligence and support mechanisms. It forms a part of the broader internal organisational change context and its relationship with the external environment, and it is to this concept that we turn in analysing the last of the research questions.

Perceived Change Context

Research Question 13: How are cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change moderated by the perceived change context?

The 24 interviewees in this study were influenced by the complexities of 24 unique change contexts with vastly differing internal and external environments. Takeovers or mergers affected the organisations of a number of participants, which brought in many new dynamics. Some changes were within the sphere of government or non-profit organisations, which have different drivers to the corporate sector but which trigger similar emotional responses. A change in government direction meant that P's organisation was absorbed into one of its ministries. In the private sector H was powerfully affected by a takeover but C and U less so. As a change leader and manager W battled to overcome the staff's negative history with their company's previous owners. Six participants were made redundant and another 10 managed redundancies. In total 22 were involved in some form of restructuring which had varying degrees of impact on their roles. It is unsurprising that negative emotions dominate where the nature of change is essentially negative, such as in downsizing. Even those who claimed that change was energising or exhilarating encountered some difficulties in dealing with their own negative emotions or those of others.

The nature of various organisational change contexts has been documented in various parts of the findings. Responses to probing of Research Questions 3 and 7, on ongoing change and previous change experience, highlighted one type of change context. Perceptions of leadership ability, emotional intelligence and trustworthiness in

Research Questions 9, 10 and 11, also provided contextual relevance to the personal experience of change. The role of organisational culture (Research Question 12) was another factor in the internal environment that influenced participant reactions.

Factors in the external environments of most participants' organisations were less evident. Political issues were influential in public sector organisations and economic and competitive forces underlay a number of the changes that occurred in other organisations. While the nationality of new CEOs was called into question by two respondents it appeared that perceptions of poor leadership were paramount. Gender issues were highlighted by two female managers. Technological change played little part in the 24 change situations.

Summary of findings and discussion

Participants in my study acknowledged that external and internal contexts were significant factors in making sense of the nature of the change that occurred, and the dynamics that accompanied it. For example, they expected that takeovers and mergers would inevitably bring many changes but were still emotionally affected by outcomes that were unfavourable and processes that were unfair.

These findings support the contentions of theorists of organisational behaviour (e.g. Johns, 2006), and particularly those researching change, that individual responses cannot be separated from contextual factors. The importance of drivers in the external environment has been demonstrated by Hmieleski and Ensley (2007). Their study showed that firms operating in stable and unstable environments needed different types of leadership. Turbulence was also a factor affecting employees identified by Kiefer (2005) and Herold et al. (2007). Self et al. (2007) studied an organisation which had to cope with deregulation and increased competition and over time experienced at least one bout of downsizing per year for a decade. One type of change that may be easily accepted in a stable organisation may become a much more contentious issue, and therefore a more emotive one, if it takes place in a more volatile context where radical change or ongoing change is taking place. Some of my participants spoke of the stress of ongoing change for other staff, but on a personal level took it as an aspect of organisational life that simply had to be managed.

All interviews took place in New Zealand. Aspects of national cultures infuse organisational cultures (Vandenberghe, 1996) and become an important contextual feature in organisational change, as Pettigrew et al. (2001) indicate. Szabla (2007, p.

549) concluded at the end of his study on a new performance management system appraisal process that participants' "Beliefs and emotions embedded in the country's social and cultural systems may have led them to support the change, regardless of their negative beliefs and negative emotions toward the new appraisal process." Two of my respondents claimed that CEOs from other countries did not understand the New Zealand context, a problem researchers elsewhere have also identified (e.g. Scandura & Dorfman, 2004; Shay & Baack, 2006).

The relevance of changes in the internal context for various participants covered aspects of strategy, leadership, culture, structure, remuneration and job design. These multiple facets of organisational change have been noted elsewhere in the findings and the literature. Several of the empirical studies mentioned above have sought to investigate the parallel influences of internal and external environments on employee responses to change (e.g. Herold et al., 2007; Self et al., 2007, Hmieleski & Ensley; 2007). Features of these environments become salient at different points in time during organisational change, help or hinder people who are trying to make sense of the change on a cognitive level, and thereby influence their affective and behavioural responses.

4.4 Resistance to Change

The concept of resistance to change, and its application to the 24 participants, will be analysed in this section, firstly, because the concept is found in many areas of the change management literature, and secondly, because its complexity could not adequately be captured in the findings of the 13 separate research questions.

When specifically asked whether they had resisted the change, most respondents said no, but on further probing it became evident that there had been many forms of resistance which were then usually acknowledged. They had constructed it in different ways. Most appeared to have construed resistance simply as a behavioural response, which by implication they saw as refusal to do what was expected.

Cognitive resistance to change was evidenced by a number of statements by interviewees that they disagreed with various aspects of the change, for example, the form of the change - "I thought a restructure was required, I just didn't think this was the right one" (M); the motives - "you had to resist the pressure to make it [job redesign and redundancy] about performance, resist the pressure to make it about personalities" (Q); the likely outcomes - "because [instant redundancy] would impact on my reputation" (D); the viability of the processes - "resistance in the sense that we were

very clear about what we thought would work and wouldn't work" (P); the fairness of the processes - "her father was someone in the hierarchy there so she got the position" (X); and/or the fairness of the outcomes - "our function was being devalued" (P).

Some of these cognitive frameworks related to the roles people were given after the change and were considered unacceptable where their sense of identity was threatened. A, for example, disliked the restructuring and his new consultancy role because it divorced him from the profit and loss responsibilities he had previously enjoyed as a line manager. K and his colleagues resented being given a choice of changing from employees to contractors, or losing their relationship with the organisation. P struggled with the takeover of her organisation by a government ministry. Her views of the process, which was conducted with little consultation, and of the ways in which the organisation and she would have to operate in the future, were incompatible with a culture and role she had found meaningful. R reflected that many of the partners in a professional services firm struggled to move from a partnership model to a corporate model that changed their status.

Some participants revealed affective resistance to change. The sadness, anxiety, guilt, anger or disgust felt by some was manifest in answers to various interview questions but seldom surfaced in direct response to the question, "Did you resist the change?" The links between emotion and change outcomes and processes have been well documented in the 13 research questions in this findings chapter and the quotes included there show the breadth and depth of feelings and how they contributed to aversion to some aspect of the change.

Even within behavioural responses to change there are notable differences in what participants construed as resistant. Most participants seemed to equate resistance with refusal to do what was required, rather than reluctance. On further probing, or even reminding them of what they said earlier in the interview, many acknowledged that they had spoken out against aspects of the change. Respondent remarks testify to the effort they put in to debating planned changes and dissuading the leaders from implementing them. Resistance to change in these cases was active or overt dissent or reluctance but not refusal. Many managers indicated that although they were opposed to aspects of the change they only voiced their opposition in management meetings. Once a course of action had been agreed they tended to view as either a question of teamwork, or one of professionalism.

Being reasonably vocal about well that's not going to work. What was intended here? How can we happily still do what we were expected to do under the circumstances? So it was sort of a questioning, challenging sort of strategy, I guess (F).

I resisted the way that it was done and that was when I had a long discussion with the chairman, and I spoke my mind professionally on several occasions...it's not resisting it. I suppose it's just challenging it (L).

I fully put my case early on...I tend to be a vigorous debater...I resisted it from a debating point of view and that sort of thing but once it was decided, no...In a business you can't have rogue senior managers. They should leave...You need to support the business, that's what you are paid for (M).

I spoke my mind but it fell on deaf ears (T).

Several participants who were managing or leading change encountered hostile situations where recipients were loudly, and sometimes aggressively, voicing their discontent with a change.

Another form of resistance to change is leaving the organisation. P strongly indicated that she left because of the outcomes of the changes which were exacerbated by unfair, exclusionary processes. M suggested and negotiated his own redundancy because he did not like the nature of his redesigned role. O also negotiated an exit but was conscious that she may have been targeted for upcoming redundancies. Nevertheless, she experienced negative reactions, cognitive and affective, to other outcomes and processes of change.

Only two respondents refused to accept an element of a change. Although D could do nothing about stopping her redundancy, she refused to leave immediately, which she had been told to do. Instead, she sought legal advice and negotiated a date that was more satisfactory. V used a more covert form of initial resistance by contacting external stakeholders he believed would be disadvantaged by an organisational change. When he was suspended and later fired he took legal action, eventually won his court case and secured compensation.

While the focus of the study was on the respondents' responses to change some change leaders and managers commented on the behavioural resistance of employees others than 'voice' or 'exit'. Some employees took personal grievances against their companies. G reported that an act of arson, and several cases of theft, followed the announcement of redundancies. W recalled one employee who had tried hard to obstruct a change in remuneration by insisting, to no avail, on being paid in cash rather than by direct transfer to a bank account. E indicated that those opposed to a change sometimes

take political action to support their cause. “People try and garner support in the backblocks...or solicit others to work...on their behalf.”

Apathy and inertia were other behavioural responses indicating resistance. While P still did her best during the change process, she admitted that after verbal protests had run their course she “disengaged”. While A claimed that he felt the need to act professionally at all times the words he used, such as “disenfranchised” and “disenchanted” were indicative of his resistance. Some respondents discussed their complaints with their colleagues but not to management because they felt apprehensive about the outcomes. X, for example, said that if people protested or even raised questions, they were considered rebels and became targets, and “a target is always hit upon.”

A number of respondents showed some degree of ambivalence in reflecting on their resistance to change. Some viewed organisational outcomes as favourable but personal outcomes or other people’s outcomes as unfavourable. Others viewed certain outcomes as desirable but the processes as unfair. Some interviewees could not initially articulate specific reasons for their resisting the change. Despite many positive aspects some participants did resent the change. There were those who seemed to accept negative outcomes on a cognitive basis but resisted the change on an emotional basis, such as the anxiety of K in meeting financial obligations if he took redundancy or stayed with the organisation on a potentially more costly contractor basis. C accepted, on a rational level, a transfer to an organisation that had bought his division, and which offered more favourable prospects than the former employer, but he was uncomfortable with a less challenging role and a shabbier office. Despite negative thoughts and feelings about the change several participants behaved as expected by their organisations.

Summary of findings and discussion

Resistance to change had cognitive, affective and behavioural elements. The term had different connotations to various participants with most seemingly focusing on the behavioural responses, such as refusing to act as expected. These responses add to the confusion in the change management literature as to what constitutes resistance. Many writers view resistance simply as behaviour, and even within this area a number of different words have been identified, such as reluctance, refusal, dissent and apathy. In the literature review a number of models of responses to change were presented,

resistance being one of them (e.g. Bovey & Hede, 2001a; 2001b; Matheny, 2004; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Harris & Ogbonna, 1998; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Coetsee, 1999; Piderit, 2000). Coetsee (1999) sees behavioural responses to change moving along a continuum from enthusiastic acceptance, apathy and indifference, passive resistance (which includes protests), to active resistance (including sabotage). My participants reported on all of the behavioural modes described by Coetsee.

A number of participants expressed their dissatisfaction with the changes and a few resigned. 'Voice' or complaints have long been considered as common outcomes of employee dissatisfaction (e.g. Hirschman, 1970; Farrell, 1983). Intention to quit and actual turnover have also been labeled as behavioural responses to some element of job dissatisfaction (e.g. Farrell, 1983), including injustice, particularly in the context of organisational change (e.g. Brotheridge, 2003; Kickul et al., 2002). Withdrawal is described by Bovey and Hede (2001a; 2001b) as a covert-passive form of resistance but they do not define the term and therefore cannot be assumed to be referring only to resignation. In one sense, however, quitting can be seen as an overt form of resistance if the person leaving states that the reason is dissatisfaction with some aspect of a change. In Matheny's (2004) model resignation can be seen as a form of dissenting, an overt or active-conscious response to change.

While behavioural responses often dominate discourse about resistance, some researchers, such as Piderit (2000), Bovey and Hede (2001a) and Szabla (2007), insist that resistance also has cognitive and affective components. Taking cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1993; Scherer, 1999) as a basis for understanding resistance, people respond to change by considering the likely outcomes for themselves, and sometimes for others, and where these are perceived as unfavourable, negative emotions result and the changes are resisted. Behavioural resistance flows from the cognitive and affective responses but is not necessarily overt (Bovey & Hede, 2001a; Matheny, 2004). The disenfranchisement and disengagement referred to by participants in the current study fits with the concepts of indifference, apathy and withdrawal in the models of Coetsee (1999) and Bovey and Hede (2001a).

One reason the concept of resistance is construed differently by different stakeholders in an organisation is that it is a social construction (Mills, 2000; Ford et al., 2002). Resistance has conventionally been touted as negative, willful and obstructive, precisely because the change is designed by those who have power. The rhetoric senior managers employ shapes both managerial discourse at various levels and employee

responses (Buchanan & Badham, 2008). Respondents such as X, who said that resistance resulted in victimisation, reflect the fear of the power held by change managers and leaders. On the other hand, change managers did not initially identify their arguments against change as resistance. Their approach fits with what Matheny (2004) describes as a questioning or dissenting form of response.

Cognitive resistance has been given another title - unreadiness - by Jansen (2000) and Armenakis and colleagues (Armenakis et al. 1993; Armenakis & Bedian, 1999; Holt et al., 2007; Self et al; 2007; Walker et al; 2007), who take as their theoretical foundation Lewin's (1947) concept of 'unfreezing'. To some extent this might explain the reactions to change that W encountered when his organisation acquired another. The perceived unreadiness of some staff, and the slow process of unfreezing, translated into a noticeable unwillingness to accept the changes. But, as is often the case, there were other contributing factors, such as redundancies, the need for upskilling and the 'scars' that W believed had been caused by the previous employer. The model of Holt et al. (2007) considers that a combination of content, process, context and individual factors contributes to readiness or unreadiness and translates into behaviours of acceptance or resistance.

The role of communication in reducing the likelihood of resistance has been the focus of much of the literature (e.g. Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Klein, 1996; Fox & Amichai-Hamburger, 2001). One assumption has been that information will help to change people's minds (Bovey & Hede 2001b). While Szabla (2007) found that rational explanations of the need for change used by leaders do have a positive impact on the ways in which change recipients respond to change, each person may have a different set of perceptions of the espoused need for change, and may not trust those leading and implementing it. Participants in the current study who were change leaders made strong efforts to inform employees of the need for change but realised that this did not always work.

The literature on framing and sense-making provides some guidance. Resistance to change was often due to the mental models (Senge, 1990; Jordan, 2005) or schemata (Bartunek & Moch, 1987; George & Jones, 2001; Lau & Woodman, 1995) respondents (or others they discussed) had of the old and the new situations. For example, R referred to the resistance of partners in a professional services firm to a corporate model. The partners had agreed to a change in structure and management but resistance mounted over time when material and psychological outcomes were perceived as negative.

George and Jones (2001) believe that the more widespread or extensive the challenge is to a pre-existing schema the more the change will be resisted. According to K, management in his organisation tried to frame the move from employee to consultant as both necessary for the organisation and beneficial to the employee. However, he and most of his colleagues calculated that the move was financially risky from a personal perspective. Sense-making can also be a heuristic process whereby a person subconsciously sifts through reams of information and randomly focuses on one salient aspect that helps to decipher complex and conflicting phenomena (Weick, 1995).

Resistance to change on an emotional level derives from the negative evaluations of some elements of the change (Bovey & Hede, 2001a; Piderit, 2000), yet much of the literature on resistance (e.g. Young, 2000; Ford & Ford, 1994) and readiness (e.g. Armenakis et al., 1993) is virtually silent on affective causes. Participants' resistance was partly due to perceptions of unfairness and this has been documented in Research Question 4. One of the major sources of resistance of my respondents - and other employees they referred to - was loss of jobs, benefits, preferred tasks, colleagues, status, identity and inclusion in decision-making. Loss as a source of cognitive, affective and behavioural resistance to change has been documented in the empirical literature by Wolfram Cox (1997), Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) and Bovey and Hede (2001a). Various theorists provide support from the emotions literature that loss is resisted. Frijda (1988, p. 349), for example, observes that "Grief is elicited by personal loss." Kubler-Ross's (1996) grief cycle incorporates denial (cognition), anger, rage and resentment (emotions) and bargaining (behaviour). Elrodd and Tippett (2000) adapted the grief cycle in commenting on various models depicting the "death valley" concept of change in organisations and elsewhere.

Ambivalent responses were noted in the comments by many participants. Ambivalence can mean a disconnect between two cognitions, for example, the observation of managers of redundancy that the outcomes would be good for the organisation but not for the victims. It also meant a combination of positive and negative thoughts, emotions and actions. In managing several changes, for example, R and W noted both excitement and anxiety. Some participants who thought that the changes would have poor outcomes, and who were angry or anxious, nevertheless took little action and even kept quiet. The fear of victimisation expressed by X has a parallel in a comment made by one respondent in the study of Bacharach et al. (1996, p. 492):

No flight attendant wanted to talk with any supervisor...unless they absolutely had to. They were afraid of the supervisor marking them as having this kind of problem; putting it in

their file and then they'd be in trouble - they'd be disciplined for it.

Changes may have multiple facets and it is likely that some will be seen as positive and some as negative. In analysing how people reflect on incidents and try to manage their complexities, Weick (1995, p. 29) observes that “the elapsed experience appears to be equivocal, not because it makes no sense at all, but because it make many different kinds of sense. And some of those kinds of sense contradict other kinds.” In her quantitative and qualitative research into change, Piderit (1999) found many inconsistencies in her participants cognitive, affective and behavioural responses, which she thought were quite natural. In his research into the impact of different types of leadership styles Szabla (2007) found consistencies and inconsistencies within each type of response and between different types. Several emotions can occur at the same time as people perceive positive and negative aspects of change, as Fineman (2003) and French (2001) have pointed out. Huy (2002, p. 36) provides a simple example:

People who act both as an enthusiastic agent for a change project and as a distressed recipient of another project, could, however, experience a wide range of conflicting emotions and would probably need to manage their own emotional ambivalence.

It should also be noted that it is not just ‘workers’ who resist change as is often believed. There was an assumption of managers in the current study that their role explicitly or implicitly required obedience or conformity, let alone a commitment to management edicts issued up the chain of command. Researchers have documented the resistance of managers to change they find unacceptable (Young, 2000; Huy, 2002; Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996; La Nuez & Jermier, 1994). Most of the resistance of managers in my study, however, stemmed from a perceived lack of desired control over aspects of the change. In some of these cases the managers in question had the role of change manager, in others the role of change recipient, and either did not participate at all in decisions about change or were, in their opinion, inadequately consulted. Even those who could mostly be classified as change leaders operated in a management team where decisions were made collectively, or where either a more senior manager, or a colleague, had the role of senior change leader. Control over aspects of the change process once again became a key issue.

In Research Question 6 the influence of personality was addressed. People who are low in openness to experience (Oreg, 2006; Vakola et al., 2004) or have a low tolerance for ambiguity (Walker et al., 2007), tend to resist change. People with high levels of negative affectivity (Watson & Tellegen, 1988), trait cynicism (Dean et al.,

1998) or pessimism (Judge et al., 1999), are disposed to view organisational change in a negative light. Even the ethical acts of well-intentioned change leaders can be misconstrued. People who lack change efficacy (Herold et al., 2007; Holt et al., 2007; Jimmieson, 2004) or resilience (Wanberg & Banas, 2000) will resist a change that they feel they cannot manage. However, dispositional resistance was not evident in my respondents.

While one cannot generalise from a small qualitative sample, one should heed the warning of Dent and Goldberg (1999) that people do not resist change per se, as a lot of popular literature indicates (e.g. Colvin, 2006), but will merely resist a specific aspect of it. Resistance was in most cases triggered by negative outcomes, injustice and a lack of control over outcomes and processes. The forms of resistance demonstrated by participants operated largely on the cognitive and affective levels, and were mostly accompanied on the behavioural level by what they saw as appropriately framed vocal opposition.

4.5 Summary of Deductive Phase and Key Themes

The interviews aimed to uncover evidence of responses to 13 elements of change grouped into four categories: relating to the change itself, the participants, their perceptions of their managers and more senior staff, and their perceptions of the organisation's culture and context. The literature review signalled the overlapping nature of the 13 factors and this was borne out in the findings. For example, unfavourable outcomes were often seen as unfair (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996); lack of different types of justice led to less trust in participants' managers (Hubell & Chory-Assad, 2005); less trust affected perceptions of the organisational culture (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2000); and the culture affected how emotions were regulated by participants (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002) by calling on their own EI. While all 13 factors evoked emotional responses in the participants, they varied in impact, and one of the factors, change and stress outside the workplace, was noted by very few.

Two factors in particular, permeated many parts of the findings - personal outcomes of change and fairness. It is therefore appropriate to analyse what made them so important to the participants.

Personal Outcomes of Change

That people who derive favourable outcomes from organisational change will think, feel

and behave positively, appears obvious and therefore this finding can scarcely be seen a contribution to the research literature. However, what is not apparent is the multitude of factors that constitute favourable outcomes. Are they only personal outcomes? Or do they include outcomes for colleagues, bosses, subordinates or other stakeholders? What is also not obvious is the complexity of issues that may result from an outcome of change. For instance, I survive a downsizing and experience relief. My role is expanded and I feel pride. The higher salary that accompanies my new role makes me pleased. However, I am saddened by the loss of colleagues, anxious about coping with the new responsibilities placed on me and the extra hours and travel, angry about a reduced budget and being moved to an open plan office, and frustrated by the departure of experienced and skilled staff. How favourable do my outcomes now seem?

It is the complexity and contradictory nature of the outcomes of change that are frequently overlooked in the research into, and practice of, organisational change. The comments made by the 24 respondents in this research study are rich in detail and are evidence of the bewilderingly wide array of reactions to change outcomes. A number of key themes emerge.

Firstly, personal outcomes were important to participants because it had a direct bearing on some aspects of their jobs that were meaningful to them. Frijda's (1988, p. 351) "Law of Concern" states, "Emotions arise in response to events that are important to the individual's goals, motives, or concerns." Obstacles to goal achievement are a potential source of negative emotions, such as anxiety, frustration and anger (Parrott, 2002), while the achievement of goals produces positive emotions such as happiness and pride. Where the participants' jobs, roles, status or identities were threatened by change (such as in redundancies, redesigned jobs, demotions or exclusion from decision-making) they responded with negative emotions such as anger or anxiety. Where they were enhanced (by promotion, more influential positions or better reputations) they experienced satisfaction and pride. Intensity of emotion is related to how important the triggering issue is perceived to be (Ortony et al., 1998) and it is logical that people tend to have a stronger interest in their own outcomes, and consequently more intense emotions (Lau & Woodman, 1995), a key factor in the cognitive appraisal theory of emotion (Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 1999).

Secondly, material and relational/socioemotional outcomes (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996) appear to be of equal importance and can overlap. For example, B was unhappy with a sudden temporary increase in workload and the unilateral action of

the chief executive which caused it. C's gripe about the run-down nature of his new office was partly a reaction to an aesthetic preference and partly to the status issues that the office were deemed to reflect. D's emotional reaction to her instant redundancy was due to the disappearance of her job - and income - but also to her belief that it would lower her reputation in the eyes of others.

Material outcomes of change can provide people with benefits such as convenience (e.g. X's complaint about more expensive or more distant parking), comfort or aesthetic appeal (e.g. C's dissatisfaction with the shabbiness of his new office), and job security (e.g. redundancy issues facing K, O and U). Socioemotional or relational outcomes provide people with status and a sense of inclusion (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Respondents participated in decision-making, or were given appropriate information, spoke of positive emotions; those who were excluded felt disenfranchised, disengaged and alienated (A, B, H, O, and P). Changes in roles, status and relationships, and their impact on self-identity, can produce emotional reactions.

Tyler and Lind (1992) believe that relational issues are often uppermost in people's minds when they consider decision processes and the outcomes they produce. They assert that status and respect are perceived as valuable indicators of a person's worth to groups and thereby contribute to the individual's self-identity. Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that social identification comprises both one's personal identity (including traits and abilities) and that which is self-defined by one's membership of groups. Identity is wrapped in emotion (Carr, 1999) and exclusion from preferred groups, which can be an outcome of organisational change, is a source of negative emotion. When organisational identification is strong, significant change can result in employees' identity being "dislodged" (Carr, 1999, p. 581) and disrupt their "searches for meaning, connectedness, empowerment and immortality" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21). According to Lind (2001), by identifying with a group or organisation people can achieve better outcomes and:

secure a self-identity that incorporates a broader social meaning than they ever could alone.

On the other hand identification with and sacrifice for a group, organization or society can limit individual freedom of action, invite exploitation, and open the door to rejection and loss of identity (p. 61)...the person is more vulnerable to being hurt or diminished if expected signs of recognition and inclusion are not forthcoming (p. 63).

Marginalisation, which aptly conveys an image of someone who is literally pushed to the edge in a change, and is no longer part of the in-group, led to one participant feeling "disenfranchised" (A) and another "disengaged" (P). Demotion,

redundancy and dismissal can easily shake self-identity and participants who had these experiences reported feeling sad, anxious and angry. Loss of identity is one type of outcome and the concept of loss as an unfavourable result of change featured strongly in the literature review (Huy, 2002; Wolfram Cox, 1997; Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006; Fineman, 2003; Dirks et al., 1996). Conversely, participants experienced pride and satisfaction where leadership or management of change had added to their reputation for competence or integrity (E, G) or where they were now included at a higher or wider level of decision-making (L, T).

Thirdly, while mostly concerned for their own wellbeing, participants did comment on the emotional responses to the nature of outcomes for other employees, and for the organisation itself. Change leaders and managers empathised with the negative outcomes of other employees. Unfair treatment of others was noted by some respondents. Loss can be seen from a collective point of view. P, for example, gave a strong indication that the takeover of her organisation led to a widespread sense of loss and X claimed that changes in his organisation were also resented by colleagues. Positive outcomes for others were also reported, and these too drew out some emotions from the participants. However, people are naturally concerned primarily with their own fortunes that result from change (Vince, 2006) and the emotions arising from outcomes for others were inevitably of lower intensity than those arising from their own. While appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991) takes the position that consideration of one's own wellbeing elicits emotions, relationships form part of that wellbeing, and protecting these relationships through concern for others therefore has the dual function of benefiting oneself and others.

Finally, given that most changes discussed by the interviewees had several outcomes, there was a range of perceptions, emotions and actions. Some participants developed an overall heuristic that the change was positive or negative, but most seemed comfortable in accepting that the change produced both good and bad outcomes for themselves and others. The scale of the change plays a part in evaluating outcomes but even relatively small changes influence the way people think and feel. For example, C admitted that his comment about his office "sounds sort of superficial...but I don't see why I should live like this."

The role of justice played a large part in the way participants responded to the change, partly because it impacted directly on the favourability of their own outcomes.

Justice of Change

The role of organisational justice in the findings and in the literature on change and emotions (e.g. Paterson & Cary, 2000; Paterson & Härtel, 2000; Brotheridge, 2003) highlights it as one of the most important predictors of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change. Respondents in the current study produced considerable evidence of the influence of the four main types of organisational justice: distributive, procedural, informational and interpersonal (Colquitt et al., 2001).

While answers to interview questions about fairness produced a rich vein of data, answers to many of the questions that were not specifically about fairness, were interwoven with notions of it. Perceived fairness was related to favourability of outcomes (Research Question 1) and this has been explored in the discussion above. It also relates to the scale of the change (Research Question 2) and the frequency, timing and speed of change (Research Question 3). Managers who act fairly are seen as good leaders (Research Question 9) and trustworthy (Research Question 13). Organisations that act fairly often do because it is embedded in the culture (Research Question 12).

Why is it that fairness is so important to people, particularly during change, and therefore why do they get emotional about it? There are a number of potentially overlapping reasons.

Firstly, considerations of fairness help people make sense of organisational change (Weick, 1995; Brockner, 2002). Lamertz (2002) found that people make sense of events, like change, by discussing justice issues with people at the same level or higher levels, and their evaluations of fairness reflect the number and nature of relationships they have and the social comparisons they make. His study took place in the context of downsizing where fairness issues are bound to be more salient. In my study several respondents (change leaders, managers and recipients) appeared to engage with their colleagues in discussions about fair procedures and outcomes, and where they enjoyed good relationships with their managers they were more inclined to debate justice issues with them.

Secondly, and returning to the concept of personal outcomes, there is the instrumental view of Tyler and Lind (1992) that people desire fairness because it helps them achieve favourable outcomes. Adams (1965) suggests that unfavourable outcomes are usually regarded as unfair. Positive emotions should be the most intense where outcomes are favourable *and* fair *and* important. L was “euphoric” to have secured a position that had been uncertain for a long period, but the process that had forced her to

wait had elicited negative emotions. K and O felt that being made redundant was not unfair but were left with some anxiety about the outcome and some anger about procedural, informational and interpersonal unfairness. X was particularly incensed when a coveted promotion position was denied to him through what he saw as nepotism. This confirms Brockner's (2002) theoretical point that people hold others accountable for personal outcomes when procedures are seen as unfair, and reinforces his specific example of people attributing responsibility to others for an unfair promotion process. Greenberg (2001b) suggests that people tend to perceive fairness when their personal outcomes are favourable, but qualifies this with the observation that perceptions are influenced by fair procedures.

Thirdly, fairness is important to people because it has relational meaning, a point made by Tyler and Lind (1992) and by Brockner (2002) in their studies of procedural justice. Lind (2001) speculates that people use fairness as a heuristic for interpersonal trust and as one of the criteria for good relationships. Outcomes that are both unfair and unfavourable also signal to change recipients that social relationships have been badly tarnished. If one justice element is missing the positive emotions arising from favourable outcomes, such as happiness or pride, can be diluted, and negative emotions, such as guilt, arise when favourable outcomes are derived from unfair processes. This was found in an experimental study by Cropanzano et al. (2000). In the current study two change leaders (E and M) experienced some degree of embarrassment when some aspects of the change were not handled well by others. These feelings could be partly attributable to the desire to protect their own reputations for integrity, and the belief that organisational decisions, to which they had become party, could undermine the relationships they had with others.

Literature pertaining to several constructs deepens understanding of the relational issues of organisational justice in times of change. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory takes the position that in social relationships, "each party in an LMX must offer something the other sees as valuable and each must see the exchange as reasonably equitable and fair" (Graen & Scandura, 1987, p. 182). Scandura (1999) points out that the intersection of distributive and procedural injustice produces unfavourable outcomes that undermine the social relationship between leader and member. This can cause a member to conclude that his or her worth to the organisation (or at least to the supervisor) has decreased. In the current study B was convinced that her application and subsequent reassignment to a project group angered her supervisor,

who retaliated by ensuring that she would be relatively underpaid for what she was about to do. However, while C was dissatisfied with a less challenging role and a less appealing office, he believed that in due course he might be able to influence more senior management to address these issues. More perceived control can result in better relationships, and where C's situation differed even more from B's was that he enjoyed a better relationship with his new manager.

According to Scandura (1999), justice perceptions can strengthen the belief whether one is part of an in-group or out-group. She indicates that some people do not mind being in the out-group as long as their rewards are fair. They are less privy to the rationale for procedures and therefore less inclined to views of procedural injustice as long as outcomes are perceived as equitable. However, as several respondents (e.g. A, H and P) indicated, they were particularly unhappy because their outcomes were poor and because they had been marginalised by unfair processes. As managers they had previously been in the in-group, and after the change were clearly not.

Using LMX theory, Masterson et al. (2000) found that the relationships between the interactional fairness (interpersonal and informational) shown by the supervisor and the outcomes of a change in a performance management system in an organisation were mediated by LMX variables, and between procedural justice and outcomes by perceived organisational support (POS). LMX concerns the relationship between a leader and employee whereas POS is the relationship between an organisation and an employee (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Masterson et al., 2000; Wayne et al., 2002). Where participants in my study detected injustice, particularly interpersonal and informational, the quality of the relationship between them and their supervisors deteriorated. Being treated unfairly by a supervisor signals a power imbalance and emphasises the lack of control a change recipient has. The absence of procedural justice during change, which may be apparent in a lack of perceived organisational support, reduces organisational commitment and job satisfaction and increases the intention to quit (Masterson et al., 2000). B, O, P and X all found some elements of support from colleagues, and on occasion from their bosses, but far less from the organisation. These weakened relationships, on micro or macro levels, took their toll on their feelings of self-worth and self-identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Broken promises and other violations of the psychological contract, a term which B specifically used, were reported by respondents, and triggered highly negative emotional reactions (Morrison & Robinson, 1997), because outcomes were unfavourable and relationships were damaged.

Fourthly, Cropanzano, Goldman and Folger (2003), Colquitt et al. (2006) and Mikula et al. (1998) suggest that that an additional reason why fairness is important to some people is simply (or partly) a question of morality. People with high levels of morality are likely to be concerned for themselves - but also for others - that 'right' must be done, and they tend to get angry or frustrated when it is not. While some respondents were concerned about productivity or relationship issues following change, others were partly motivated by the need to live - and work - by moral principles.

Notions of fairness are constructed from the multiple social influences people are exposed to (Tyler & Bies; 1991; Lamertz, 2002), such as in law (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), education (Mayhew & Fernandez, 2007), sport (Mahony, Rimer, Breeding & Hums, 2006), and philosophy (Butt, 2007). There are also religious views that justice is deeply rooted in human nature. A commentary in a Jewish prayer book on the phrase in Psalm 99, "You founded fairness", states the belief that, "Although human beings have concepts of fairness, we should not delude ourselves into thinking that such ideals are of human origin. Even so called 'human decency' was ingrained in man by his Maker" (Scherman, 1990, p. 313). Academic sources indicate that notions of justice are pervasive in the New Testament, with Pelton (2003, p. 737) suggesting that concerns for justice have been evident "possibly ever since the human mind was capable of abstract thought."

An interesting rhetorical question is whether all participants in my study would have contemplated fairness issues if I had not asked specific questions about them. Some spoke about fairness before the justice questions were asked but some seemed somewhat nonplussed about the questions, as if fairness issues were certainly not foremost in their recollection of change. It is also worth noting that a strong sense of justice is part of the dispositional make up of some people (Brennan & Skarlicki, 2004; Lilly & Virick, 2006; Colquitt et al., 2006; Moon et al., 2008) and therefore justice issues become more salient to them.

In conclusion, justice is important to people who are undergoing organisational change because it helps people make sense of what is happening, and because it has instrumental, relational and moral implications.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS – THE INDUCTIVE PHASE

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I analysed the findings to answer the 13 research questions that emanated from the literature review and the model of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change. The deductive phase revealed that with varying degrees of relevance all 13 questions were answered. Two of the factors, personal outcomes and fairness, proved to be dominant in the minds of most of the participants. The intention of the model was to be as complete as possible but I was always open to possibilities that other factors may have been relevant.

In this chapter I explore other themes that emerged from the analysis of the findings. No specific method of analysis was used. The joint conference paper I wrote with my two thesis supervisors on Research Question 3, the temporal dimensions of organisational change (Smollan et al., 2007), stimulated discussion of alternative interpretations of the responses of the interviewees. With this in mind, I reread the transcripts, and the tables that had been drawn up to facilitate analysis of the other research questions, and in particular the observations that followed each table. In doing so, two specific areas were highlighted that had not appeared in the literature review or had been given only cursory attention. These are control of the change and relationships with colleagues, family and friends. These factors are discussed in this chapter, and in the next chapter I revise the model that was originally presented to take account of the deductive and inductive phases of data analysis.

5.2 Control of Change

Control over one's destiny in change can bring about better outcomes (Research Question 1) and fairer outcomes and processes (Research Question 4). It allows one to manage the scale of the change (Research Question 2), and its frequency, speed and timing (Research Question 3). It signals that one can make a valuable or necessary contribution to the organisation and the myriad relationships it embraces. It enhances self-esteem, self-identity and self-efficacy and relates to other personality variables (Research Question 6).

Participants who believed they had a sufficient measure of control over elements of the change reported positive if somewhat muted emotions. Those who lacked control experienced negative emotions, which were heightened when they expected or desired

control but were denied it. This organisational change setting confirms the research finding of Smith and Ellsworth (1985) that control over a situation helps people cope with their emotional states. They distinguish between self-control, other-control and situational-control, the last is where no individual is able to control the event. In particular, they noted that “A strong sense of other-responsibility/control is associated with surprise and anger, whereas strong attributions of self-responsibility/control are associated with pride, shame, and guilt” (p. 828). Participants in the current study did express anger that they could not control important elements of change. Those who felt guilty that they could not reveal information, or felt the need to lie, in accordance with more senior managers’ dictates, were likely influenced by perceived self-responsibility and other-responsibility forms of control.

The theme of fairness (which has been dissected in the deductive analysis of findings) plays a part in the question of control over change. Early writers on procedural justice, Thibaut and Walker (1975), identified two key elements, process control which allows disputants in legal matters input into the procedures to be used, and decision control, which gives them some measure of influence over the outcomes. In organisational settings control over procedures has often been assumed to have been satisfied by participation in decision-making (Konovsky, 2000), thereby enhancing commitment to change (Brotheridge, 2003; Lines, 2004; Bartunek et al., 2006). However, while it can signal procedural justice (Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Daly & Geyer, 1994), and produce positive emotions, participation does not equate with control. One might feel that one has been heard, and this alone might give some degree of satisfaction, but this does not mean that one obtains desired procedures or outcomes, either in one-to-one conversations with managers, or in group decision-making processes. It is unlikely that satisfaction from procedural justice will balance the sadness of a negative outcome (Cropanzano et al., 2000), even though it may mitigate behavioural resistance to change (Daly & Geyer, 1994).

In my study, even when change managers were consulted in decision-making, their ability to get what they wanted, for themselves or others, was limited by the power and authority of their bosses and more senior managers. In addition, change leaders, who almost by definition could exercise great power, often had to work with other managers, some of whom were at the same hierarchical level. They did not always agree with group decisions or with an element of the change delegated to one member of the team. Those experiencing difficulties in various change contexts, such as negotiation

with unions, compliance with legal obligations, and delivering fair processes of redundancies, expressed considerable frustration at the time it was taking to implement certain phases of the change, or their inability to get some changes accepted. Frustration, according to Smith and Ellsworth (1985), is a natural outcome of lack of control. Thus while inclusion in an in-group might enhance feelings of the social side of identity (Tyler & Lind, 1992; Lind, 2001; Scandura, 1999), it does not guarantee control.

When people lack a large measure of control, however, self-identity is at risk because they become vulnerable. “To be taken advantage of is resented so much because it implies that one is...an outgroup member or a ‘loser’” (Lind, 2001, p. 63). Unrealised expectations of inclusion signal that one has little control or influence and is therefore of less value to the group than before. A, despite being a senior manager, had no involvement in a restructure and reported that previously:

When change had happened in the organisation, I'd be closely involved in it. On this occasion, it was imposed. I had advanced notice, but only a matter of weeks, and I was presented with a *fait accompli*. So I felt disempowered. I felt a very large erosion in sense of belonging and so I felt sad about it.

Similarly, another senior manager, P, felt anger, frustration and disappointment at being excluded and said, “There was a “horrible feeling of lack of control...we felt quite useless in the process. We...had no control, we had no influence over the process, felt disempowered and basically just conned.” As managers with a previous history of consultation, both A and P had expected to have been involved in decisions about the change, an issue that surfaces in changes to the psychological contract (Lester & Kickul, 2001). Turnley and Feldman (1998) surveyed managers in a downsizing and found a considerable number who complained of breach of the psychological contract item of input into decisions. One of their respondents is recorded as saying, “Since the merger, I have become a number, a non-entity if you will, and of no importance to the organization” (p. 74).

Conversely, two of my participants who negotiated their own redundancy felt satisfaction. M did so because he did not like the nature of the role assigned to him. O found another job and still managed to negotiate a redundancy package before an organisational decision on her role was made. Having earlier referred to “freefall”, she commented that later in the process “taking control of a process that was totally uncontrollable...was a powerful thing for me to have done, so I felt really good.” Assuming control, according to Latack (1986), is both a cognitive and an action-

oriented strategy to cope with stressful situations. Using a number of items from Latack's measures, Fugate et al. (2008) found that control-oriented strategies were helpful to people who negatively appraised organisational change. A number of my respondents, when asked a question as to how they usually responded to organisational change, declared that they were open to it, and managed it well, but felt significantly better when they had control over it. R was concerned about having "so many balls in the air" one could drop, and four respondents explicitly commented that they or others were on a rollercoaster. While these metaphors potentially contain both exciting and frightening moments, people who lack control of an event have little impact on their own outcomes, and the emotions they report tend to be more negative and more intense. However, there was a key difference in the responses reported by the various change players - change recipients usually had the least control, change managers some control and change leaders the most control. E, a senior manager, said that he had not resisted change because "probably by virtue of my role I am always in the fortunate position that I never have to accept it as it's given, I like to have the ability to influence."

The dispositional variable of locus of control, and its relevance to organisational change, was discussed in Research Question 6. High internals believe they can exert control to achieve their objectives (Chen & Wang, 2007). While many of the respondents in my study appeared to be high internals it was also clear, as Chen and Wang admit, that in certain circumstances, even these people will not commit to a change. Several of my participants would not commit to a change specifically because they perceived they could not control the direction it was taking. It is precisely those who have a high internal locus of control who feel the most frustrated and disconsolate when they cannot control a specific change. Le Fevre, Matheny and Kolt (2003) indicate that locus of control works together with perceived control over a situation in influencing a person's ways of coping with stressful events.

Lack of control, or at least influence over change, leads to negative outcomes and feelings of exclusion, disenfranchisement and self-doubt. Being controlled by other people subjects employees to what Fineman and Sturdy (1999, p. 650) call the "emotionality of power" and they note that "frustration, resentment, weariness and irritation become more meaningful in the context of...perceived powerlessness." The concept of power is one of the central themes of organisational studies (e.g. Jermier & Clegg, 1994) as organisations are often sites where "unequal relationships create dynamics of dominance, resistance, submission and control" (Kersten, 2006, p. 261).

Elfenbein (2007, p. 324) has outlined how power relationships influence the cognitive appraisal process in organisational settings:

Power is woven throughout the appraisal process, given that higher power actors are more likely to approach versus avoid, to be active versus passive, to act as initial causal agents, to be in control currently, and to enforce others' adherence to norms and social standards.

Power imbalances are usually reflective of hierarchical levels, manifested more overtly in positional power or authority, but often underpinned by other sources of power, such as access to and control over information, or allegiance with other power holders (French & Raven, 1986; Buchanan & Badham, 2008). The power to lead or implement change lies at various hierarchical levels that reflect the nature and scope of the change, and the legitimate authority of the power holder, but the power to resist change may lie at any level. In the current study, W became frustrated when one staff member, despite considerable management efforts to communicate the reasons for the change, idiosyncratically refused to accept a new schedule of salary payments, and consumed management time and energy before reluctantly conceding. V resisted a change by communicating the implications of change to outside stakeholders. His lack of power, however, led to his suspension and dismissal.

Lack of control over processes and outcomes, together with perceived acts of injustice, can lead to retaliation, such as sabotage, theft and violence (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999; Bensimon, 1994; Bies & Tripp, 2002; Aquino et al., 2001; Fox et al., 2001; Barclay et al., 2005). In managing the closing of a branch and the accompanying redundancies, G reported that acts of arson and theft had taken place, even though the company had strenuously tried to act as ethically as possible.

While *lack* of power usually undermines capacity to resist change on a behavioural level, *loss* of power and control have been well documented in the literature as a source of resistance to change (e.g. Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Lau & Woodman, 1995; Young, 2000; Oreg, 2006; Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006) and of negative emotions (e.g. Bovey & Hede, 2001a; Vince, 2006). References to power, or lack of it, were found in many of the transcripts in my study, and tellingly, among managers who had exerted more power before the changes. A was unhappy that senior executives "have power over me while I remain in this organisation, they have power over my future." R reported that many partners in a professional services firm resisted change because they "just thought that their power would allow them to maintain the status quo and they'd go, well, you know, I'm a senior partner here so I'm not going to do this." The perceived loss of power was even more acutely felt when the CEO supported the

changes. L reflected that during the creation of the human resources department of an organisation “a lot of the decisions that I was empowered to make, but not necessarily overtly supported to make, were taking away, in their eyes, some power from those senior managers.”

The emotions of people exercising power, or being deprived of it, become part of the conflicted nature of some aspects of organisational change. Gibson (1995, p. 48) notes that the reactions of respondents in his research study were evidence of the “power of anger to overcome dominant organizational prescriptions of control and suppression”. Several of my respondents, as did Gibson’s, voiced their anger to their managers, as means of trying to wrest some control over a change. But, as researchers have found (Poder, 2004; Mesquita et al., 2000; Mondillon et al. 2005), power differences reinforce the perceived needs of some subordinates to hide their anger towards their managers. Being in a senior management position did not protect M from being abused by the tirades of his general manager. He experienced anger and other negative emotions but mostly hid them from his boss. Mondillon et al. (2005) found that although there are cross-cultural differences, powerful people tend to elicit mostly negative emotions in others, which the latter are expected to suppress. Power holders are less constrained in inhibiting their own emotional expression, especially of anger and contempt.

Those leading and managing change, according to Buchanan and Badham (1999, p. 615), become “engaged of necessity in the exercise of power, politics and interpersonal influence.” In a later publication, Buchanan and Badham (2008) describe organisational politics as a socially-constructed notion. They suggest that political behaviour is mostly construed, by researchers and organisational personnel, as negative and unethical, a view corroborated by Butcher and Clarke (2003) and Ferris, Perrewé, Anthony and Gilmore (2000), and that many people do not acknowledge their own behaviour as political. Selling, implementing and resisting change require political skill and the ability to manage relationships with a variety of stakeholders (Butcher & Clarke, 2003). In the current study, some of the participants resented what they saw as unethical political behaviour in others, partly because they saw it as unfair, and partly because it frustrated the achievement of what they believed were their own legitimate outcomes and those of other employees. A number revealed a distaste for playing the types of politics required by their organisations, particularly when they could not reveal aspects of upcoming changes that other employees were keen to hear. Their concerns

for morality and their own reputations for integrity were considered more important than engaging in political behaviour, but they nevertheless acquiesced because it was considered 'professional' (Fournier, 1999; Roberts, 2005).

As various researchers have pointed out (e.g. Badham & Buchanan, 2008; Poder, 2004), power also vests, often imperceptibly, in systems rather than individuals, and becomes embedded in organisational culture. Committees, departments or senior management teams often arrogate rights to themselves to make decisions, such as those involving budgets, restructuring and downsizing, and individual employees may feel it pointless to resist the 'system'. The need to control one's emotions may arise from an employee's perception of the affective climate of the organisation (Zembylas 2006; Barsade & Gibson 2007). Comments by my participants, reported in the previous chapter, on how culture constrained their emotional expression, confirms the theoretical arguments of Sturdy and Fineman (2001) and their empirical study (Fineman & Sturdy, 1999) that cultural control can be a negative force for employees.

In summary, the more control people have over a change process the more content they feel, partly because they are more able to deliver better outcomes for themselves, and which they tend to judge as fairer, and partly because of the relational issues they read into the situation.

5.3 Relationships with Colleagues, Family, Partners and Friends

The above section on control of change explored how power differences influence supervisor-subordinate relations in ways that go beyond the concepts of the perceived leadership ability, emotional intelligence and trustworthiness that were explored in Research Questions, 9, 10 and 11. There are other internal relationships to which participants referred that played a part in their affective responses to change. And while change and stress outside the workplace played a minor role for some participants (Research Question 8), relationships with outsiders, such as family, partners and friends, were meaningful to a number of them.

Relationships with Colleagues

When asked how they had managed the emotions of change a number of respondents referred to the positive relationships they had with colleagues. In each situation the participants derived comfort from the support they were given as individuals or the

collegiality of people who were in the same position. For example, C, who moved to a new site when his division was bought by another company, said:

Rightly or wrongly, I just told them about things. And my sort of close colleagues...when I said I was going, I was reasonably open I think with my emotions...it's dependent on the relationship with the people. There's a number of guys on the shop floor that over all the years I've spent a lot of time with and I have reasonably close relationships and I guess I was reasonably open with my emotions and how I felt about changing.

In G's organisation each member of the executive team had a colleague who served as a peer supervisor and whose support proved meaningful. He reported:

I've got a psychologist supervisor internally, inside the company, one of my team. He's a psychologist and when we're doing our own mentoring and coaching stuff we have processes of what you would call supervision if you were clinicians. So if there's anybody we're coaching, we offload that to our reference person every three weeks.

K and his colleagues were told to either accept the new role of contractor (rather than employee) or completely lose their relationship with the organisation. He reported that one way in which he managed his emotions was by sharing thoughts and feelings with a group of colleagues in the same position:

I think talking just with other members of the group. There was probably two or three of us within that team and there were different groups within that had synergies with each other. So I think we just sort of worked as a group and talked about it as a group and we used to go up and have lunches and just go through it over and over and over again. I think we stuck together pretty well within our own little groups throughout the process.

A number of streams of literature provide helpful perspectives on the value of individual and group support. Some researchers have focused on everyday events, some on stressful aspects of work, but few specifically on organisational change.

Firstly, researchers into the dynamics of workplace relationships have noted their impact on job satisfaction, productivity, organisational commitment, cohesion, absenteeism and exits or intentions to quit (Morrison, 2008; Morrison & Nolan, 2007). Peers are able to provide various forms of support such as providing information or helping with extra work or difficult tasks, which in themselves produce positive emotional reactions in recipients, but of particular value is direct emotional support (Odden & Sias, 1997). There is evidence to support the view that gender plays a role in the type of support provided. Men are more likely to engage in instrumental or task-related activities while women tend to provide an extra relational and emotion-based form of support (Morrison, 2008; Ashton & Fuehrer, 1993; Odden & Sias, 1997). Gender differences were not, however, apparent in the small sample of people I

interviewed. Emotional support is particularly helpful during times of stress (Turton & Campbell, 2005; Buunk, Doosje, Liesbeth, Jans & Hopstaken, 1993) which may occur in organisational change. The findings from the current study on organisational change confirm the main thrust of this stream of literature that colleagues are able to provide various forms of support that help those involved in change to manage their own emotions. It is not colleagues in general who provide sufficient support for people. As Poder (2004) and Odden and Sias (1997) found, people tend to confide in 'trusted' or 'special' peers, those with whom they have closer ties. Piderit (1999) found that workplace friendships helped to reduce resistance to change when the proponent for change was a friend, and that friend had been appointed to a special coaching position. Conversely, while not noted by my respondents, the impact of negative relationships and conflict with colleagues, that predate or accompany the change, could exacerbate negative emotional reactions to it (James, Brodersen & Eisenberg, 2004; Kurtzberg & Mueller, 2006; Morrison & Nolan, 2007).

Secondly, in the stress and coping literature, Folkman and Lazarus (1988) note that although they classified 'seeking social support' as a problem-focused coping strategy it could equally well serve as a form of emotion-focused coping. This was borne out in one study where Latack (1986) found a significant number of people using social support to cope with stress, which she confirms is both comforting but also a proactive form of taking control of a situation. Discussing issues with colleagues in a supportive environment is also a way of verbalising emotional issues. Martin et al. (1998) found evidence of the value of this in their study of The Body Shop. The term 'venting' can connote high intensity emotional expression but can also take the form of simply verbalising emotional issues. X and his colleagues also used social support as a form of emotion-focused coping:

Sometimes we used to have a little joke and a laugh and talk about some good things, talk about politics and talk about movies or some TV programmes and try to push whatever it was, whatever was bad... to the back.

One respondent in Robinson and Griffiths' (2005, p. 215) study of major change in an organisation commented, "It really helps when things get bad to have a good old chinwag, you know, get things off your chest." Bacharach et al. (1996, p. 489) report that due to changes in employment conditions flight attendants could no longer socialise on the planes, and according to one they went "to the bars to bond....Going to the bar became the means by which flight attendants attempted to get closer to somebody."

Thirdly, researchers in emotional labour have pointed out that while expressing negative emotions to superiors often comes at a cost (e.g. Turnbull, 1999; Tiedens et al., 2002), a safer and more productive outlet is sharing emotions with colleagues, who may or may not have experienced the same issues and the same emotions. Lively (2000) interviewed a number of paralegals in a law firm and found considerable evidence of what she termed reciprocal emotion management. Strazdins (2002) found that companionship reduced the stress of emotional labour of healthcare workers and Pogrebin and Poole (1988) reported that enjoying collegial humour was one way in which police officers mitigated the negative aspects of their roles. In the current study, X observed that expressing emotions to colleagues helped to reduce stress from dealing with customers, while expressing emotions to his boss garnered no support other than inauthentic sympathy.

Fourthly, researchers into the emotional intelligence (EI) of group members have indicated that enhancing a group's EI creates better harmony and helps members cope with work demands (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). Wolff et al. (2002) and Druskat and Pescolido (2006) found that the 'emergent leader' is a member of a group who has various leadership attributes, and is particularly able to pay attention to the emotional needs of group members and provide emotional support. Ayoko, Callan and Härtel (2008) report that groups with a positive emotional climate, particularly with regard to the degree of empathy and emotion management, produced less conflict and handled it better, than those lacking in group EI. Participants in the study conducted by N. Clarke (2006) revealed how supportive group members made the demands of hospice work easier to deal with. The benefits of various EI abilities in group settings has also been demonstrated by Jordan and Ashkanasy (2006) and Elfenbein (2006). While respondents in the current study did not talk about the EI of team members, it appeared that their own EI had contributed to the ability of others to cope with change. L and O both showed considerable empathy with regard to colleagues and provided emotional support to them. During his suspension V was denied access to any support from his colleagues by management fiat. "Nobody was allowed to talk to me. I wasn't allowed to make contact with them and they weren't allowed to make contact with me."

To summarise, when change players at any level find that their colleagues understand the emotional aspects of change, whether they are facing the same issues and experiencing the same emotions or not, they feel more able to deal with their own emotions. In one sense they feel less alone, in another that a sympathetic or empathetic

audience has simply acknowledged and validated their feelings. The four streams of literature referred to above confirm the value of emotional support from workplace colleagues but little research has been done in the context of organisational change.

Relationships with Family, Partners and Friends

Issues of outside relationships arose when respondents were asked whether there were any factors outside the workplace which had contributed to their affective reactions to change, and also when asked how they had managed their emotions. A number indicated that the support of people outside the organisation had been helpful. Some turned to colleagues in other organisations who might be in the same functional area, such as human resources. Most turned to family, partners and friends for support.

Support from people outside of work, similar to that from people at work, can take the form of a sympathetic ear, or good advice offered, or it can be validation of perceptions and feelings. For example, V indicated that he sought:

communication with other people, family, friends...and just trying to find out where other people could see what had happened to me as being fair. I couldn't see it myself and I wondered whether anybody else could see it as being fair but from everybody that I'd spoken to they just couldn't believe it either.

Some respondents were ambivalent about how much support they got from personal relationships outside of work. W admitted, "I would have probably gone home and vented my frustrations", but he did not reveal what response this triggered. Participant A noted, "I think having support from the home environment makes the time a lot easier. And I think that the level of support I had from the home environment was variable." A few respondents indicated that changes at work had negatively affected work-family issues but that heavy workloads unrelated to change were also contributing factors. Given that these issues were particularly personal I did not probe any further.

While some enjoyed support from home others chose not to burden their families and others with workplace problems. R said, "I try not to take too much into the family, if it's either high or low. You need to switch off from people and go home, that's it, forget this place." Woodward and Hendry (2004) found a significant number of their respondents reported that one way they coped with change was by deliberately separating work and home issues. Montgomery et al. (2006) suggest that employees need training into how to 'decompress' before going home that so that conflict and stress at home are minimised. However, this may make work-related change more difficult to handle.

Some of the work-life/work-family literature confirms the value of support from family, partners and friends in dealing with work-related issues (Brotheridge & Lee, 2005; Wharton & Erickson, 1993), but little has specifically dealt with change. And research into the emotional intelligence of friends and family has also attracted little attention.

Support from family, partners and friends is therefore a helpful way in which employees can cope with the emotional demands of organisational change, either because others provide constructive advice or because employees felt comfortable sharing their thoughts and feelings.

To conclude the inductive phase of the findings, control of change and support from people other than supervisors, such as from colleagues, family, partners and friends, were relevant additional factors to those specifically researched in the deductive phase. Had they been more explicitly investigated, the nature of respondent comments would probably have revealed considerably more evidence of the type of impact of these factors had.

It is therefore now useful to revisit the model of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change that was originally presented and comment on how helpful it proved to be.

CHAPTER 6: REVIEW AND REVISION OF THE MODEL

In Chapter 2 I presented a model of personal responses to organisational change that was designed to include as many relevant factors as possible. I also gave reasons why I was using a model, conventionally a tool of quantitative research, in a qualitative study. The model was derived from the literature review and took account, *inter alia*, of the models of Gibson (1995), Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), Piderit (2000), Paterson and Härtel (2002), Paterson and Cary (2002), Brotheridge (2003), Kiefer (2005) and Szabla (2007). It is now appropriate to analyse how useful the model is as a framework for understanding organisational change at the personal level, and secondly, how valuable it has been in answering the 13 research questions. It should be re-emphasised that the model was not tested, which is a quantitative approach, but explored through the means of semi-structured interviews. Comments as to what are properly mediating or moderating variables are normally discussed, and tested, within a quantitative framework, but as I argued in the methodology chapter, the terms can also profitably be used in qualitative approaches.

The model proposes that change events trigger cognitive processes, which in turn evoke affective responses. Together the cognitive and affective elements lead to behavioural responses. While some people may be so profoundly affected by their emotions that they are unable to realise the implications of their actions, others do consider them, regulate their emotions and modify their preferred behaviour. The insights I gained from the 24 interviews gave me confidence that this aspect of the model was realistic.

These processes are based on the cognitive appraisal theory of Lazarus (1991; 1993; 1999; 2006) and Scherer (1999) which takes the position that emotions are preceded by, and triggered by, perception and reasoning. Primary appraisal involves the perception of an event and an evaluation of its significance for the wellbeing of the perceiver. Secondary appraisal occurs when the person contemplates coping strategies. There is wide support in the literature for this theory (e.g. Leventhal & Scherer, 1987; Weiss et al., 1999; Cropanzano et al., 2000; Parrott, 2002; Bies & Tripp, 2002) and its application to organisational change (e.g. Paterson & Härtel, 2002; Barclay et al., 2005).

Most of the respondents in the current study reportedly managed to control their emotions, and when they were unable to do so, and responded in what they considered to be an inappropriate way, they experienced embarrassment and regret. Regulation of emotion (Gross, 1998) is indicative of high levels of emotional intelligence (Mayer &

Salovey, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997) but also of political astuteness. There was evidence of the full range of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses - positive, negative, neutral and mixed - and of the ways in which cognition and emotion combine to create or restrain behaviour in the context of organisational change. Emotion was always precipitated by a triggering event - some aspect of the organisational change.

The model proposes that the emotions people experience during change are mediated by perceptions of four possible factors that lie within the change itself: favourability of outcomes, scale, the temporal issues of frequency, timing and pace, and fairness. In this context a mediating variable is one that acts as a lens in helping people shape a judgment, “and helps explain how external physical events take on internal psychological significance” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). According to Zerbe and Härtel (2000, p. 156), “organizational events affect emotional responses through appraisal processes.” To give some examples from my study, respondents experienced anxiety over working out how they would cope with job loss, extra workloads, large scale change and processes that were too quick, too frequent or poorly timed. Perceptions of injustice of any category (distributive, procedural, informational and interpersonal) produced anger and resentment when participants considered the causes and agents of injustice.

The moderating variables that lie within the employees’ personal backgrounds, and their perceptions of their change leaders and managers, influenced their thoughts, feelings and actions. Positive perceptions led to positive emotions and actions. This lends weight to the two-stage process of appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991) that people first evaluate the consequences of events for their wellbeing before formulating coping strategies, including those dealing with their emotions. It should also be noted that while Lazarus’ theory focuses on personal wellbeing and pays little attention to that of others, participants in this study were also concerned as to how others would cope with the change.

Respondents’ perceptions of factors pertaining to the organisation as a whole, also proved to be relevant, namely its organisational culture, particularly its affective climate and orientation towards change, and the broader internal and external environmental contexts.

Other aspects of the model that need comment are whether the mediating and moderating variables are placed in the correct categories and are as relevant and

inclusive as I originally believed them to be.

As to the first point, the location of only one of the mediating variables is debatable. Is the justice of a change a mediating variable that lies within the employee's perception of change itself, or can it be categorised as a moderating variable that lies within the perceptions by employees of the factors that relate to their change leaders and managers?

“Moderation implies that the causal relation between two variables changes as a function of the moderator variable” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1174). It could be argued that justice is meted out by people and therefore, in the context of this model, it belongs in the realm of employees' perceptions of change leaders and/or managers. And if fairness (or unfairness) is a systemic feature of an organisation (Beugré & Baron, 2001), and manifests itself also in change processes, it could be found in the employee's perception of the organisation. Yet not all aspects of fairness/unfairness can be attributable to people. For example, if an organisation is under severe pressure to lay off staff due to acts of terrorism or natural disasters like floods or droughts, or to a severe downturn in the economy, it is conceivable that employees may judge the outcomes of their redundancy as unfair (“this should not be happening to me”) but not due to unfair actions by the organisation or its managers. Another possible argument is that perceptions of fairness can be partly influenced by dispositional elements in the perceiver. People with high degrees of dispositional cynicism (Dean et al., 1998; Stanley et al., 2005) or negative affectivity (Watson & Tellegen, 1985; Skarlicki et al., 1999) could construe processes and outcomes of change as unfair, whereas others with more positive natures would not. Paterson and Härtel (2002) and Brotheridge (2003) consider justice a mediating variable in their models of change.

However, where respondents spoke of justice, or more particularly, injustice, their thoughts and feelings were in most instances directed at organisational players, namely, those leading and managing change. Change leaders mostly believed that the changes were fair, perhaps not in terms of outcomes for those who were made redundant, but in terms of the processes and personal approaches that were used. The justice variable should therefore be moved from a factor within the change to a factor within the employee's perception of the change leaders and managers. While fairness and trust are constructs with a lot of common ground (Ferres et al., 2005; Paterson & Cary, 2002) the fairness variable is sufficiently distinct from that of trust in the literature and the interview data to justify it being treated as a separate factor.

The second point that merits discussion is whether the variables, mediating and moderating, are relevant to organisational change and are sufficiently broad in scope. All 13 factors were derived from the literature review and found to be relevant in participant comments. However, one factor, change and stress experienced by employees outside the workplace, was referred to by very few respondents, and there is little other empirical evidence to suggest that it is a relevant factor for most people. From a phenomenological perspective, however, one cannot exclude it from the range of factors that could impact on people facing change. The work-family literature does refer to work stress and family-based stress (e.g. Brotheridge & Lee, 2005) and a non-work change can be considered a potential stressor (Brotheridge, 2005; Rahe et al., 2000; Folkman & Lazarus, 1988).

The inductive phase of data analysis produced two extra factors that justify inclusion in a revised model: control of change relationships with colleagues, family, partners and friends.

Control of change proved to be a dominant factor in the participants' emotional responses. When they exerted control they felt more content that outcomes and processes would be fairer and more favourable. Conversely, absence of control, and more tellingly, loss of control, induced negative emotional responses, often of an intense nature. In most cases participants attributed the absence or loss of control to organisational actors. This could justify its inclusion in the category of employee perceptions of change leaders and managers. However, a complicating factor is the relationship between control and other variables within the individual. For example, dispositional traits, in particular, locus of control, change, self-efficacy and propensity to trust others, influence the degree of control people expect or need. Previous experience (including that of change) may also shape the expectations of a person that he or she will be consulted in a change, or delegated the authority to manage some aspect of it. These issues lend weight to the argument that control of change should be included as a factor within the individual.

The second factor that emerged in the inductive phase of data analysis was the nature of relationships of participants with colleagues and people outside the organisation. Where they enjoyed the support of these people they experienced the emotions of comfort and contentment. These forms of support either reinforced the support from their managers, or served as a useful counterpoint to the lack of it. While a few respondents could see a relationship between change at work and change and stress

outside the workplace, a larger number referred to the support from family, partners and friends. Both factors within the employee should therefore included in a revised model.

The original model (Figure 4) is juxtaposed with the revised model (Figure 5). In short, justice/fairness has been moved from a factor within the change to a factor within the employee's perception of the change leader/manager. Two new factors were included. Control of change, and relationships with colleagues, family, partners and friends have been added to those factors with the employee. While the positioning of certain factors in various categories may be problematic, their inclusion as factors influencing cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change is not in doubt.

There may also be other factors that influence responses to change that have not been included. Firstly, the revised model looks at how support from managers, colleagues and outsiders can help people deal with change but does not include the concept of subordinates providing support to their supervisors. Several change managers and leaders did refer to the negative responses of subordinates and how this impacted on their own emotional responses, including those of anxiety, guilt and frustration. Clair and Dufresne (2004, p. 1613) interviewed managers tasked with downsizing and found that they often took evasive action:

I stayed in my office . . . I was afraid of being the grim reaper . . . people don't want to see you . . . don't want to talk to you (014)...It was almost like the natural reaction was to hide in your office, stay low key, not be so visible (031).

Looking for support from victims or survivors of downsizing may be an unrealistic idea but the acknowledgment of subordinates of the difficulties faced by the managers would nevertheless be useful for the latter. Support from followers for managers facing heavy workloads or difficult decisions in other types of change would be of some comfort.

Allied to this line of thinking, the emotional intelligence (EI) of followers in a change initiative could enable them to provide meaningful support to their supervisors. The EI abilities in the model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) that relate to others' emotions can apply to followers understanding their leaders. While there is a growing body of research on how leader EI influences followers (e.g. Wong & Law, 2004; Barling et al., 2000), there is little research as to the dynamics of the opposite direction. Jordan (2005) proposes that employee EI results in emotional regulation and therefore less conflict arising during change. Extending this approach an employee with EI might be able to see causes for a manager's emotions and be able to provide psychological and

more tangible forms of support.

Thirdly, the physical and psychological health of employees plays a role in how they respond to certain types of change. They may lack the capacity and/or the motivation to make the necessary adaptations. While there is research evidence to support this with respect to any facet of organisational life (e.g. Kessler & Stang, 2006; Donald, Taylor, Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright & Robertson, 2005), no respondents in this study referred to it.

Fourthly, relationships with external stakeholders, such as customers, suppliers, community agencies, government and the media, may influence how an employee responds to an organisational change. For example, in the literature review two newspaper reports referred to shareholder dissatisfaction, expressed at board meetings, with certain types of change (Ward, 2006; Contact Energy bows to pressure, 2008). Issues of this nature could enter employee discourses on change. The literature on emotional labour in customer service situations (e.g. Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1990) has documented the negative outcomes of dealing with difficult people and situations. However, participants in the current study made no reference to these external relationships as influencing their responses to change.

Finally, any aspects of working life that employees are dissatisfied with may impact on their responses to change. For example, people who are underpaid, work in poor physical conditions, do not like their hours of work or certain tasks, may be disinclined to support organisational change unless they can see certain benefits. The literatures on job satisfaction (e.g. Warr, 1990) and organisational justice have pointed to the negative organisational outcomes of people who are not happy with certain aspects of their work. In this study the issue of fairness of a change was explored in some depth. Fairness issues unrelated to change may also influence emotional responses to the change.

The revised model presented in Figure 5 includes factors that appear to be the most relevant to the way in which people respond to organisational change on cognitive, affective and behavioural levels.

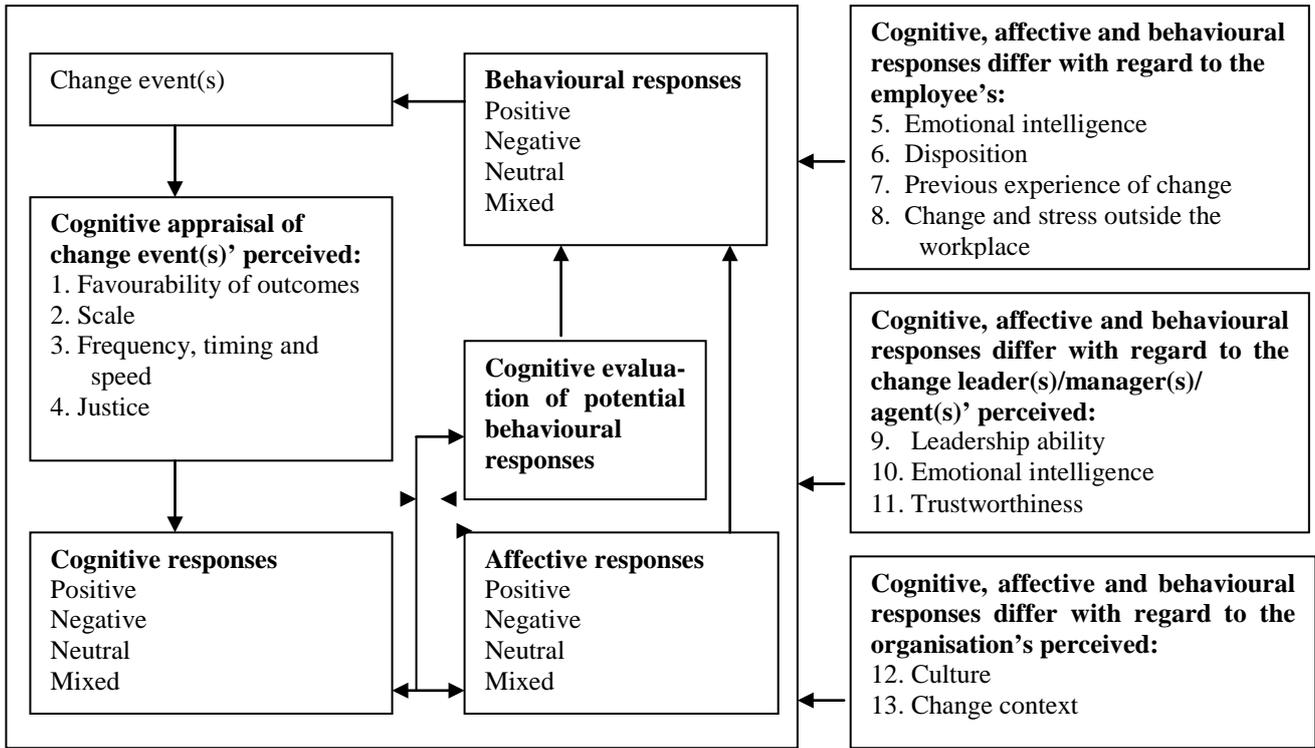


Figure 4: Model of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change

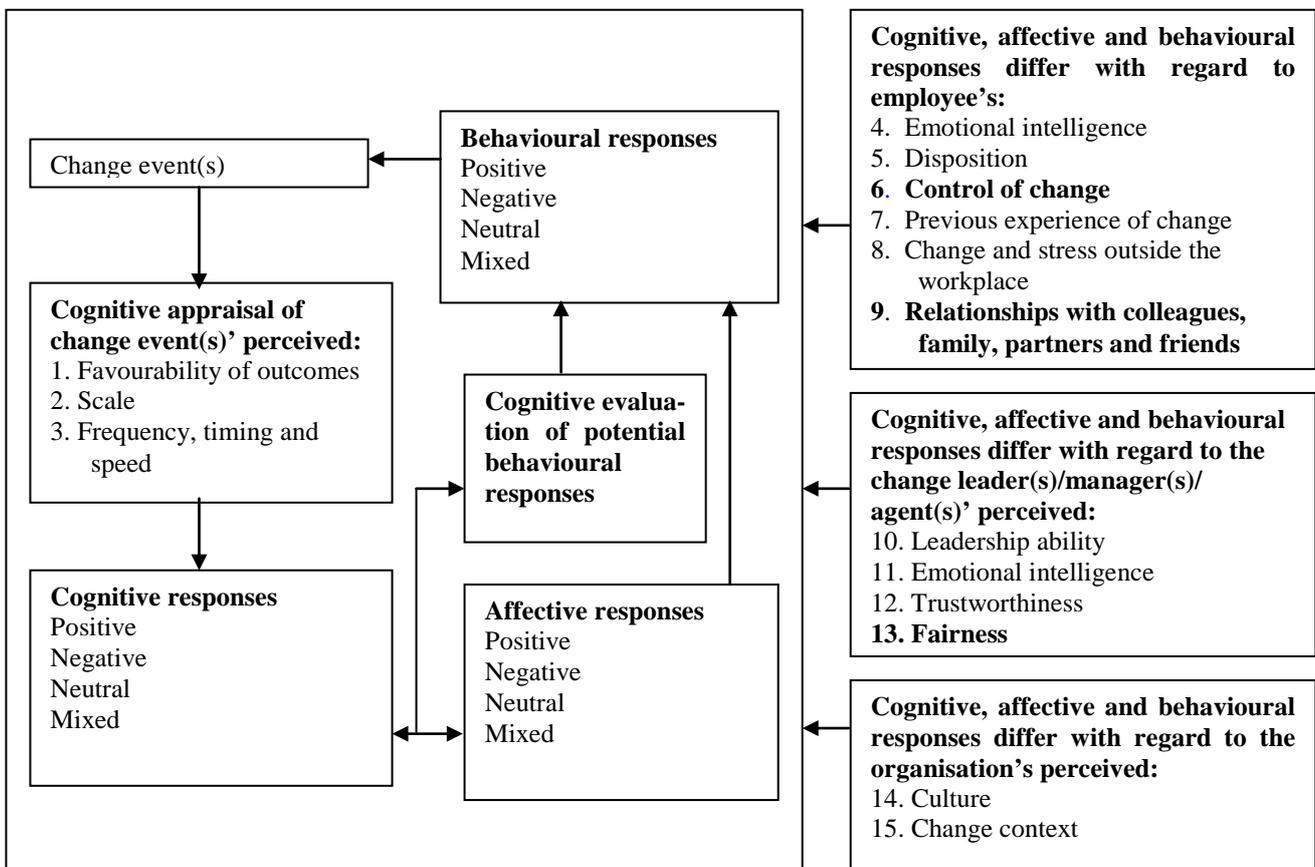


Figure 5: Revised model of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to organisational change

CHAPTER 7: LIMITATIONS OF RESEARCH

It is now necessary to explore some of the ontological, epistemological and methodological limitations of this qualitative study of emotions and organisational change. The nature of interview data, in common with any other self-report method, produces pitfalls that are inherent in human nature, such as “faulty memories, oversimplifications and rationalizations, subconscious attempts to maintain self-esteem, due to needs for acceptance, achievement and security, and social desirability” (Wolfram Cox & Hassard, 2007, p. 477). Problems with self-reports have frequently appeared in various research paradigms (e.g. Veal, 2005; Rosenblatt, 2002), including the literature pertaining to emotions (e.g. Larsen et al., 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Scherer, 1999; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Feldman Barrett, 2004). Documenting and analysing people’s experience also raises other issues that lie outside their idiosyncratic frailties.

7.1 Depth, Breadth and Complexity of Change

Wolfram Cox and Hassard (2007) have identified four approaches used by researchers in analysing the past: controlling the past aims to reduce bias and faulty memory; interpreting the past seeks to reconstruct reality; co-opting the past looks for cause-effect relationships; representing the past “does not assume that the present is ontologically separate from the past” (p. 485). At various stages of my analysis I have used all four approaches.

In reconstructing the past an interview of 60 to 90 minutes cannot capture the depth, breadth and complexity of a person’s emotional experience of an organisational change. Even though early on in the interview respondents were asked to describe the change and the emotions that first came to mind, and at the end of the interview were asked whether any other issues were relevant, the semi-structured nature of the interview led them to concentrate on issues directly raised in the questions. Had I specifically engaged other constructs, such as conflict, power, gender or ethnicity, the content and tone of the answers may well have been different. More open-ended narrative approaches (Boje, 2001) could have produced issues that may have been more relevant to the respondents, but which did not surface within the format of the interview. Since the model developed for this study aimed to be as inclusive as possible, depth must necessarily be sacrificed for breadth, particularly in a one-off interview of this nature. For example, even though questions were asked about four types of fairness

I could have mined this construct to a deeper level had I not decided to delve into the other 12 factors that are built into the model.

From an ontological perspective the ‘reality’ of the respondents’ experience of change could not be *fully* described in the chosen format, but nor would it be possible with any other method. Change takes place over time and cognitions, emotions and actions vary accordingly (Isabella, 1990; Kiefer, 2002a; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Changes with various elements, and multiple changes occurring either simultaneously or consecutively, will also trigger multiple responses on all three levels. A person could not possibly recall all responses. The ‘reality’ recalled in the interview is partial and is the past reconstructed and re-presented (Wolfram Cox & Hassard, 2007). It might be different on another day and in other contexts. In particular, the emotions expressed during the interview may have been somewhat different to the emotions experienced during or shortly after the change. Mood at the time of the interview may have influenced the nature of the emotions and moods recalled from the past (Sakaki, 2007).

In his investigation of emotion and organisational change Poder (2004) reflected that he would have preferred to have conducted at least two interviews with each participant; the first covering background information and the identification of emotion, the second to probe the emotional experience and to revisit difficult issues that were not dealt with in depth before. Seidman (2006) believes that ‘validity’ can only be accomplished with three interviews with the same person. A. Clarke (2006), who felt she needed four interviews in her empirical study, took a similar approach. As well as providing a more detailed account, repeat interviews might also produce more memories, and ones that are more accurate. (Issues of accuracy are explored below.) I rejected this approach because it would lengthen and complicate the completion of this study, and also because I believed that I would gain sufficient insight with one interview. Completing the first few interviews confirmed the expectation. Nevertheless, I am aware that interviews on emotions from past organisational changes aim to freeze an elusive and evanescent reality where it is possible that “the semblance of realism is no longer attainable or valued” (Wolfram Cox & Hassard, 2007, p. 486).

7.2 The Vagaries of Memory

Reliance on participant recall of events (such as organisational change) can bedevil interviewing and other methods of gaining information, including the quantitative (Gomm, 2004; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Perception of an event is a process that

has multiple aspects, including stimulus, interpretation, memory and retrieval (Pecher & Zwaan, 2005; Sanitioso & Niedenthal, 2006; Kinicki & Kreitner, 2006). Respondents may not recall in detail the events that transpired, nor what they thought, what they felt and what they did. Participants described some changes that had multiple elements and phases, and expecting them to recall the issues, let alone the attendant emotions, is unrealistic. Selective attention or perception depends on a variety of factors, among them being salience (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2006; Tierney, 2003), which means the stimulus stands out, because of its meaningfulness and because of people's tendencies to recall experience that enhance self-concept (Sanitioso & Niedenthal, 2006). In the context of organisational change, some employees may pick up on cues that alert them to important aspects of the change, while others may not. An additional point is that over time memory tends to fade (Arksey & Knight, 1999). Some interviewees chose to focus on a change event that happened several years before the interview and this may have undermined the accuracy of their memories.

While the ability of people to recall details over a long period can be a problem, Talarico et al. (2004) found that emotional intensity does enhance memory. My participants often had very clear memories of what transpired in the past, including two people who had no difficulty recapturing redundancies that occurred seven and nine years before the interviews, and another had vivid recollections of a variety of change events and emotions up to 14 years prior to the interview. Participants in the study on emotions and organisational change by Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) were also able to recall events and the accompanying emotions years after they occurred. It is an interesting point that events of an emotional nature have the potential to enhance people's capacity for retention and recall, probably because of the powerful impact that they had - and might still have (Lemonick, 2007; Barclay et al., 2005; Frijda, 2000). My interviewees were gently probed to confirm the accuracy of their recall. Part of the interview protocol provided participants with the opportunity of commenting on the accuracy of the transcript, and to add to or amend details as they saw fit. Had they chosen to do so accuracy of recall would possibly have been greater.

7.3 Openness and Honesty

I was concerned whether people would talk openly and honestly about their feelings, which are usually private and sensitive (Brannen, 1988; Lee, 1993; Arksey & Knight, 1999; Holloway & Jefferson, 2000). Some of the feelings may show negative aspects of

an interviewee's personality or behaviour and a person may seek to disguise them (Holloway & Jefferson, 2000). However, participants were expressly told, both by the consultant who approached them on my behalf, and by me, that the main topic of discussion was the emotions of change. One can therefore assume that people were willing to talk about their emotions (and their antecedents and consequences), but not necessarily fully. Interviews were also handled with empathy and sensitivity and the ethical guidelines advocated by Brannen (1988), Lee (1993) and Arksey and Knight (1999) were noted and followed. Participants were not pushed on emotional issues, and if I sensed they did not want to talk on a certain point, I did not insist.

I could not adequately assess whether respondents were being honest in their replies or whether they were trying to make a good impression (Gomm, 2004). These doubts are an almost inevitable outcome of any form of qualitative research but my overriding, perhaps naïve and 'romantic' view (Alvesson, 2003), is that respondents were acting with integrity and were not deliberately trying to deceive me. Answers appeared honest and forthright, even when they were not particularly flattering. Respondents who cried in organisational exchanges had been somewhat embarrassed at the time this had happened but did not seem embarrassed to recount these experiences in the interview. Related concerns to that of honesty are the possibilities of attribution errors and self-serving bias.

7.4 Attribution Errors and Self-Serving Bias

The fundamental attribution error is a tendency for people to overestimate the role of personal factors in others' behaviour and underestimate external factors (Langdridge & Butt, 2004). A related concept, the self-serving bias (Gomm, 2004), occurs where people recall information that casts them in a favourable light (Veal, 2005). Successes are usually attributed to the perceiver while failures are often considered the fault of others. This may be an unconscious tendency that operates as a defence mechanism or it could be a deliberate attempt at impression management. Gomm (2004) identifies other potential biases. A co-operation bias persuades the respondent to give an answer even when he/she does not have the right answer; a social desirability bias leads to answers that the respondent believes are socially correct; and an acquiescence bias results in an answer that the respondent thinks the interviewer wishes to hear, and not the true answer, which the respondent is unwilling to provide. These concerns go the heart of the debate on epistemology - how do researchers construct and present the 'truth'? By

querying participants' statements the interviewer may get the interviewee to reflect on both the accuracy and the honesty of the statements made, but most times cannot be sure of either. Gomm (2004) went to unusual lengths with one interviewee, by conducting further investigation unbeknown to the interviewee, which he admitted was not his normal method, and found that the respondent had not given truthful answers to some of the questions. He was unsure whether the person had been deliberately lying or had unconsciously constructed events with a self-serving bias. My research study involved people from different organisations. It was therefore not feasible to obtain corroborating or contradictory views, nor was this necessary for the purposes of this study. Therefore, together with most other interviewers, I cannot be sure that respondents saw matters accurately or were being truthful.

7.5 Inconsistency and Contradiction

People often provide inconsistent responses or contradict themselves (Cresswell, 1998; Deetz, 1996). For example, B said that her manager was a "great guy" and "the loveliest man" who was very supportive, but who nevertheless has "the lowest EQ of anybody I've ever met" and who allowed her to work "80 to 90 hours per week" without recognising the huge emotional cost. Kvale (1996) claims that the process of ensuring the reliability in interviews is to check whether participants are consistent in what they say, and that the use of leading questions, while usually considered to be a problem, can aid in verification of statements.

One assumes that people are mostly logical in their analysis of certain events and will demonstrate consistency in their responses to questions. But, as Alvesson and Deetz (2000, p. 74) suggest, "When inconsistency appears it may be an outcome of the interviewee wanting to avoid repetitions, adding nuances or complexities." While it is also conceivable that people forget what they said earlier, another possible explanation is that different facets of an organisational change triggered different thoughts and different emotions, and they may have recalled one aspect of a change while being questioned on another. When contradictions seemed to have emerged I followed up with further questions, in line with Holloway and Jefferson (2000, p. 27), who indicate in their text on qualitative approaches that in their own research "There were constant invitations to explain actions and feelings, motivated by our pursuit of contradictions, inconsistencies and the 'irrational explanation.'" However, it also needs to be acknowledged that some of these inconsistencies only became apparent in the process of

data analysis and were not followed up with the respondent.

7.6 Ability to Label and Articulate Emotions

A concern is the accuracy with which respondents were able to label and articulate the emotions they experienced in the planning and implementation phases of an organisational change event, and the aftermath. Many of my participants struggled to put words to the emotions they acknowledged experiencing. For example, Y said, “I’m not going to be very good at answering these emotion questions because I just can’t remember, can’t differentiate it, I can’t identify what it is really.” Some referred to cognitions rather than emotions, which is unsurprising given the ambiguous nature of the question, How did you *feel* about it? For example, a respondent might reply, “I felt the restructuring was not a good idea because it did not improve business outcomes.” And do lay people know the difference between shame and embarrassment, between anxiety and fear, between envy and jealousy? To minimise these risks I asked questions to finetune participants’ understanding of the terms used.

Commenting on methodological issues in studies of emotions in organisations, Sturdy (2003, p. 81) suggests that emotions have often been construed as “especially elusive - private, intangible, transient, unmanageable and even ‘unknowable’”. He goes on to say that “feelings are real, but cannot always be observed, identified, controlled, or labelled” (p. 82). Gubrium and Holstein (1997, p. 65) advise that “Since emotional experience is often buried, mysterious and inarticulate, questions and answers can often miss what the respondent actually feels ‘deep down’”. Fineman (2004) also points out that feelings are sometimes difficult to express or categorise. Respondents who are high in emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), and who also have good memories, will be more able to identify and label their own emotions and recall how they managed their feelings.

It is important to note that the EI of the participants at the time of the change may not have been the same as at the time of the interview. General or cognitive intelligence is amenable to change and growth (Roberts et al., 2001) and so too is EI. Some of the interviews were conducted years after the changes took place and the EI of the respondents could easily have increased with experience, training and other forms of learning (N. Clarke, 2006; Jordan, 2005; Jordan et al., 2002b; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). B admitted, “I wasn’t as emotionally mature then as I probably needed to be for the role”, but appeared in the interview (nine years after the change) to have developed

considerable insight into her own EI and that of others. She was familiar with the term EI and raised it of her own volition in the course of the interview with respect to one of her previous managers. S indicated that her experience with organisational change had given her “a good emotional intelligence around what goes on.” The ability to articulate emotional experience in the interview process helps to shape the individual’s retrospective and socially-influenced construction of reality and this may have been different to the level of EI possessed at the time of the change.

7.7 Qualitative Investigations of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Personality

In the literature review I noted that qualitative studies in EI and personality were extremely rare. Research into both constructs has been overwhelmingly quantitative in nature with apparently only two qualitative studies in EI (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2004; N. Clarke, 2006), neither of which was about change, and possibly one in personality (Ablett & Jones, 2007), where issues of change were peripheral. Apart from the inherent differences between quantitative and qualitative research (Guba, 1990; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005a), qualitative research into EI and personality presents particular challenges, which is possibly why they have so seldom been subjected to qualitative treatments.

EI is considered as ability (e.g. Mayer & Salovey; McEnrue & Groves, 2006; Jordan et al., 2002b) and/or as personality (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997; Tett et al, 2005) and both have conventionally been tested psychometrically (McEnrue & Groves, 2006; Engler, 2003). The literatures on EI and personality are replete with warnings that self-reports are one-sided, inaccurate and subjected to self-serving bias and other weaknesses (e.g. Davies et al., 1998; Wilhelm, 2005; Hofstee, 1994; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Briggs, 2005). In terms of EI the MSCEIT (Mayer et al., 2004) differs from other instruments in that it compares self-reports of ability to expert and consensus scoring (Mayer et al., 2004; McEnrue & Groves, 2006), thereby reducing the weaknesses of self-reports.

Regardless of discussion of accuracy and objectivity, Fineman (2004, p. 270) objects to the quantitative paradigm “where people come to be ‘captured’ in an emotional ‘number’ that can bear but crude resemblance to the complexities of their own affective life.” But while qualitative researchers have explored the experience of emotion in organisational life, and organisational change, they have not explicitly focused on EI.

Puzzled as to the lack of qualitative research into EI I emailed a number of well-known researchers with a query as to whether EI could be explored with a qualitative methodology. All agreed that this could be done. (Their names and publications appear in the reference list, but since I did not seek their permission to use their names in this regard, I will refrain from doing so here.) The researchers who have used interviews (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2004) and focus groups (N. Clarke, 2006) to research EI have produced some useful reflections on how EI made their respondents more competent and reflective health care professionals. As part of their research into the development of EI in leaders, Groves et al. (2008) required participants to conduct an interview with a manager (or a non-native resident of the USA). Naturally the goal here was enhancing EI not ‘measuring’ or analysing the EI of the interviewee.

Social scientists have shied away from investigating intelligence from a subjective point of view, preferring, it seems, to seek refuge in the “socially constructed, collusive, comfort in numbers” (Fineman (2004, p. 724). Subjective determinations of intelligence, cognitive or emotional, are anathema to psychology, in any branch. Testing of cognitive or general intelligence has itself proved to be controversial for various reasons, including cultural bias and weaknesses in methodology (Westen, Burton & Kowalski, 2006; Sternberg, 2004), even with the use of well-known and scientifically validated instruments. Investigating EI (or any other form of intelligence) through qualitative means would seriously call into question the qualifications and experience of the interviewer, the nature of questions asked, the approach used to evaluate the responses, and so on - dangerous territory for the researcher.

In contrast, the use of published psychometric instruments that have been found to measure up to the yardsticks of validity, reliability and objectivity, is generally deemed to be the only acceptable approach. Broadly speaking, “The empirical materials produced by the softer, interpretive methods are regarded by many quantitative researchers as unreliable, impressionistic and not objective” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 5), particularly when it comes to the subject of intelligence, emotional or cognitive. Yet qualitative researchers have always designed, tried, promoted and defended new research methodologies and what was once frowned on has often later become acceptable (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005a).

Two facets of EI have been presented in this study. In Research Question 5 I explored people’s own EI and in Research Question 10 it was the EI of leaders and managers of change. The question arises as to whether emotional ability can be

competently addressed in an interview format. My goal was not to obtain a full picture of the EI of participants or their change leaders/managers. This would have required questions specifically geared to each of the 16 abilities found in the preferred Mayer and Salovey (1997) model. In a previous paper (Smollan, 2006a) I speculated how a number of these abilities could be of use to all change players, and in this study found compelling evidence of what I believed was EI. However, this could not be adequately researched in an interview that included 11 other factors underlying emotional responses to change.

My goal in Research Question 5 was to see whether the EI of participants helped them to be aware of and regulate their own emotions during organisational change. I asked them whether they had been expected to show or hide emotions during change, and how they had managed their own emotions and those of others. Jordan et al. (2002a) propose that EI at all four levels in the Mayer and Salovey model helps people deal with perceptions of job insecurity that arise from organisational change. My change recipients who faced this type of uncertainty showed evidence that they were aware of their emotions and were generally able to manage the anxieties they felt, together with the anger some experienced from feelings of betrayal. Where change leaders and managers were aware of others' levels of anxiety or anger they often managed to use this insight to respond suitably. As a methodological approach it is clear that my selection and interpretation of quotes about the EI of the participants is subjective. Readers, too, are free to make their own subjective judgements, based on my selection and interpretation of quotes, whether this is indeed evidence of EI during organisational change.

My goals in Research Question 10 were to find out if participants believed their change leaders or managers had been sensitive to the needs of the participants (and possibly others involved), but, more importantly, how this level of EI had impacted on the participants' own responses. Once again, I am satisfied that elements of EI did play a substantial part. It could be argued, however, that if a participant is low in EI he/she may not have the ability to judge the EI of others. Nevertheless, it is the perception of leader EI by the participant, rather than the actual EI of the participant, that is of interest in this research question.

Similar ontological, epistemological and methodological issues characterise research into personality in which two opposing approaches have been used, the psychometric and the psychodynamic (Winter & Barenbaum, 1999; Engler, 2003;

Leary, 2005). In the dominant positivist paradigm similar issues with respect to self-reports that confound research into EI were found in personality research (Westen & Gabbard, 1999; Hofstee, 1994; Petrides & Furnham, 2000). Pervin (1999, p. 691) advises that there are “serious questions about the use of self-report data as a foundation for a science of personality” but suggests that their utility should not be discounted. The use of the reports of others (Pervin, 1999; Hofstee, 1994) does provide alternative perspectives but it is also clear that unless they are well trained, observers may not have the ability or insight to make meaningful statements about the behaviour, let alone the personality, of other people.

At the other end of the spectrum of personality research are the psychoanalytical and psychodynamic approaches. According to Winter and Barenbaum (1999, p. 7), “Mainstream psychologists ignored or criticised biographical and case study methods and were (at least initially) quite hostile towards psychoanalysis.” Shaver and Mikulincer (2004, p. 23) suggest that what they term the eclipse of psychodynamic theories of personality was partly because “it was difficult to create valid measurement techniques and obtain unambiguous empirical evidence for psychodynamic propositions.” They do however refer to a renaissance of this line of research and others have indicated that the use of multiple methods would do a service to research into psychology (Kelle, 2006; Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Plano, Petska & Creswell, 2005).

In understanding how a person copes with stressful events Lazarus (2006, p. 42) advises that:

Personality research should move beyond cross-sectional designs, and efforts should be made to produce a rich, full, contextual portrait of our research participants. I assert that we need to go back to a much more idiographic perspective and seek rich in-depth descriptions of the lives of individuals over time and diverse conditions.

Yet researchers do not seem comfortable with the interview approach, as opposed to psychoanalytical approaches, which involve multiple sessions with people who have sought or been referred for professional help with psychological issues.

My use of this approach therefore leaves me open to criticisms of subjectivity, and, given that I am not a qualified psychologist, of inadequate experience and knowledge. However, it is not my reading of participants’ personalities that is of the greater importance in this study, rather it is their personal accounts. Of much greater relevance are their own beliefs of how dimensions of their personalities influenced their responses to organisational change.

Methodological preferences aside, the interviews provide a rich vein of data on

participant EI and personality in the context of change. I do not claim that they present a full picture of individual differences, merely that in analysing them I have been presented with a unique opportunity for the development of insight into emotional experiences of organisational change. Had I had the luxury of more time I would have explored both constructs in more depth. In terms of EI, I could have looked more closely at the four branches of the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model and the four sets of ability sitting on each branch. Likewise, I could explicitly have investigated many personality traits, rather than letting the respondents choose them. Some respondents made no meaningful comments at all on personality but with a more directed approach I believe that personality issues could have been more fully researched.

7.8 Nature and Size of Interview Sample

The small size of the interview sample (24) and the local context would suggest a limit to the generalisability of the responses, the quantitative term, or their confirmability, the qualitative equivalent (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). I do believe that the interviews provide me with sufficient data to indicate that emotions were experienced in each of the 13 research questions I investigated, although one, on change outside of work, produced few comments. The 24 respondents not only shared with me unique experiences but the analysis of transcripts also reveals both the different and similar meanings they attached to concepts such as fairness, the meaning of resistance to change, the influence of timing issues and so on. The location of the interviews (Auckland) and the change experiences (New Zealand) may lend weight to issues of nationality in the social construction of reality but a number were born outside the country and the 24 were taken from various ethnic groups. The comments of participants seemed to be similar to those reported in the literature and which cover many different countries but cross-cultural studies do indicate that the experience, expression and suppression of emotions may have cultural influences (e.g. Bagozzi et al., 2003; Tan et al. 2003; Mann, 1999b; Bolton, 2005; Jones et al., 2003).

CHAPTER 8: CONTRIBUTIONS, FURTHER RESEARCH DIRECTIONS, PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 Overview of the Study

The main research aim was to investigate the emotional experience of people involved in organisational change and their cognitive antecedents and behavioural consequences. Of particular interest was the discovery of what emotions people felt, why they felt them, how they managed them, and how these responses influenced their behaviour.

The literature review revealed a number of key points. Firstly, cognitive appraisal theory indicates that emotions are triggered by events that individuals perceive as promoting or threatening their wellbeing (Lazarus, 1991; 1993; Scherer, 1999). Secondly, organisational change is potentially what Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) describe as an affective event because it can deliver better or worse material outcomes, and impact on people's relationships (Tyler & Lind, 1992; Scandura, 1999) and sense of identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1987). Thirdly, despite a pervasive mindset that emotions are not rational (see Domaglaski, 1999), a thread that weaves its way through the work of Weber (1947) and other writers, researchers across the fields of philosophy (e.g. Solomon, 2003), sociology (e.g. Hochschild, 1983; Fineman, 2003), social psychology (e.g. Leventhal & Scherer, 1987) and management and organisational psychology/behaviour (e.g. Ashkanasy et al., 2000; 2002; 2005) have strongly argued that emotions are mostly rational and therefore should not be marginalised as inappropriate, disruptive and dysfunctional. Fourthly, coping theory (e.g. Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; 1988; Lattack, 1986; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000; 2004) has provided insights into how people deal with emotions in difficult multiple settings, including those that occur in organisational change (Woodward & Hendry, 2004; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Fifthly, the emotional labour literature (Bolton, 2005; Mann, 1999b) has put forward the message that while many emotions are considered inappropriate in organisational settings, including those dealing with change (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006; Smollan, 2006a), employees are at times *expected* to show certain emotions. Finally, the literature on emotional intelligence has mostly described it as the ability to understand one's own emotions and those of others, and 'manage' both (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This is a strength when dealing with the emotions of organisational change (Jordan, 2005; Smollan, 2006c).

Multiple other constructs emerged in the literatures on emotions and change.

Many of them have been incorporated into affective models of change (Gibson, 1995; Piderit, 2000; Brotheridge, 2003; Kiefer 2005). Some of these models deal with a specific type of change, such as downsizing (Paterson & Härtel, 2002; Paterson & Cary, 2002), or focus on one major element, such as leadership (Szabla, 2007). The model I developed for this study was an attempt to depict as many factors as appeared to influence individual responses to change. These factors were categorised as those relating to the change, those in the realm of the individual, those in the realm of the change leader and managers and those relating to the organisation.

The methodological foundation of the study was social constructionism because it provides insights into how subjective experience is shaped by multiple social influences in organisational and other settings (e.g. Gergen, 1985). Social construction theory has been a growing area of research into emotions (e.g. Fineman, 2003), organisational change (e.g. Ford et al., 2000; Mills, 2000) and many of the other factors contained in the model.

The interviews with 24 people from different organisations, departments and positions revealed that change is an emotional event for all of the people concerned, with varying levels of intensity. The deductive phase of analysis confirmed that all factors were relevant to some of the participants, with concern for personal outcomes and fairness as dominant themes. Inductive analysis uncovered the importance of two extra factors, a person's control over change and other relationships, inside and outside the organisation. With the addition of these two factors, and the moving of the justice variable from the group of factors relating to the change itself to those relating to the employee perceptions of leaders, the model was revised.

8.2 Contributions to the Literature

This study has therefore extended the relatively thin qualitative literature on the emotional aspects of change. It sheds light on what emotions were experienced, and why, in more than 24 change settings (some participants referred to more than one organisational change). It showed how people believed their ability to understand their own emotions and those of others, and to deal with both, played an important role in their roles as change leaders, managers and recipients. This thesis has consequently extended this methodological approach to the study of emotions and organisational change, and their interface with organisational justice, time, leadership, trust, culture and other relevant constructs investigated.

Two constructs researched in this study, emotional intelligence and personality, have empirical qualitative literatures that are apparently so thin they are extremely hard to find. Both have been extensively researched in quantitative fashion and the challenges of exploring them with a qualitative approach have been discussed at length. Feedback on the unorthodox qualitative treatment of these two constructs in this study should not only enhance understanding of their substantive aspects but also of their ontological, epistemological and methodological research foundations.

The model developed and revised for this study emanated from an attempt to depict as many factors as appeared relevant that influence individual responses to change. The revised model includes a wider range of factors than other models of emotional responses to change have done. It therefore makes a substantial contribution to the literature on emotions and change.

Exploration of the model through interviews revealed the complexity of cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change, and how ambivalent and contradictory many of the responses were. Dawson (2003, p. 25) has called for a “broader understanding of the complex, untidy and messy nature of change.” The logical, recipe approach of many change writers, while providing ostensibly sound advice, seldom captures the nature of change that Dawson refers to. Nor do these writers adequately address the unique responses of individual players in change. Each of the constructs embedded in the model evoke different affective responses, as the change progresses from introduction to implementation and the aftermath. The fluid amalgam of emotions of change form part of the wider experience of emotions in the workplace and cannot easily be separated from them. This study has also answered Bamberger’s (2008) call for more qualitative research into how internal and external contexts influence our understanding of organisational dynamics.

8.3 Further Research Directions

The limitations to the research study were documented in the previous chapter where it was pointed out, *inter alia*, that an interview of 60 to 90 minutes with 24 people in one city cannot mine the territory of emotional responses to change in depth. Nevertheless, the revised model provides a solid framework for further research into the emotions of organisational change.

Further qualitative and quantitative studies could identify and explore a number of other factors that might be relevant. Grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and

narrative approaches (Boje, 2001) may uncover aspects of change that have not yet been adequately researched. The use of focus groups (e.g. N. Clarke, 2006; Dasborough, 2006) highlights the many similarities and differences in people's responses to organisational issues, and could be profitably used to research different reactions to the same change within an organisation. Participant observation of change (e.g. Poder, 2004; Huy, 2002) would provide extra insights and a contextually richer stream of data than single interviews could. Action research into change, as Lüscher and Lewis (2008) showed, enables researchers and subjects to co-construct the purposes, methods and data analysis of a multi-method research study.

The location of the study and nature of the respondents provided a particular New Zealand-based context. Aspects of nationality seldom surfaced in the interviews and future studies could investigate whether nationality (and ethnicity) played a role in the emotional responses to organisational change. Previous studies have shown that these factors influence how people show or hide emotion (e.g. Bagozzi et al., 2003), deal with the affective ramifications of power issues (Mondillon et al., 2005), view the emotions of injustice (Mikula et al., 1998) and cope with change (Oreg et al., 2008). Cross-cultural issues dealing with the emotional elements of organisational relationships in the context of change have been under-researched (Oreg et al., 2008). Issues of gender were raised by two women in this study and this too is a factor that could be explored in depth in future studies. Studies of gender have also explored emotions, or change or related constructs (e.g. Bolton, 2005; Martin et al., 1998, Armstrong-Stassen, 1998; Morrison, 2008), but the intersection of gender, emotions and organisational change has received inadequate attention.

While the respondents reported experience of more than 24 organisations, and from various hierarchical levels, functional departments and industries, the issues peculiar to different influences could be isolated and investigated. Views that lower level staff are marginalised in change by the power of management (e.g. Bryant, 2003) are juxtaposed with evidence from this study and others (e.g. Young, 200; Turnbull, 1999; Huy, 2002; Vince, 2006), that managers too, some at very senior levels, experience negative outcomes in change and therefore negative emotions. While studies have compared cognitive readiness for change at different hierarchical levels (e.g. Holt et al., 2007) comparative studies of how different change players experience the emotions of change are rare.

In addition to the various methods that could be used to further explore the

emotional responses to change, some deeper ontological, epistemological and methodological issues need more debate. I have indicated that there are multiple perspective on emotions, such as the physiological, cognitive and social constructionist. According to Küpers and Weibler (2008, p. 267), “Any single perspective on emotions is likely to be partial, limited and perhaps distorted, what is needed is a multi-paradigm and multi-level analysis, and thus integral research.”

The debate on how much of emotion is socially constructed has been engaged by a variety of researchers (e.g. Gergen, 1985; Craib, 1995; Williams and Bendelow, 1996; Burkitt, 1997; Schwandt, 2003; Clarke, 2003; Mann, 1999a; Bolton, 2005; Küpers & Weibler, 2008). My own orientation has been to what Schwandt (2003) would term ‘weak’ social constructionism, in that I believe that while the experience and expression of emotions has strong cultural influences, other forces play important roles.

While discussion about what Hibberd (2003) refers to as the metatheoretical level of social constructionism will continue, the theoretical level of analysis of the socially-constructed nature of emotion poses considerable challenge to the researcher. And the context of organisational change as a site for emotions research is even more daunting, given that added constructs, such as fairness, leadership, time and resistance to change, both inform and confuse the issue of the origins of emotions. The physiological approach to emotion can uncover what bodily reactions precede, accompany or follow affective responses to change, the cognitive theorists will argue that the emotions of change are always accompanied by thought, and social constructionists of the strong and weak varieties will emphasise the complete or partial influence of social interaction. Each approach has its strengths and weaknesses. An integration of the various strands is a useful path to follow, but, as Sturdy (2003) suggests, multi-method approaches that ignore crucial differences will be problematical. Indeed, the more radical adherents of each school will likely view such efforts as not merely a poor compromise but as conceptually flawed. As Denzin (1997), whose own position is of strong social constructionism, consistently asks: Whose truth are we referring to? Broader debates about social constructionism as a methatheory of psychology and sociology and the narrower one on emotions, particularly in the context of change, are bound to be passionate.

8.4 Practical Implications

The insights presented in this study should be of value to all types of change players:

leaders, managers, agents and recipients. It was pointed out earlier that there are conceptual and practical difficulties in distinguishing between various roles in organisational change (Caldwell, 2003; Higgs & Rowland, 2000; Kanter et al., 1992) and that one person can play several roles in the same change programme, or different roles in different changes. Experience of organisational change can be a humbling experience, even, or especially, for managers, who do not always control change events, and who are subject to the same gamut of emotions as other organisational personnel. The interviews conducted for this study revealed the complex emotional responses of managers who played various roles in the change under consideration but who also referred to different roles in different change events.

Change leaders should note what emotions and moods they are experiencing and why, that they may experience both positive and negative changes at the same time, and how they can transition between emotions as the changes play out over time. Doing this effectively requires skill in all four levels of the emotional intelligence model of Mayer and Salovey (1997). Change leaders tend to ride on the positive and negative emotions and moods they may be experiencing (Isen, 2000) and could benefit from being more balanced in their decision-making. Similarly, the challenges of leading change may heighten feelings of anxiety that should be harnessed (Parrott, 2002) so that they do not become counter-productive. Change leaders need to know how mood can enhance creativity (Montgomery et al., 2004). Change leaders also need to understand that other change players will respond in idiosyncratic ways to organisational change that depend on the factors that may be particularly salient to the individuals concerned. Sanchez-Burk and Huy (2008) advise change leaders to also be aware of the variety of emotions of staff as individuals, in groups, and in the organisation as a whole. They point out that while some people may view an announced change with fear or contempt, there might be a sufficient number of other staff who have positive emotions such as hope, and whose engagement can be leveraged to create a more positive momentum. Their message is clear - focus on the individual *and* others.

Change managers or implementers have to deal with their own emotions and moods and those of change leaders, agents and recipients. They may not agree with the changes yet are expected to show the appropriate behaviours, and often the emotions too (Turnbull, 2002; Huy, 2002). Issues of power accompany many change programmes (Buchanan & Badham, 2008) and deliver their own emotional dynamics. External change agents also have to manage the emotions of various stakeholders, but are as

prone to emotional responses as any others, even though their stake in the change may be different (Jarrett, 2004). Greater insight into the emotional responses to change - and their causes and consequences - would serve both change managers and agents well.

Change recipients, and this includes all involved in change in some way, find many aspects of change to be emotional. They too need to understand their own emotional responses, and how to deal with them, while simultaneously noting the reactions of other internal stakeholders at various hierarchical levels, as well as those of outsiders who may be affected by the organisation's change.

While this thesis, and most of the literature on emotions and change, focuses on organisational staff, the emotions of external directors (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003), shareholders (Ward, 2006) and other outsiders also need to be taken into account. The cognitive and affective responses of suppliers, customers, joint venture partners and government to an organisation's change can affect its success.

A key to understanding affective responses to change is emotional intelligence. Many researchers have called for training in EI at all levels in the organisation so that people can predict, identify and manage workplace emotions, including those arising from change (Goleman, 1998b; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Jordan et al., 2002a; Jordan and Troth, 2002; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). If EI is aggregated in an organisation it creates what Huy (1999) labels emotional capability - a systemic acknowledgement and validation of the emotional nature of change and the capacity to deal with it. Training courses in EI are offered on many consultancy websites and, despite their pleas for training in EI, researchers have been concerned that weakly researched models and poorly developed programmes may both be ineffective and give EI a bad name, especially given the controversies that bedevil (and enrich) the EI discourse. Research in training effectiveness in EI is urgently needed and is beginning to develop (e.g. Groves, McEnrue & Shen, 2008). Confirmation that training in EI enhances the experience of organisational change (Antonacopoulou & Gabriel, 2001; Jordan, 2005) has yet to be established.

8.5 Conclusions

Laments in the 1990s that emotion has been under-researched have given way to the heralding of the 'affective revolution' (Barsade, Brief & Spataro, 2003) and "a near explosion of research on the topic" (Elfenbein, 2007, p. 316). The breadth of research

into the emotions of organisational change has been less impressive but this relationship has increasingly been highlighted.

Emotions are central to life in all its facets. Work presents a site where the emotional issues of power, identity and group relations are ignited, sometimes in explosive ways. This thesis has emphasised both the alignment and misalignment of thought, emotion and action when individuals experience organisational change. It has highlighted the multi-faceted, complex, conflicting and ambivalent responses to different aspects of the change. It has directed the reader to the individual ways in which people at all levels and in all change roles play the game of change, sometimes by rules that are socially constructed, sometimes by their own rules, which they have consciously or subconsciously determined. People need the skill to be able to identify, label and manage emotions to benefit themselves, others and the organisation itself. Training people in emotional intelligence and organisational change will deliver emotional capability on an organisational level (Huy, 1999) and more productive experiences in organisational change. The current worldwide economic crisis has already spawned multiple organisational changes, and will continue to do so. An understanding of the emotions of change is an imperative, to minimise the negative consequences for organisations and their staff.

Finally, writing this thesis has been my own journey of change. The depth and breadth of knowledge I have gained from reviewing the literature, interviewing 24 participants, leading, managing and experiencing organisational change in my own university, writing and presenting conference papers, and listening to discourses of change in other contexts, has made this doctoral study an emotional rollercoaster of personal change.

CHAPTER 9: REFERENCES

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CHAPTER 10: APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Participant Information

Code	Gender	Age at interview	Ethnicity	Industry	Dept	Role in hierarchy*	Type of change#
A	M	40	E	Prof services	Tech	S	Restructuring Job design
B	F	40	E	Service	HR	E	Restructuring Job design
C	M	50	E	Manufacturing	Eng	S	Acquisition Job design
D	F	50	E	Prof services	HR	E	Redundancy
E	M	40	E	Fin services	HR	S	Restructuring
F	M	40	E	Manufacturing	Ops	M	Restructuring Job design
G	M	50	E	Retail	HR	S	Redundancy
H	F	40	E	Health	GM	G	Job design
J	M	30	A	Services	Cust serv	F	Policy
K	M	50	E	Prof services	Cust serv	E	Redundancy
L	F	40	E	Prof services	HR	E, F, M	Multiple
M	M	40	E	Health	Ops	S	Restructuring Job design
N	M	40	E	Communication	GM	G	Outsourcing Redundancy
O	F	30	M	Social services	Ops	E	Redundancy
P	F	30	P	Health	Ops	S	Acquisition Job design
Q	F	40	E	Services	HR	S	Job design
R	F	50	E	Services	HR	S	Multiple
S	F	40	E	Prof services	Ops	S	Restructuring Job design
T	F	30	M	Social services	Tech	E, F	Job design Office move
U	F	30	A	Retail	Sales	E	Acquisition
V	M	40	P	Social services	Ops	E	Restructuring Suspension Dismissal
W	M	40	E	Communication	HR	S	Acquisition Job design Redundancy
X	F	50	A	Social services	Security	E	Operations
Y	M	30	P	Communication	GM	G	Office move

Role in hierarchy (at time of interview)*

E = Employee
 F = First-level manager
 M = Middle manager
 S = Senior manager
 G = General manager

Type of change#

The main types of change are listed but other changes may also have occurred.

Appendix 2: Interview Questions

Describing the change and the individual's response to it

The individual's perception of the nature of the change and overall emotional reactions.

1. Please describe the change that took place in your organisation.
2. Please describe your emotional reactions to the change.

Describing factors that may mediate the individual's cognitive and affective responses to the change

The individual's perception of the impact of the change on him/her and on others

3. What impact did the change have on your job or some aspect of your employment?
4. What impact did the change have on others?
5. How favourable were the outcomes and for whom?
6. And did these outcomes have an emotional impact on you?

The individual's perception of the scale, frequency, speed and timing of change

7. How big a change was this for you?
8. And did the scale of the change have an emotional impact on you?
9. Had there been many other changes as a result of this change, or had there been many other types of change before and after this change?
10. And did the frequency of the change have an emotional impact on you?
11. How fast was the change?
12. And did the pace of change have an emotional impact on you?
13. How relevant was the timing of the change?
14. And did the timing of the change have an emotional impact on you?

The individual's perception of the fairness of the change

15. How fair were the outcomes of change?
16. And did this have an emotional impact on you?
17. How fair were the processes of change?
18. And did this have an emotional impact on you?

19. How fair was the information you were given about the change?
20. And did this have an emotional impact on you?
21. How fair was the interaction between you and your manager, or other change managers?
22. And did this have an emotional impact on you?

The individual's evaluation of the change

23. Based on what you have said so far...what were your views on how positive or negative these changes were?

The individual's perception of his/her emotion management

24. Were you expected to show any emotion in the implementation of change?
25. Were you expected to hide any emotion in the implementation of change?
26. How did you manage your emotions?
27. Were you expected to generate emotions in others?
28. Were you expected to manage the emotions of others?
29. Did your emotions change over time?

The individual's perception of his/her behavioural response

30. What actions were expected of you as a result of the change process?
31. What actions did you actually take as a result of the change process?
32. Why did you take these actions?
33. Did you resist the change and if yes, how?

The individual's perception of factors that may moderate his/her cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change

The individual's perception of individual factors and how they affected his/her cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change

34. In terms of your personality how do you usually react to change?
35. Did any previous experience of organisational change affect how you responded to this change?
36. Were there any other personal factors, outside the organisation, that affected how you responded to this change?

The individual's perception of leadership/management factors and how they affected his/her cognitive, affective and behavioural response to change

37. How well was the change managed by your manager, and more senior managers?
38. How did their leadership ability affect how you thought, felt and behaved in terms of the change?
39. Did the way they managed the change affect your perceptions of how trustworthy they were?
40. Did they know what you thought and what you felt and how did they respond?

The individual's perception of organisational factors and how they affected his/her cognitive, affective and behavioural response to change

41. How did the culture of the organisation impact on your responses to the change?
42. Were there any other organisational issues that affected your responses to the change?

Appendix 3: Tables of data analysis

Questions 1-8 Types of change (Porrás and Robertson) + scale + outcomes

Ptc. Code + role	1 Type of change	1 Type of change Major category	1 Type of change Minor category	7, 8 Scale of change	3, 5, 6 Outcomes for self + ve (+ control)	3, 5, 6 Outcomes for self - ve + control	4, 5, 6 Outcomes for others + ve	4, 5, 6 Outcomes for others - ve
A Senior manager	Restructuring	Organising Technology	Structure Management style Job design	'It was major'	But then did...>	Less influence/ Responsibility Lower job satisfaction 'Sense of loss' 'sadness', grief low control and expected more . 'Senior mgt has power over my future' Psych C- he hadn't delivered on promises 'It's just not nice being on the losing side of the equation'	Some mgrs like less responsibility. 'relief'	
B Junior HR	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy	Organising Technology	Structure Management style Job design	'It was extra huge'	Career opportunity Hugely energizing Redund payout	'I burnt out' (from the work and conflict) Good for CEO+GMs low control and expected more 'It pushed me to the point where I broke and it changed my life.' 'Pressure cooker finally bursting' - Had to work 80-90 hours pw - then offered \$500 - insulting	Redundancy package Some got good jobs elsewhere GM/CEO looked good – headcount reduction	Redundancy 'People were suspicious, they felt <i>betrayed</i> ' 'Middle managers were <i>gutted</i> ' staff were 'absolutely devastated
C Senior manager	Take over: division sold Location move Redundancy for some others	Organising Social Physical setting Technology	Goals Strategies Structure Admin policies and procedure Admin sys Remuneration Ownership Culture Management style Interaction processes Informal patterns and networks Space config Physical ambience Interior design Arch design All incl job design	Not big for me Big for others	New co. committed to expansion of mnf Some control 'relaxed' about the new employers 'Positive people' Less stressful than previous employer	'disappointed' to leave company after 33 years. Redund was stressful Some control Lower remuneration Lousy office Job had less challenge Lower job satisfaction	Some made redundant 'surprise, shock, dismay, real concern'	
D HR con- sultant	Redundancy	all	all	Big	Started own business 'in hindsight it was a favour' It was a real cathartic exercise. It made me move on mentally'	No control Move back to remun or redundant 'distressed, shock, betrayal. I felt emotionally attached to the org.' 'I wanted to howl my eyes out', angry		Got a <i>shock</i> because there had been no redundancies before
E Senior HR	Restructure	Org Social	Structure + all others for others Interaction Informal patterns Self +others	Big for some others, not for me	'Satisfaction' Helped to build relationships, exert influence High control	Extra work 'Stress' But little other emotional impact	Good for co. More jobs Some got better positions Grief Shock denial	Some redundancies One big loser at senior level anxiety Cycle acceptance

F	Restructure = transfer	Org Technology 'revolutionary change and evolutionary, organic change', p 6	Structure Job design Technical expertise	Eng – possible big job change then moved to HR	Got into new career (HR) <i>silver lining</i>	Little control /expected more Anger at being out of control. High degree of uncertainty and not being able to have any influence on the outcome. Being done unto and left to clean up the mess' <i>black cloud, 'royal pain in the neck</i> <i>distressing' fear of new job, trepidation, concern'</i> Transition phase was ' <i>bloody horrible</i> ' 'standard transition stuff...its not the change that does you in it's the transition' 'Revolutionary change' = <i>tense</i>	Relief (ownership issue) Some got good roles.	Some redundancy
G	Branch closed = redundancy for others	Org arrangements	Goals Strategies Structure Others?	= big> 'Huge' big for those made redundant	<i>Pride</i> , because no PGs High control	Extra work, extra travel, ' <i>Stress</i> ' <i>nervousness</i> meeting deadlines	Got other jobs Excellent redundancy package	Redundancy ' <i>pissed off</i> ' ' <i>stressed</i> ' ' <i>personal grieving process</i> Some sabotage
H	Ownership change. Job change finally left	Org arrangements Social factors	Goals Strategies Structure Admin systems Ownership Culture Management style Interaction processes Informal patterns	Big Significant Ownership change led to various other changes' and they became closer to impacting me as an individual' >	 >	Low control expected much more Reported to own subordinate Lost authority, status ' <i>shock</i> ' ' <i>indignant</i> ' (<i>sys change</i>) 'I was now reporting to someone who didn't really know, know much about what was going on so I was still doing the work' 'Excluded from board meetings and the governance of the organisation.' Excluded from social functions Shifting of loyalties of staff	Subordinate got GM job Company got 'their man' in	Some people left HR manager resigned
J	Cut costs	Org arrangements Social factors	Admin polices Management style	Said it was big (<i>but does not seem like it</i>)		Low control expected more <i>More work</i> <i>More hours</i> <i>More pressure</i> <i>Anger</i> <i>resentment</i>	Good for client	A few redundancies anxiety
K	From employee to consultant = redundancy	Org arrangements Social factors Phys setting	Goals Strategies Structure Interaction proc Informal patterns Indiv attributes Likely move off premises	Big	Set up own consultancy and still works for EMA Earns good income	Low control: "I wasn't in charge of my own destiny." ' <i>sadness</i> ' Drank more Now works more hours	People who stayed got better deal	<i>Anxiety</i> for others affected in same way
L	10 years of change Job design Culture	Org arrangements Social factors Technology	Structure Interaction proc Informal patterns Indiv attributes Job redesign	'quite significant'	Varying degrees of <i>Happy ending, euphoric, elated</i>	control ' <i>Dark periods of time</i> ' ' <i>Hard going</i> ' ' <i>Doubting, questioning</i> ' ' <i>Undermined</i> ' <i>confusion, anger</i> ' sleepless nights	Support form partic	Mgrs had to be more consultative <i>Anxiety</i> for other person ' <i>Undermined</i> ' <i>sad</i> Note establishment of HR role meant 'taking power' from senior managers'

M Senior mgr	Restructure + redundancy self	Org arrangements Social factors Technology	Goals Strategies Structure Ownership Culture Management style Interaction proc Informal patterns Indiv attributes Job redesign Technical expertise	'It was a significant change on paper'	Could have got what seemed bigger role Big redundancy payout Varying degrees of Redundancy = opportunity = relief, excitement	... but wasn't self-doubt control expected more Lower job satisfaction 'It was not the sort of stuff that excites me.' Got nowhere Difficult when people's families phone (redund)		MD made redundant Others anxiety – roller coaster
N GM	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy others	Org arrangements Social factors Technology	Goals Strategies Structure Interaction process Informal patterns Job redesign Workflow	Big – franchising, restructuring outsourcing + redundancies, redeployment, job redesign	Came in as new GM and had to drive the process 'the impact to me personally was nil' High control Little emotion	Had to manage difficult processes Had to deal with insults	Some transferred to new co and got paid slightly extra Supervisors had fewer reports and less responsibility/hassle + = relief?	Some were made redundant or redeployed Fewer reports could be seen negatively as a loss But GM did not hear this. Disbelief, denial, nervousness, anger, acceptance
O Employee	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	Org arrangements Social factors Technology	Structure Culture Management style Interaction process Informal patterns Indiv attributes Job redesign	'Life changing' for self = made redundant	Got another job elsewhere before leaving + pay Relief when process was clarified = certainty	Made redundant Stressful Lack of control: I don't like being a passenger Anger, frustration	Senior people gained None made redundant Some junior people got redeployed	Those made redundant One was traumatized, crying, frightened
P Senior mgr	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	Org arrangements Social factors Technology	Structure Culture Management style Interaction process Informal patterns Indiv attributes Job redesign	'Huge' 'upheaval'	Hopeful ... initially that something good would come out of it Got good job elsewhere	Disestablished division, disagreed with outcomes of change, relocated to different city, relationships broke up, 'our function was being devalued' Low control, expected more 'horrible feeling of lack of control' control' 'we felt quite useless' Anxiety, concern, disappointment, sadness, stress, upset, emotionally draining, tiring, hopeless, then indifferent		People did not like major restructuring, culture change Loss, uncertainty, demoralising
Q Senior HR contractor	Restructuring Job redesign, redundancies + cultural change	Org arrangements Social factors Technology	Structure Management style Interaction process Informal patterns Indiv attributes Job redesign	Self - big, new contract, others was very big for some not for others	Fun, challenge, new interesting, extension of contract Good outcomes for co. High control	Personal attacks, 'screaming and yelling' Sad, disappointed	Excitement - for those who could see benefit, e.g. promotion opportunities, challenge of new role	Fright, nervousness, stress – for those who foresaw problems with role or redundancy hurt, humiliation, anger, distress, those who lost their supervisory roles and took lower level work or redundancy
R Senior HR	Restructuring De-merger Remuneration Performance management Cultural change	Org arrangements Social factors	Goals Strategies Structure Admin policies Admin systems Reward systems Ownership Culture Management style Interaction process Informal patterns Indiv attributes	'massive'	It built credibility High degree of satisfaction in seeing people change High control	Increased workload Pressure, tired	The majority gained Happy if remuneration went up People were getting feedback Interest, excitement, pleasure, appreciation	Unhappy if remuneration went down Shock, horror, fear, apathy

S Senior mgr	Restructuring	Org arrangements Social factors	Strategies Structure Management style Interaction process Informal patterns Indiv attributes	Significant massive	Opportunity Significance of role has been confirmed (status) High control	Process of managing change was <i>tough, draining</i>	Increased resp., higher level <i>Relief</i> for those who wanted reduced role	<i>Unhappiness</i> for those who got reduced roles
T Employee then manager	Relocation to new town	Org arrangements Social factors Phys setting Technology	Strategies Structure Management style Interaction process Informal patterns Indiv attributes Space config Physical ambience Interior design Arch design Job design Technical expertise	Huge, massive	Opportunity <i>excitement</i> Promoted More money more later when became manager	<i>Shock, fear</i> (reloc) Little control earlier...	Those who moved got more money, those who stayed behind got good jobs elsewhere	Some were made redundant – no payout <i>'bad feeling', traumatic</i>
U Shop assistant	Merger	Org arrangements Social factors	Ownership Mgt style	Minor impact on self	<i>Relaxed</i> when no redundancies were announced Low control and no expectation of any	Understaffed when some left due to take over Another co: locks on door changed by liquidators – felt cheated because promised more time <i>surprised, anxious</i>		Some did not want to work under new manager and left <i>Uncertainty, nervousness</i>
V Sports facilitator	Restructure Suspension Dismissal	Org arrangements Social factors	Structure Culture Management style Indiv attributes	Huge suspended/ dismissed	Won his case, got compensation	Lost money, drank more, took a job he did not want Low control <i>Pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very anger, then relieved</i> (outcome/process)		Various stakeholders were perceived to have lost from his dismissal
W Senior HR	Restructure Redundancy others	Org arrangements Social factors Technology	Structure Ownership Culture Management style Interaction process Informal patterns Indiv attributes Job design Workflow	Organisation – big Self - not big	Opportunity to showcase change mgt skills High control	More work, travel <i>Frustration</i> people had not embraced change	Better career options + opportunities <i>enthusiasm</i>	Redundancy Some lost mgt positions <i>Anger, frustration</i>
X Security guard	Building expansion Work schedules	Org arrangements Social factors Phys setting	Goals Strategies Admin systems Culture Management style Interaction process Informal patterns Indiv attributes Space config Physical ambience Interior design Arch design		Got training, permanent position = <i>happy</i> <i>salary increase for some years not others</i> ...>	No general salary inc – due change, pay for expansion No control Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction, no login, more work during construction = <i>frustrated, = unhappy</i> Missed out on promotion = <i>cried</i>	Good for organisation	Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i>
Y Small bus owner	Office move	Org arrangements Phys setting	Goals Strategies Space config Physical ambience Interior design Arch design		High control As owner: business grew <i>Excitement, pride comfortable</i> that I could deal with extra work but...	Extra work, more travel <i>Some anxiety, stress</i>	Good for organisation Less travel for most staff Busy, variety, <i>enjoying</i> their work	More travel for some staff

Observations

Positions of people listed on info sheet not the same as position of change recalled. Number of HR people may have been because they were recommended by consultants in the same area.

1. Q 1-8 (some also Q23 – overall evaluation) and from other parts of transcripts
2. Common types:

Restructure/job redesign	22
Redundancy self	6
Redundancy others	10

(People may have been selected by consultants because they know someone who had been in a major change, and/or participants selected a major change)
3. Porras and Robertson categories:

Organising arrangements	24
Social factors	17
Physical setting	6
Technology	13 (sub-categories not always easy to establish)
4. Most have positive and negative outcomes for self and others
5. Positive outcomes for self generally associated with high control, negative with lower/no control

Low/no control	5
Low /no control but expected more	7
High control	8
Both high/low	4
6. Scale - most people said it was major, massive, huge for self and for others too.
Note ambiguities: Huge for whom? Referring to final outcomes or processes to achieve outcomes or both?
7. Positive outcomes = positive emotions, negative outcomes = negative emotions
8. Intensity seems higher for negative outcomes.
9. Intensity seems higher for own outcomes.
10. Intensity seems higher for low control.
11. Negative outcomes impact on family – rather than family issue impact on ability to deal with change (Q36)
12. There can be multiple outcomes of change, some small - some big, some short-term – some longer term, some favourable – some unfavourable'. Emotional reactions to change therefore vary.

Questions 9-14 Temporal dimensions

Ptc. code	Affective Response to Temporality						Perceived Influence (distinguish between influence on change in general vs. influence on temporal nature of)			Perceived Outcomes (distinguish between influence on change in general G vs. influence on temporal nature of change T)			
	11, 12 Speed of Change		9, 10 Frequency of Initiatives in Change		13, 14 Timing of Initiatives and/or Change					for Self		for Others	
	Positive/Negative Affect	High/Low Intensity	Positive/Negative Affect	High/Low Intensity	Positive/Negative Affect	High/Low Intensity	Spoke from position of having influenced change	Spoke from position of having expected to influence change (more)	Spoke from position of receiving change	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
A Senior manager	- Blink of eye... it was gone like that. Felt <i>disenfranchised</i> . <i>Grief cycle</i>							Fait accompli Cast in stone Level of consultation was token			Lost influence G+T		
B Junior HR	-ve <i>absolutely furious</i> (see also timing = schedule change) Other aspects 'I like thing moving fast, I like fast, I like volume'	H H>		deflation								
C Senior manager	Sale went through quickly		<i>Things were in</i>	<i>a constant state of change</i> quantum changes in owners and sense of direction	-ve concern - couldn't have come at a worse time for business	L	/// (some)					G <i>Happy over</i> redundancy pay	G <i>Surprise, shock, dismay</i>
D HR consultant	-ve <i>shock, anger, anxiety</i> They wanted me gone bang Very fast and <i>unexpected</i>	H						No consultation I didn't feel in control		G started my own bus.	T Others might see this as (instant) dismissal = poor reputation		
E Senior HR	-ve <i>Frustration</i> when others take longer to get the picture	L?					///				T <i>Frustration wastes time</i> G <i>Stress – more work</i> Concern for others		T Too fast = <i>anxiety</i> , being swept along engineered T Too slow = frustration G angst around clarity
F Tech mgr then HR mgr			More about others and about G issues				///		///	G got better role later	G <i>Pain in neck, angry</i>		T (freq) Organisation was change weary <i>punch-drunk uncertainty</i>
G Senior HR	Emo related to issues not time						G				G More travel, more hours, more stress T – <i>nervousness</i> re deadlines G Concern for thers		T Timing = stress for managers of change G <i>trauma, anxiety, anger</i>

H GM then senior mgr	Emo related to issues not time							G			G shock		
J 1 st level mgr			-ve Anger and resentment	?	T Timing, extra hours + wife had baby, mother sick			G			T Timing, extra hours + wife had baby, mother sick		
K HR consultant	'About right.'												
L HR mgr	-ve doubt, apprehensive, on edge		-ve I was wary of change	L	Importance of sequence, p11			G					
M Senior mgr	Too slow: Guilt 'I had to stop short of outright lying' Worried about confidentiality when I told colleagues		It was a rollercoaster	H			G Mostly in control	G Things were being done to me			Felt guilty – lacked integrity		
N GM							G+T				Concern for others	G highs	G lows, poor morale, uncertainty, falling apart, browbeaten T too fast =could be out of job soon T slow = need finality
O Employee	-ve powerless, stressed. Slow in beginning, then freefall	L?							G+T				
P Senior mgr	Too slow -ve frustration -ve, concern for others	H ?	Comfort – you get used to it 'this sector is used to change ...we take it as part of the game'	L				G+T					Concern T slow Uncertainty can demoralise people
Q Senior HR contractor	Too slow for Q, mgt and staff -ve frustration 'Union kept challenging us'	H					G change	T pace					Delay causes pain

Questions 15-22 Justice

Ptc. Code + role	Type of change	Outcomes for self + ve & control	Outcomes for self – ve & control	Outcomes for others + ve	Outcomes for others - ve	Distributive Justice 15, 16	Procedural Justice 17, 18	Informational Justice 19, 20	Interpersonal Justice 21, 22
A Senior manager	Restructuring		Less influence/ Responsibility 'Sense of loss' 'sadness' low control and expected more Psych C- he hadn't delivered on promises	Some mgrs like less respons. 'relief'		+/- 'things that seem fair and equitable when you're benefiting from them don't seem quite so fair afterwards when you're not' but then did ...>	- 'star system' 'my biggest distress is a actually the process because of lack of involvement and a decision that had a major impact on my role being presented as a fait accompli' Psych C- he hadn't delivered on promises	+/- what yes, when yes, 'the why didn't ring true'	+ 'my manager told me he really wanted it to work for me' - But felt <i>trepidation, loss, don't care, don't belong</i>
B Junior HR	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy	Career opportunity Hugely energising Redund payout	'I burnt out' (from the work and conflict) Good for CEO+GMs low control and expected more 'It pushed me to the point where I broke and it changed my life.' - I had to work 80-90 hours per week. I didn't have a day off for months at a time. 'Pressure cooker finally bursting'	Redundancy package Some got good jobs elsewhere	Redundancy 'People were suspicious, they felt betrayed' 'Middle managers were gutted' staff were 'absolutely devastated'	+ Redund package was fair. - 'I needed help. I was drowning and nobody recognised it' - I had to work overnight... -other workload issues 80-90 hours p.w. Got offered \$500 extra - insulting	- <i>unsatisfactory</i> managers could turn down applic for voluntary redund. - <i>furios</i> redundancies announced ahead of agreed schedule (no employee input) - <i>stressed</i> poor people were kept and good ones went <i>I felt compromised...I felt a bit dirty...I had been sullied... I felt I was being used.'</i>	INJ answer here = IPJ> - 'some of the communication [from the union] was not clear, transparent' - 'They were <i>absolutely devastated</i> ' [not given accurate info by union] 'What pissed me off was just the lies' (from mgt) And <i>I felt bad</i> that I was having to go and spout this stuff but I knew it wasn't really the whole story. I had to cloak it in really nice terms' <i>guilt</i> 'they cloaked it as a reorganisation' 'We promised the employees we would be honest and open...we'll tell you first.' Psych C 'some cynical decisions made with the intent to pull the wool over the employees eyes and it annoyed me because they thought that the employees were so stupid that they couldn't see it and that just really <i>pissed me off.</i> '	+ It was planned to be very sensitive. Line managers <i>cared</i> about their people deeply. + Counsellors waiting to help them' - Senior mgt were cut off and insensitive to the junior workforce. They never got amongst the people. They never listened to them. - the lack of caring of junior staff - swearing (workers to partic)
C Senior manager	Take over: division sold Location move Redundancy for some others	New co. committed to expansion of mnf Severance package Some control 'relaxed' about the new employers 'Positive people' <i>Pleased, less stressful</i> than the company	'disappointed' to leave company after 33 years. Redund was <i>stressful</i> Some control Lower remuneration Lousy office Job had less challenge	Some made redundant 'shock, dismay, real concern'		Severance package = + but amount – (contradiction?) Lower remuneration <i>Bit disappointed</i> Lousy office = <i>disappointed?</i> Job had less challenge	'neutral'	<i>neutral emo</i> ' info rec + 'All my q's were answered openly.' <i>uncomfortable</i> info given "you know that you're not telling the whole truth" "You've got to tell them lies.'	Fair <i>Boss sensitive</i>

D HR consultant	Redundancy	Started own business 'in hindsight it was a favour' It was a real cathartic exercise. It made me move on mentally'	No control Move back to remun or redundant 'distressed, shock, betrayal. I felt emotionally attached to the org.' 'I wanted to howl my eyes out, angry'		Got a <i>shock</i> because there had been no redundancies before	- Lost my job <i>distressed, shock, betrayal. I felt emotionally attached to the org.'</i> 'I wanted to howl my eyes out, angry' + got redundancy package restraint of trade violation of Psyc C	- not consulted <i>angry</i> - expected to leave immed note: emotional reactions due to all types of justice	-----	'He didn't once look me in the eye' but 'that was so unlike him' 'I wanted to sit there and howl my eyes out. It was real strange, so emotional and so angry and stubborn' 'the one secret <i>pleasure</i> I got out of seeing him <i>uncomfortable</i> over it. I was quite glad he was uncomfortable'
E Senior HR	Restructure	'Satisfaction' helped build relationships, exert influence- High control	Extra work 'Stress' But little other emotional impact	Good for co. More jobs Some got better positions <i>Grief acceptance</i>	Some redundancies One big loser at senior level <i>cycle Shock denial</i>	'When people feel they have lost something the element of fairness comes into it'	Processes were fair from participants view, lots of consultation, transparent 'open forums'	<i>Angst</i> around clarity Very open, very fair Information would be more of a <i>settling</i> thing = no other agendas. 'Change causes <i>anxiety</i> if people believe they've got some facts, but there's more that they don't know, and they should.' But... Leaks can cause <i>anxiety and disquiet</i> . Full and frank but <i>discomfort</i> about communication with one person – not full disclosure Low control? Information was 'consistent' and 'scripted' Open forums	-----
F Tech mgr then HR mgr	Restructure = transfer	Got into new career (HR) <i>silver lining anticipation looking forward</i>	Little control 'being done unto and left to clean up the mess' <i>black cloud 'royal pain in the neck distressing' trepidation, concern'</i> Transition phase was ' <i>bloody horrible</i> '	<i>Relief</i> (ownership issue) Some got good roles.	Some redundancy wrong people sometimes made redundant DJ+PJ.....>	Fair from a rational perspective, unfair from an emotional perspective For self - fair For others – partly, wrong people sometimes made redundant 'it was the way it the out come was delivered and basically dropped into everybody's lap'	Token consultation <i>Anger</i> at being out of control – high degree of uncertainty	People questioned the data being used, extrapolations were not necessarily valid = <i>concern?</i>	Boss was supportive
G Senior HR	Branch closed = redundancy for others	<i>Pride</i> , because no PGs High control	Extra work, extra travel, ' <i>Stress anxiety</i> '	Got other jobs Excellent redundancy package	Redundancy ' <i>pissed off, angry stressed</i> ' ' <i>personal grieving process</i> Extra work for HO staff	Yes, support, but two people thought it was unfair 'I don't think anybody thinks losing their job is fair'	Seemed best practice redundancy programme No PGs Got quotes - thanks	Seemed best practice redundancy programme	We treated them with respect. Our values are to be respectful and supportive Fair but at times heated
H GM then senior mgr	Ownership change. Job change finally left		Low control expected much more Reported to own subordinate Lost authority, status ' <i>shock</i> ' ' <i>indignant</i> ' (<i>sys change</i>) Excluded from social functions	Subordinate got GM job Owners got their man in charge		Lost status, most senior position, lost control Excluded from board meetings and the governance of the organisation	Boss brought in as subordinate then made her boss. 'It was a job for the boys' Closed application process Some consultation process about restructure – minimal Unjustly held accountable for withholding info. <i>Fear unhappy</i>	Dishonest to appoint marketing manager then appoint him as CEO 'which was probably always the intended plan.' No information about the change	First boss very supportive. Later...I lost that support 'This was getting ugly'

J	Cut costs		Low control expected more <i>More work</i> <i>More hours</i> <i>More pressure</i> <i>Anger</i> <i>resentment</i>	Good for client	A few redundancies <i>anxiety</i>	Unfair that we had to main quality of service with reduced budget Extra work Bowing down <i>Not happy</i>	No consultation	Another company: Given some information at beginning but no updates <i>anxiety</i>	Told: "I don't want to know about how difficult or why it can't be done'
K	From employee to consultant = redundancy	Set up own consultancy and still works for EMA Independent, god money, took 2 yrs	Redundant Now more hours Low control <i>'sadness'</i>	People who stayed got better deal	Anxiety for others affected in same way	neutral	Ambivalent Another company Very fair , consultation High control	fair	fine
L	10 years of change Job design Culture	Varying degrees of Gained credibility, experience, more senior role after a longer period <i>Happy ending, euphoric</i>	control <i>'Dark periods of time' lost confidence</i> <i>'Hard going'</i> <i>'self- doubting questioning'</i> <i>'Undermined'</i> <i>confusion, anger'</i> outcomes + process	Mgrs had to be more consultative	Anxiety for other person	- Shared role = ' <i>Undermined</i> ' in beginning but outcome later was good -Unfair for other person + <i>euphoric, elated</i> when finally got sole role - <i>sad</i> for other person	- both given parallel roles with uncertainty as to who would get senior role <i>sleepless nights</i> - Unfair for self and other person - <i>wary</i> <i>I cried, was very angry</i>	Believed new person would report to her. Not enough info as to why = <i>nervous, no trust, apprehensive, on edge</i> 'you'd never really have a straight conversation with him' (boss)	- ' may the best man win' + But 'you are always treated with respect' = <i>confusion</i> Systemic justice? – 'I think that the people in the organisation are very fair people' but...
M	Restructure + redundancy self	<i>Could have got what seemed bigger role</i> Big redundancy payout Varying degrees of Planned own exit Redundancy = opportunity = <i>relief, excitement</i>	<i>... but wasn't</i> 'It was not the sort of stuff that <i>excites me.</i> ' redundancy control expected more <i>self-doubt</i>	Some got new roles, bigger roles Some lost roles they could not cope with	MD +others made redundant Others anxiety – <i>roller coaster</i>	Fair for self Redundancies of others fair	- <i>Frustration</i> – deals done behind closed doors 'there wasn't the openness' ...debated by exec but not rest of the business...'it was very much the top deciding' - Senior mgrs were deciding redundancies without proper process - <i>Shame</i> at how others were treated Low control - <i>frustration and anger</i> and loss of trust in MD when M's role was changed without consultation	<i>Guilt</i> – I had to stop short of outright lying other (CEO) : 'underhanded feel to the process, that was planned well in advance and hidden' Low control His view: 'it's about telling people the facts and what's in it for them.'	Both + (group) and – (1-1) he yelled and ranted and raved (due to <i>stress</i>) I was <i>devastated</i> , + <i>anger</i> , <i>frustration</i>
N	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy others	Came in as new GM and had to drive the process 'the impact to me personally was nil' High control <i>Little emotion</i>	Had to manage difficult processes Had to deal with insults	Some transferred to new co and got paid extra Supervisors had fewer reports and less responsibility/ha ssle + = <i>relief?</i>	- Some were made redundant or redeployed <i>Disbelief, denial, nervousness, anger, acceptance</i> - managers were <i>nervous, anxious</i> when facing affected emp	+ Those tfd = slightly more pay + Mgrs could focus on other aspects of business GM thought outcomes were fair (<i>pride</i>) but said some people thought it unfair – lost their jobs	+ a lot of consultation, <i>Felt good</i> about process Thought others would also see it as fair <i>Pride</i> in exiting process EAP, counseling etc 'are we treating people the way we wanted to be treated ourselves?'	Fair 'in fairness it's more about actually sharing with people the vision around why we are doing it' 'Open and honest and upfront' – dispels distrust and scepticism	Fair Wants a person to walk out of the organisation saying I was treated with dignity and respect <i>Pride</i> that we did it the right way
O	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	Got another job elsewhere before leaving <i>Relief when process was clarified= certainty</i>	Made redundant and got redund pay <i>Stressful</i> Lack of control: I don't like being a passenger <i>Anger, frustration</i>	Senior people gained Some junior people got redeployed <i>Relief</i> when not made redundant	Those made redundant <i>One was traumatized, crying, frightened</i>	Fair for self = <i>grateful</i>	Not transparent, ' there was a lot camouflaging (Info j?) and they actually broke the protocol' One colleague not supported Psych Contract p 11	'there was a lot of camouflaging <i>False hope</i> Not given the full picture - didn't really give the full intent of the review	Very supportive= good, valued. Respect shown by boss but not by CEO, cold clinical

P Senior mgr	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	<i>Hopeful</i> ...initially that <i>something good would come out of it</i> Got good job elsewhere	Disestablished division, disagreed with outcomes of change, relocated to different city, relationships broke up, 'our function was being devalued' Low control, expected more 'horrible feeling of lack of control' 'we felt quite useless' <i>Anxiety</i> , (about 'whether I would have a job' <i>concern, disappointment, sadness</i> (about loss of momentum) <i>stress, upset, emotionally draining, tiring, hopeless, then indifferent, dissatisfied</i>		People did not like major restructuring, culture change, terms and conditions, did not think they could 'make a difference' as before <i>Loss, uncertainty, demoralising</i>	- Loss of status/position in hierarchy of dept = <i>hugely demoralising on self and team, upset at being under-valued</i>	- It was a takeover – we did not have a chance to share. It was not equal; we were being seen as the lesser, incredibly unfair 'When you go through the mechanics of the process with that lack of ...consensus' = <i>hugely stressful</i> Lack of consultation = we felt quite useless, we had no control = <i>anger, frustration, disappointment, then indifferent</i> It was a manipulated process' ...> PJ or IJ? 'decisions were already taken before they even came to us... not transparent process' 'cut out of circulation of papers for comment'	'Nobody was talking to us about why these things were happening' 'I think this team felt that there wasn't enough of a clear or convincing rationale to explain why those things were happening.'	Some people behaved 'inappropriately' 'Ministry people weren't interested in listening and understanding what we do' 'The ministry was cold-hearted.' Bosses were supportive, good relationships
Q Senior HR contractor	Restructuring Job redesign redundancies + cultural change	<i>Fun, challenge, new interesting, extension of contract</i> High control	Personal attacks, 'screaming and yelling' <i>Sad, disappointed</i>	<i>Excitement</i> - for those who could see benefit, e.g. promotion opportunities, challenge of new role Good outcomes for co.	<i>Churn, fright, crashed, nervousness, stress</i> – for those who foresaw problems with role or redundancy <i>hurt, humiliation, anger, distress</i> , those who lost their supervisory roles and took lower level work or redundancy	Employees said it is not fair I lost my job or got less pay for lower role = <i>hurt, humiliation</i>	Some people said nothing is changing why put us through this <i>stress</i> , some said whole process was unfair, some recruitment process Q – process was participative, 'people had opportunity to make decisions for themselves' transparent, training provided, but unfair in that it should have been done much earlier – ' We had to hurt people to do it, achieve it. ' Unfair to use change prog to manage performance issues	Gave full info = transparent. Some did not trust info = <i>anger + aggression</i> We could have articulated more what was going to be different. Senior mgt also really wanted reduced headcount but we did not say so– this was not honest	Q though fair, some employees thought so too ('I felt I was listened to'), others not = <i>anger, tears, yelling</i> Q as change leader also though her boss was fair
R Senior HR	Restructuring De-merger	It built credibility <i>High degree of satisfaction in seeing people change</i> High control	Increased workload <i>Pressure, tired Anxiety – would it work?</i>	The majority gained <i>Happy</i> if remuneration went up People were getting feedback <i>Interest, excitement, pleasure, appreciation</i>	<i>Unhappy</i> if remuneration went down <i>Shock, horror, fear, apathy</i>	Outcomes were new <u>processes</u> + <u>outcomes</u> of those processes = salary increase/no increase, performance feedback. Q= fair Employees = <i>happy + unhappy</i>	Workshops, consultation, got buy in, reworked drafts ...> Q = fair, backed up by survey <i>settling, stabilizing, reassuring</i> 'hidden things.. deals that had been done before' = new transparency	Workshops, full info Shared info with CEO	<i>R appreciated thanks, gratitude</i> Support from CEO Not always treated fairly by some senior people, partners = <i>frustration</i>
S Senior mgr	Restructuring	Opportunity Significance of role has been confirmed (status) High control	Process of managing change was <i>tough, draining</i>	Increased resp., higher level <i>Relief</i> for those who wanted reduced role	<i>Unhappiness</i> for those who got reduced roles	S= fair for all	With others - discussion, consultation, agreement, transparent, no hidden agendas I was consulted	Fair = <i>pleased</i>	Fair, but could have offered me more encouragement at times

T Employee then manager	Relocation to new town	Opportunity excitement Promoted More money more later when became manager	Shock, fear (reloc) Little control earlier...	Those who moved got more money, those who stayed behind got good jobs elsewhere	Some were made redundant – no payout 'bad feeling', traumatic	mostly fair but frustration working with clients	Mostly fair but no consultation	Not given full picture of assignment and some of the difficulties	Yes = pride when given promo
U Shop assist.	Merger	Relaxed when no redundancies were announced Low control and no expectation of any	Understaffed when some left due to take over		Some did not want to work under new manager and left Uncertainty, nervousness	fair	Fair	Fair Another co: told had time to look for jobs then this was radically shortened -felt cheated, surprised, anxious	Fair but very brief
V Sports facilitator	Restructure Suspension Dismissal	Won his case, got compensation	Lost money, drank more, took a job he did not want Low control Pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very angry > relieved (outcome/process)		Various stakeholders were perceived to have lost from his dismissal	having to apply for part of his restructured role and took computer, suspension, dismissal negotiation, court case concern for finances, family Little hope pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very angry, hurt, uncertainty. Outcome...	Very unfair – hearing of change from outsiders first, no consultation, having to apply for part of his restructured role + took computer, suspension, (no opportunity to respond to charges) dismissal, negotiation, court case Little hope, pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very angry, hurt, uncertainty, surprise process	unclear who would be affected and how, suspension, dismissal, lied to as to why computer had been taken outsiders heard of changes before employees info given earlier contradicted by info later (nature of role) <...emotions for all types of injustice.....>	in one meeting with lawyers he started to thump the table 'Quite abrupt and abusive in meetings'
W Senior HR	Restructure Redundancy Job redesign Tech change (context) others	Opportunity to showcase change mgt skills = interest High control	More work, travel Frustration people had not embraced change (process)	Better career options + opportunities Enthusiasm but also some relief...> Good for co.	Redundancy Some lost mgt positions <..Anger, frustration...	Fair (best people got redesigned jobs)	Fair, consultation, 'inclusive' but some employees took PGs and some may have [incorrectly] thought they were being singled out or victimised W satisfaction, pride	Mostly but could not disclose dire financial position for business reasons... 'normally I would advocate full disclosure'	We tried to treat people with respect and dignity
X Security guard	Building expansion Work schedules	Got training, permanent position, salary increase = happy (salary increase for some years not others) ...>	No control Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = unhappy Missed out on promotion = cried IT no login, emails 'We felt we were left out'	Good for organization Got training Improved facilities	Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = unhappy	Unfair – extra work, no extra pay = cheated, unhappy Walk to parking or pay = stress Customer abuse Perm job + training = fair, happy Not promoted = unfair...> = self-doubt, unworthy Training = fair IT no login, emails 'We felt we were left out'	Low control – 'no consultation, no consent' 'There was no point in asking questions. You have to really humbly accept what is dished out to you' No application, just appointment = unworthy Nepotism	Fair - museum expansion told what was happening, to expect some difficulties, regular updates, + carpark, training, perm position Unfair – not told about promotion issue, dishonesty about reasons for not being promoted = cried Alleged deliberately excluded from some meetings when info was change was given – 'that made me feel left out'	Partly, not when wanting to go to doctor (new manager but not directly change-related = angry "She would say some smart thing – 'who is going to look after your position'" Perceived systemic injustice

Y	Office move	High control As owner: business grew <i>Excitement, pride, comfortable</i> that I could deal with extra work but...	Extra work, more travel <i>Some anxiety, stress</i>	Good for organization Busy, variety, <i>enjoying their work</i> Less travel for most staff	More travel for some staff	Pay rise –partly because of travel	Everybody was involved in the work done on the new premises	Fair	Fair
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Observations

1. All four types of justice were found.
2. Most reported fairness and unfairness
3. People who lead change (i.e. have control, influence) tend to think most of it is fair. Unfairness for leaders and managers of change is minimal and usually seen as situational (could tell staff of dire financial position) and/or in the control of others.
4. One can detect an element of pride in doing things fairly
5. These people also seem high in EI, sincere, genuine.
6. Unfavourable outcomes often lead to perceptions of unfair outcomes, but not always.
7. Unfavourable and unfair outcomes are usually seen as due to unfair processes.
8. Not always easy for participant OR ME to separate or categorise type of justice. Ask people one type and they may answer for another. Some statements were not probed .e.g. 'the process was not open enough' (Proc J or Info J?)
9. E.g. from above – outcomes can be new processes but are DJ-related, change workshop + consultation = PJ & Info J?
10. Notions of unfairness gauged from specific questions on fairness and through answers to other questions
11. Issues of fairness not always related to change itself, e.g. unfair actions of new manager (but be seen to be change-related by interviewees)
12. Participants at times give benefit of the doubt to justice issues in the sense that the person creating injustice may have been pushed into it by those higher up.

Questions 24-29 Emotion management

Ptc. Code + role	Type of change	Outcomes for self + ve & control	Outcomes for self – ve & control	Outcomes for others + ve	Outcomes for others - ve	24 Show emotions	25 Hide emotions	26 Manage own emotions	27 Generate emotions in others	28 Manage others emotions	29 Emotions change over time
A Senior manager	Restructuring		Less influence/ Responsibility 'Sense of loss' 'sadness' Lower job satisfaction low control and expected more	Some mgrs like less respons. 'relief'		Not asked...but 'I said that I felt I didn't belong, that I felt let down' but said he did not really express feelings contradiction? 'I had to put on a brave face' 'I was very upfront about how I felt'	"it's what the company employs me to do. You know, as a professional, I like to act as such. It is very hard. I hid my views from junior staff >?	'being professional and focusing on ... the company's objectives' 'deliberately tried to reframe... to look for the benefits.. I tell myself...that's life'	Not asked but 'Identify the positives'	Not asked	Grief cycle 'They've diminished with time' sadness, grief, distress, trepidation, loss, disenfranchised, disenachanted, - indifference
B Junior HR	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy	Career opportunity Hugely energising Redund payout	'I burnt out' (from the work and conflict) Good for CEO+GMs low control and expected more 'It pushed me to the point where I broke and it changed my life.' - I had to work 80-90 hours per week. I didn't have a day off for months at a time.	Redundancy package Some got good jobs elsewhere	Redundancy 'People were suspicious, they felt betrayed' 'Middle managers were gutted' staff were 'absolutely devastated'		'I put up with a bit of that (abuse) 'I was being paid to do what I was being paid to do. And so I couldn't go and say what I really thought' Senior managers: were they aware?)'No. I wasn't at all good at verbalizing negatives things in a framed or rational way. I mean my way of dealing with it would be to scream at somebody at that point because I would just explode at them. I didn't have a level of emotional maturity'	And I felt bad that I was having to go and spout this stuff but I knew it wasn't really the whole story. I felt compromised. I felt a bit dirty.		Employees - Violent, aggressive, menace, abusive, swearing 'I actually enjoy the process of helping people comes to terms with the emotions around change'	First energised, then startled, angry, furious, 'maelstrom of anxiety, exhausted beyond emotional, burnt out', stress, depression
C Senior manager	Take over: division sold Location move Redundancy for some others	New co. committed to expansion of mnf Severance package Some control 'relaxed' about the new employers 'Positive people' Pleased, less stressful than The company	'disappointed' to leave company after 33 years. Redund was stressful Some control Lower remuneration Lousy office Job had less challenge Lower job satisfaction		Some made redundant 'shock, dismay, real concern'	Expected – no Tried to be +ve, difficult with redundan.	No – "I was reasonably open with my emotions' But... 'I'd learnt not to talk about those things at that level with my bosses over the years'	Tried to remain positive	Not expected but tried to be enthusiastic abt some aspects, concerned abt others	Expected no -You had to be sensitive. Good pay +ve	First stressful, anxious (process) then more relaxed once decision had been made (outcome) also sad to leave, disappointed. with some outcomes – nature of job, office, pleased with new people, culture high EI

D	Redundancy	Started own business 'in hindsight it was a favour' It was a real cathartic exercise. It made me move on mentally'	No control Move back to remun or redundant ' <i>distressed, shock, betrayal. I felt emotionally attached to the org.</i> ' 'I wanted to howl my eyes out, angry		Got a <i>shock</i> because there had been no redundancies before	Not asked	I am English –'stiff upper lip...one must always be polite at all times but I did tell them I was <i>upset</i> . 'I wanted to howl but I wouldn't do that.' 'You try not to show your emotions'	'I am English –'stiff upper lip...one must always be polite at all times...' I spoke to colleagues, told them I was upset	N/a	N/a	<i>Shock, horror, anger, upset, some hope, 'it was real cathartic exercise'</i>
E	Restructure	' <i>Satisfaction</i> ' helped build relationships, exert influence- High control ..but note comments on 'circle of concern v circle of influence'	Extra work ' <i>Stress</i> ' <i>But little other emotional impact</i>	Good for co. More jobs Some got better positions <i>Grief acceptance</i>	Some redundancies One big loser at senior level <i>cycle Shock denial</i>	No –but 'expected to demonstrate support'...then expected to be positive but sensitive to those losing	Not voice neg emo publicly 'I usually keep my mouth shut'	'You build in mechanisms to cope... Work through priorities, filter out what you need, put in the hours.' See 'circle of concern v circle of influence' 'Pick up my corporate hat' Another org. 'I have never been so <i>exhausted</i> in my entire life and so <i>depressed</i> because we'd just shattered so many lives'	Enthusiasm, acceptance – but not false <i>enthusiasm</i>	'There is always emotional impact' 'People have an infinite ability to cope with change' Grief cycle Quell negative emotions of others 'You are going to need a of <i>TLC</i> ' If change is –ve > neg emo All change involves pain	<i>First ambivalence, then some stress, frustration, satisfaction,</i> High EI – + p + p23
F	Restructure = transfer	Got into new career (HR) <i>silver lining anticipation looking forward</i>	Little control 'being done unto and left to clean up mess' <i>black cloud 'royal pain in the neck' distressing' trepidation, concern'</i> Transition phase was ' <i>bloody horrible</i> '	<i>Relief</i> (ownership issue) Some got good roles.	Some redundancy	No	Expectation to be professional	Re-establish some clarity of what was expected' Talked to wife & support people, inc. mentor, got on with job	No Another org. Need to generate <i>enthusiasm</i> and got <i>frustrated</i> when it didn't work, also <i>satisfied</i>		'Royal pain in the neck', distress, anger, Going into new HR role...trepidation, concern, anticipation, later felt OK
G	Branch closed = redundancy for others	<i>Pride</i> , because no PGs High control	Extra work, extra travel, ' <i>Stress</i> ' <i>anxiety, nervousness</i> meeting deadlines	Got other jobs Excellent redundancy package	Redundancy ' <i>pissed off, angry 'stressed', 'personal grieving process</i> Extra work for HO staff	<i>Compassion</i>	'No – that would not be honest'	'We needed commitment, engagement, loyalty' - <i>hope</i>	Have a beer, speak to colleagues, in 'peer supervision', talk to boss, partner	<i>Trauma, anxiety, anger, denial</i>	Some <i>stress, anxiety, pride</i>
H	Ownership change. Job change finally left		Low control expected much more Reported to own subordinate Lost authority, status, ' <i>shock</i> ' ' <i>indignant</i> ' (IT change) Excluded from social functions	Subordinate got GM job Owners got their man in charge	No – I was expected to do as I was told	Yes	I find it hard to be an actor. I tend to wear my emotions on my sleeve. I found it difficult not to show my emotions – <i>frustration, shock</i>	Not too good –I was <i>upset</i> , I had an <i>emotional outburst</i> . I did not manage up. I lost. But did not feel emotions about other changes, technology, office move etc – 'these were straightforward transactions'	Not asked	Managing others emotions an implicit part of my role	Seemed to have experienced anxiety, anger, self-doubt

J	Cut costs		Low control expected more <i>More work</i> <i>More hours</i> <i>More pressure</i> <i>Anger</i> <i>resentment</i>	Good for client	A few redundancies <i>anxiety</i>	no	Yes - felt <i>anger, discontent</i> , hid it 'that's life'	Confided with colleagues, looked forward to leaving	no	implicitly	
K	From employee to consultant = redundancy	Set up own consultancy and still works for EMA Independent, god money, took 2 yrs	Redundant <i>angry</i> Now more hours Low control <i>'sadness'</i> Drank more	People who stayed got better deal	<i>Anxiety</i> for others affected in same way <i>Others very volatile, very emotive,</i> Another company Barman would not apply properly for redesigned job, refused lower job, left= <i>sadness</i>		'You just try and keep it in check for yourself', be 'professional'	Talked to colleagues, road running		No asked but gave support Another company You've got to treat people how you would like to be treated	<i>Anxiety, some anger? sadness</i>
L	13 years of change Job design Culture	Varying degrees of Gained credibility, experience, more senior role after a longer period <i>Happy ending, euphoric</i>	control <i>'Dark periods of time' lost confidence</i> <i>'Hard going'</i> <i>'self-doubting questioning'</i> <i>'Undermined' confusion, anger'</i> outcomes+process	Mgrs had to be more consultative	<i>Anxiety</i> for other person Sadness when she left Possibly <i>guilt</i> if she had contributed to bad feelings p14	no	'Always', culture very 'stiff upper lip' 'As a woman operating in senior management role' <i>Cried</i> - 'You're soft, that's not something that's done' 'I tried never, ever, to cry again' I do care a lot about people's feelings and I don't like to hurt people'....>	Focus on job, gym, acting/theatre	Other aspect of change - needed to be positive but 'if you're feeling a bit low the last thing you want to be doing is a big ra-ra	Definitely, role model, 'if people were feeling negative about the change you had to turn it round and make them positive' = expectation	<i>Emotionally grounded, turmoil, (self-)doubting, dark periods of time, confusion, anger, happy ending, elated euphoric, emotional rollercoaster</i> Hi EI – able to articulate own emotions, empathy for others, ability to manage highs and lows
M	Restructure + redundancy self	<i>Could have got what seemed bigger role</i> Big redundancy payout Redundancy = opportunity = relief, excitement Varying degrees of Planned own exit	<i>... but wasn't</i> 'It was not the sort of stuff that excites me.' 'got nowhere' <i>self-doubt</i> Lower job satisfaction Own redundancy Difficult when people's families phones (others' redundancies) control expected more	Some got new roles, bigger roles Some lost roles they could not cope with	MD +others made redundant Others anxiety – roller coaster	No – expected to be +ve but 'I wouldn't say that was emotional' – be factual, party line	'I'm always expected to hide emotion.' Colleague: 'You need to watch it'. People can see what you feel. But I don't generally dissolve in floods of tears' 'I did not talk about my personal feelings.'	Stick to facts and support staff being made redundant, focusing on reality	Ambivalent as to expectations but sees it as role that needs to be played	You feel for people that being made redundant, focusing on helping that person get through [see transcript for more]	<i>Disgruntled, frustration, guilt, doubt, shame, anger, devastation, relief, excitement</i> <u>Roller coaster</u>

N GM	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy others	Came in as new GM and had to drive the process 'the impact to me personally was nil' High control <i>Little emotion</i>	Had to manage difficult processes Had to deal with insults	Some transferred to new co and got paid slightly extra Supervisors had fewer reports and less responsibility/hassle+ = <i>relief?</i>	- Some were made redundant or redeployed <i>Disbelief, denial, nervousness, anger, acceptance</i> - managers were <i>nervous, anxious</i> when facing affected employees	Be positive but not upbeat or downbeat, simply about communicating the message	No – but provide trained professionals to support to people	Talk to colleagues, boss	Be positive but not upbeat or downbeat	"you see people in organisations putting on very brave faces' but some are 'falling apart inside' The quiet head down is the person who has the breakdown'	Little own emo, but <i>some sadness, anxiety</i> For high EI also see p 7,8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 18,19
O employee	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	Got another job elsewhere before leaving <i>Relief when process was clarified= certainty</i>	Made redundant and got redund pay <i>Stressful</i> Lack of control: I don't like being a passenger <i>Anger, frustration</i>	Senior people gained Some junior people got redeployed <i>Relief</i> when not made redundant	Those made redundant <i>One was traumatized, crying, frightened</i>	no	No – "I didn't feel like I could not express myself.'	Gym, exercise	No	I think I was expected by my manager to support colleague who was struggling emotionally	Frustration, stress, anger, > gratefulness, relief
P Senior mgr	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	<i>Hopeful</i> ...initially that something good would come out of it Got good job elsewhere	Disestablished division, disagreed with outcomes of change, relocated to different city, relationships broke up, 'our function was being devalued' Low control, expected more 'horrible feeling of lack of control' 'we felt quite useless' we had no influence over the process, felt disempowered and basically just conned. <i>Anxiety</i> , (about 'whether I would have a job' <i>concern, disappointment, sadness</i> (about loss of momentum) <i>stress, upset, emotionally draining, tiring, hopeless, then indifferent, dissatisfied</i>		People did not like major restructuring, culture change, terms and conditions, did not think they could 'make a difference' as before <i>Loss, uncertainty, demoralising</i>	Implicitly yes Be positive, esp change leader/mgr	yes 'implicitly I felt it necessary to internalise and not pass on all the conflict that was happening in the design process'	'I am pretty disciplined' ..sound off to my manager to express <i>frustration</i> , colleagues, family, friends' 'this sector used to change we take it as part of the game' = freq, = previous change	No – 'I wouldn't have taken on the job if they expected me to engender and foster commitment to it as well.'	No	<i>Hopeful...>concern, disappointment, sadness, stress, upset, hugely angry, emotionally draining, tiring, incredibly hopeless, then indifferent, dissatisfied</i>

Q Senior HR contractor Ch leader	Restructuring Job redesign redundancies + cultural change	<i>Fun</i> , challenge, new <i>interesting</i> , extension of contract High control	Personal attacks, 'screaming and yelling' <i>Sad</i> , <i>disappointed</i>	<i>Excitement</i> - for those who could see benefit, e.g. promotion opportunities, challenge of new role Good outcomes for co.	<i>Churn, fright, crashed, nervousness, stress</i> – for those who foresaw problems with lower role or redundancy <i>hurt, humiliation, anger, distress</i> , those who lost their supervisory roles and took lower level work or redundancy	No – but I did when I thought it was appropriate	Told to be less <i>enthusiastic – too strong, too passionate</i> Had to cater to those feeling negative Surprised that she was considered to come across a 'bit hard' <...>	Talked as a team 'Used to it, battle-hardened'	Some <i>enthusiasm</i> but not too much 'We expected people to be caring and supportive and reasonable'	they're <i>angry</i> but they just can't get past it and you just have to take all that <i>anger and emotion and tears and yelling</i> and all those sorts of things and just keep pushing the message out, support them whichever way they can take it really.' 'We had a lot of emotion to deal with'	<i>Excitement, empathy, frustration, sadness</i> Contradiction - 'but...for me it wasn't an extremely emotional time' high EI
R Senior HR Ch leader	Restructuring De-merger	It built credibility <i>High degree of satisfaction</i> in seeing people change High control	Increased workload <i>Pressure, tired Anxiety – would it work?</i>	The majority gained <i>Happy</i> if remuneration went up People were getting feedback <i>Interest, excitement, pleasure, appreciation</i>	<i>Unhappy</i> if remuneration went down <i>Shock, horror, fear, apathy</i>	You just had to get tough Expected to be <i>enthusiastic</i>	<i>Hide frustration</i> 'He [CEO] knew what I chose to share' = EI, EL	Reflect, talk to friends, HR colleagues (Try not to take this stuff home)	Expected to get <i>engagement, acceptance</i>	'there was some sort of fear of displaying emotion in the meeting' but they would be excited outside the meeting.	<i>Shock, horror, excitement, inspiring, anxiety, frustration</i> <i>highly satisfying = 'cycle of emotions'</i> high EI
S Senior mgr Ch leader	Restructuring	Opportunity Significance of role has been confirmed (status) High control	Process of managing change was <i>tough, draining</i>	Increased resp., higher level <i>Relief</i> for those who wanted reduced role	<i>Unhappiness</i> for those who got reduced roles	'I needed to be persuasive' but 'I had to be firm and resolute' 'I believe I need to show <i>empathy</i> '	Expect it of myself - <i>tiredness, impatience, frustration</i>	Walking, reading, talking to friends, reflecting	No – the yes = be <i>positive, enthusiastic</i>	'I had to manage managers who were not coping emotionally' grieving process Expected - yes high EI – 'I was very close to my people.'	<i>Empathy, frustration, excitement, draining, pleased</i>
T Employee then manager	Relocation to new town	Opportunity <i>excitement</i> Promoted More money more later when became manager	<i>Shock, fear</i> (reloc) Little control earlier...	Those who moved got more money, those who stayed behind got good jobs elsewhere	Some were made redundant – no payout ' <i>bad feeling</i> ', <i>traumatic</i>	No	No	Had support of partner, played sport, social activities	Yes "encourage the troops", motivate them	Implicit part of the job	Fear, excitement, stress, frustration, pride
U Shop assist. Ch rec	Merger	<i>Relaxed</i> when no redundancies were announced Low control and no expectation of any	Understaffed when some left due to take over		Some did not want to work under new manager and left <i>Uncertainty, nervousness</i>	No	No	Consider other options: 'Nothing much I can do. I will wait and see what will happen. If there's something that looks not really good or I can go for other areas or do other things. There's always opportunities outside. It's not the end of the world.'	No	No	Some anxiety > relaxed

V Sports facilitat	Restructure Suspension Dismissal	Won his case, got compensation	Lost money, drank more, took a job he did not want Low control <i>Surprise, Pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anger, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very angry > relieved</i> (outcome/process)		Various stakeholders were perceived to have lost from his dismissal	No	Yes –with regard to announcement on first day about restructure	I just kept focusing on a good outcome, got legal and emotional advice from lawyer/ cousin., support from family	n/a	n/a	<i>Surprise, anger, Pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very angry > relieved</i>
W Senior HR	Restructure Redundancy Job redesign Tech change (context) others	Opportunity to showcase change mgt skills = <i>interest</i> High control	More work, travel <i>Frustration</i> people had not embraced change (process)	Better career options + opportunities <i>Enthusiasm</i> <i>but also some relief...></i> Good for co.	Redundancy Some lost mgt positions <.. <i>Anger, frustration...</i>	No	No -only if mgt thought they would be different to party line but I did hide my emotions from staff – but not fellow managers	venting those <i>frustrations</i> with management behind the scenes, with my own HR colleagues, I would have probably gone home and vented my frustrations	No	Yes – and believes he has skills in change Very perceptive about others' emotions	Enthusiasm, frustration Good EI
X Security guard	Building expansion Work schedules	Got permanent position, salary increase due to position = <i>happy</i>	No general salary change, pay for exp No control Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i> Missed out on promotion = <i>cried</i>	Good for organization Got training Improved facilities	Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i>	No	I <i>cried</i> in annual > review But expected to hide negative emotions – if not you became a target – you were always to pretend and show if nothing is affecting you and things are all good and going well'	Suppressing them Have a joke and talk among ourselves 'tried to push it to the back' Support and concern from colleagues Sometimes family were sympathetic, sometimes did not realize <i>tensions</i> X was suffering from	No	No – we did give each other support	<i>Hope, happiness</i> = perm pos + training <i>unhappiness</i> over neg outcomes and processes
Y Small bus owner	Office move	High control As owner: business grew <i>Excitement, pride</i>	Extra work, more travel <i>Some anxiety, stress</i>	Good for organisation Less travel for most staff	More travel for some staff	There was no selling – but there was a positive approach	I always hide my negative emotions – reasons of morale	'Can't answer that.' 'I don't. It just happens. I don't know how to do that' - just get with the job.	Noted <i>excitement, pride</i> in others	Said he was not emotional and contradicted himself	<i>Excitement, pride, Some anxiety, stress</i>

Observations

1. My assessment of EI and EL based on entire transcript and specific questions Q24-29.
2. Some participants use cognitively-oriented words not emotions.
3. Some use emotion-laden words such as compromised, betrayed, dirty, doubting, distrust, integrity, disengaged, detached
4. Intensity seems greater when people lack control.
5. Intensity seems greater when people refer to own outcomes rather than those of others.
6. Participants sometimes contradict themselves – at times possibly due to thinking of different aspects of an organisational change.
7. For managers – showing, hiding and managing own emotions, and generating and managing emotions of others, was seldom an explicit expectation of organisation, sometimes an implicit expectation, and sometimes what participants thought was the appropriate thing to do.
8. Hiding own emotions often seen as professional. For some an aspect of personality. For other related to org culture – not just change related.
9. Emotion management: coping skills are emotion focused (talk to people, gym, reframe, etc) and problem focused (get on with the job, put in the time, 'just do it').
10. Evidence of EL
11. Leaders and managers seem high in EI – specifically empathy, awareness of own emotion – but not always able to label emotions. = Anomaly

Questions 30-33 Behaviour

Ptc. Code + role	Type of change	Outcomes for self + ve & control	Outcomes for self – ve & control	Outcomes for others + ve	Outcomes for others - ve	30 Actions expected	31 Actions taken	32 Why actions taken	33 Resistance
A Senior manager	Restructuring		Less influence/ Responsibility 'Sense of loss' 'sadness' Lower job satisfaction low control and expected more	Some mgrs like less respons. 'relief'		Go along with the change	'I acted as professionally as I could' 'I hid my views from junior staff' Did query nature of change with GM and argued against them....>	'I've got to make changes' "it's what the company employs me to do. You know, as a professional, I like to act as such. It is very hard.'Did not agree with changes, felt left out "I didn't believe I had any realistic opportunities to affect the change and therefore chose not to even try...and I felt a <i>sense of grief</i> "	"I had to say , well, no, I think that is wrong' 'I said I felt I had been let down, promises not delivered on. I told him I'd given up reminding him.' Psych C 'My manager was a bit surprised I <i>felt strongly</i> '
B Junior HR	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy	Career opportunity Redund payout	'I burnt out' (from the work and conflict) Good for CEO+GMs low control and expected more 'It pushed me to the point where I broke and it changed my life.' - I had to work 80-90 hours per week. I didn't have a day off for months at a time.	Redundancy package Some got good jobs elsewhere	Redundancy 'People were suspicious, they felt betrayed' 'Middle managers were gutted' staff were <i>'absolutely devastated</i>	Design a redundancy programme Put in whatever hours were necessary 80-90 hours pw 'No clear framework or guidelines'	Did what was expected. Also "lost my temper... absolutely blew up"	"I didn't know what else to do" "I had an overwhelming sense of I need to please... and responsibility. If somebody gave me a task I took it incredibly seriously" 'I was being paid to do what I was being paid to do. And so I couldn't go and say what I really thought.'	Not asked – probably did not resist change. < (see p19)
C Senior manager	Take over: division sold Location move Redundancy for some others	New co. committed to expansion of mnf Severance package Some control 'relaxed' about the new employers 'Positive people' <i>Pleased, less stressful</i> than the company	'disappointed' to leave company after 33 years. Redund was <i>stressful</i> Some control Lower remuneration Lousy office Job had less challenge Lower job satisfaction		Some made redundant ' <i>shock, dismay, real concern</i> '	Manage new role, including answering customer problems	Yes	'What were the options?..You do what you are asked.' 'I am reasonably flexible.' I tend to work with it rather than against it.' 'I'd learnt not to talk about those things at that level with my bosses over the years'	Did not like certain aspects of job or office, but no resistance. "I thought it was crazy stuff at times."
D HR consultant	Redundancy	Started own business 'in hindsight it was a favour' It was a real cathartic exercise. It made me move on mentally'	No control Move back to remun or redundant 'distressed, shock, betrayal. I felt emotionally attached to the org.' 'I wanted to howl my eyes out, angry		Got a <i>shock</i> because there had been no redundancies before	Leave immediately – and quietly	No	It would look wrong – like a dismissal	Yes – refused to leave immediately, consulted lawyer, negotiated exit package and timing

E Senior HR	Restructure	'Satisfaction' helped build relationships, exert influence- High control ...but note comments on 'circle of concern v circle of influence'	Extra work 'Stress' <i>But little other emotional impact</i>	Good for co. More jobs Some got better positions <i>Grief acceptance</i>	Some redundancies One big loser at senior level <i>cycle Shock denial</i>	Change leader/manager, HR role Visibly support change, be positive about it.	Played expected role Stepped in to make change when he saw something was not being done fairly.	Change leader/manager, HR role, saw benefits	No Saw some in others, delegations of staff, threats – if you do this I will go.
F Tech mgr then HR mgr	Restructure = transfer	Got into new career (HR) <i>silver lining anticipation looking forward</i>	Little control 'being done unto and left to clean up the mess' <i>black cloud 'royal pain in the neck distressing' trepidation, concern'</i> Transition phase was 'bloody horrible'	<i>Relief</i> (ownership issue) Some got good roles.	Some redundancy	'There was an expectation that those in a formal leadership would be supportive of the change and would promote it...	<... did as expected...> 'Describe it as being part of being a leader in an organisation. There's things that you do that you don't necessarily agree with. But you get on and do.' But also had plan to move.	and the, professional I guess is the thing is to keep your own thoughts on the matter out of it.'	'Being reasonably vocal about well that's not going to work. What was intended here? How can we happily still do what we were expected to do under the circumstances? So it was sort of a questioning, challenging sort of strategy I guess.'
G Senior HR	Branch closed = redundancy for others	<i>Pride</i> , because no PGs High control	Extra work, extra travel, 'Stress' <i>anxiety, nervousness meeting deadlines</i>	Got other jobs Excellent redundancy package	Redundancy <i>'pissed off, angry 'stressed', 'personal grieving process</i> Extra work for HO staff	Lead redundancy as HR mgr. Put in extra hours, more travel	Yes – seemed best practice	'At the level I am I drive a lot of change' Change leader	No – contributed to discussion Others resisted change (those who lost jobs)
H GM then senior mgr	Ownership change. Job change finally left		Low control expected much more Reported to own subordinate Lost authority, status <i>'shock' 'indignant' (IT change)</i> Excluded from board meetings, governance, social functions	Subordinate got GM job Owners got their man in charge		Expected to resign or comply with lower status job, did so a while then negotiated an exit. Location, technology change: 'I was <i>happy</i> ...I didn't agree with change but I fully accepted the change and there was no emotion attached to it' but <i>indignant</i> about IT change	Did not resign as she thought she was being implicitly asked to do. Argued against some of the changes Complied with lower role, negotiated exit	'it was accepted that while I didn't agree with the change, I accepted that that was the right of the major shareholder to make, to dictate those things.' 'Put it this way, I could rationalise those other changes. I might not have agreed with them but there was some rationale behind them which I accepted.' 'I couldn't lift my head above that and think right, how do I, how do I manage' seemed to be losing control and did not know how to regain it	<i>Was not asked about resistance</i> Argued against some of the changes. I did not manage up. I lost. Negotiated exit
J 1 st level mgr	Cut costs		Low control expected more <i>More work More hours More pressure Anger Resentment</i>	Good for client	A few redundancies <i>anxiety</i>	Cut prices	Yes, just do it Paid staff extra for extra time worked Tried to protect them from mgt	"I am remunerated to provide a function which is to work and to fulfill the expectation of the company."	Yes – 'voiced my concerns' to mgt Told colleagues he did not agree with approach Found another job and left.
K HR consultant	From employee to consultant = redundancy	Set up own consultancy and still works for EMA Independent, good money, took 2 yrs	Redundant <i>angry</i> Now more hours Low control <i>'sadness'</i> Drank more	People who stayed got better deal	<i>Anxiety</i> for others affected in same way. They got <i>emotive, volatile</i> Another company Barman would not apply properly for redesigned job, refused lower job, left= <i>sadness</i>	Accept offer or take redundancy	Took redundancy	Other option too risky	Argued against it, tried to negotiate a better deal with others, but nothing more

L HR mgr	10 years of change Job design Culture	Varying degrees of Gained credibility, experience, more senior role after a longer period <i>Happy ending, euphoric</i>	control <i>'Dark periods of time' lost confidence</i> <i>'Hard going'</i> <i>'self-doubting questioning'</i> <i>'Undermined'</i> <i>confusion, anger'</i> outcomes + process	Mgrs had to be more consultative	<i>Anxiety</i> for other person	Support new person, share the work	Tried very hard not to let anything negative disrupt team.	Good leadership Need to work closely with person <i>'Probably because up until that point in my life I've always done what's expected of me pretty much. I've always been very conscientious and you know yeah and I think it's the right thing. I do care a lot about people's feelings and I don't like to hurt people'</i>	<i>'I was very upfront about how I felt'</i> Went and saw chairman <i>'I resisted the way it was done... spoke my mind professionally...challenged it'</i>
M Senior mgr	Restructure + redundancy self	<i>Could have got what seemed bigger role</i> Big redundancy payout Redundancy = opportunity = <i>relief, excitement</i> Varying degrees of Planned own exit	<i>... but wasn't</i> <i>'It was not the sort of stuff that excites me.'</i> <i>'got nowhere'</i> <i>self-doubt</i> Lower job satisfaction Own redundancy Difficult when people's families phones (others' redundancies) control expected more	Some got new roles, bigger roles Some lost roles they could not cope with	MD +others made redundant Others anxiety – <i>roller coaster</i>	Accept new role Party line to follow Support the change	First carried on with new role Put forward a structural proposal to exclude himself – negotiated redundancy.	<i>'It was not the sort of stuff that excites me.'</i> <i>'It seem like I'd sort of got nowhere.'</i> Supported process – <i>'In a business you can't have rogue seniors managers. They should leave... You need to support the business, that's what you're paid for.'</i>	<i>'I debated the structure.'</i> <i>'I disagreed with it strongly'</i> <i>'I tend to be fairly vigorous debater'</i>
N GM	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy others	Came in as new GM and had to drive the process <i>'the impact to me personally was nil'</i> High control <i>Little emotion</i>	Had to manage difficult processes Had to deal with insults	Some transferred to new co and got paid slightly extra Supervisors had fewer reports and less responsibility/hassle + <i>= relief?</i>	- Some were made redundant or redeployed <i>Disbelief, denial, nervousness, anger, acceptance</i> - managers were <i>nervous, anxious</i> when facing affected employees	Brought in as GM to implement change Dealt with resistance from staff	Did as expected Significant level of communication Supported staff	Agreed with objectives, accepted role at outset Saw support was necessary	No – change leader/manager <i>'It was too far advanced for that'</i>
O employee	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	Got another job elsewhere before leaving <i>Relief when process was clarified= certain</i>	Made redundant and got redund pay <i>Stressful</i> Lack of control: I don't like being a passenger <i>Anger, frustration</i>	Senior people gained Some junior people got redeployed <i>Relief</i> when not made redundant	Those made redundant <i>One was traumatized, crying, frightened</i>	Attend forums. <i>'I guess what was expected was that I wouldn't be a block in the process, that I would help facilitate it and I thought that was a fair expectation.'</i>	Did as expected. Found another job and negotiated early exit.	<i>'because I enjoyed what I did but also I have a sense of commitment to what we were trying to achieve and I was clear about the team that I worked in'</i>	<i>'Not really resisted the change, just expressed some opposition to the lack of clarity around the intention of the review.'</i>
P Senior mgr	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	<i>Hopeful ... initially that something good would come out of it</i> Got good job elsewhere	Disestablished division, disagreed with outcomes of change, relocated to different city, relationships broke up, <i>'our function was being devalued'</i> Low control, expected more <i>'horrible feeling of lack of control'</i> <i>'we felt quite useless'</i> we had no influence over the		People did not like major restructuring, culture change, terms and conditions, did not think they could <i>'make a difference'</i> as before <i>Loss, uncertainty, demoralising</i>	Expected to support change Do tasks of change management	Did as expected for or a while After 4 moths of the process left for a new job.	<i>'Because it was part of my job and that was what I had committed to do in taking on the role in being on the design team'</i> Not satisfied with outcomes. <i>'Didn't feel that I was going to benefit or work well in the kind of organisation we were setting up so I chose to find another one.'</i> <i>'once decisions are made you live with it.'</i>	Argued strongly <i>'I was also very clear that there are certain parts in the process where this is our opportunity to argue, to debate, to challenge and we did that during that process but once decisions are made you live with it.'</i> <... <i>'Ministry, I think we were clear and we didn't hide what we thought and once the process moved out of design and decisions were made about structure and</i>

			process, felt disempowered and basically just conned. <i>Anxiety</i> , (about 'whether I would have a job' <i>huge concern</i> , <i>disappointment</i> , <i>sadness</i> (about loss of momentum) <i>stress</i> , <i>upset</i> , <i>emotionally draining</i> , <i>tiring</i> , <i>hopeless</i> , then <i>indifferent</i> , <i>dissatisfied</i>						implementation, we disengaged. Resigned
Q Senior HR contractor	Restructuring Job redesign + cultural change	<i>Fun</i> , challenge, new <i>interesting</i> , extension of contract High control	Personal attacks, 'screaming and yelling' <i>Sad</i> , <i>disappointed</i>	<i>Excitement</i> - for those who could see benefit, e.g. promotion opportunities, challenge of new role Good outcomes for co.	<i>Churn</i> , <i>fright</i> , <i>crashed</i> , <i>nervousness</i> , <i>stress</i> – for those who foresaw problems with lower role or redundancy <i>hurt</i> , <i>humiliation</i> , <i>anger</i> , <i>distress</i> , those who lost their supervisory roles and took lower level work or redundancy	Led change Redesign + cultural change	Yes ...>	Brought in as consultant to manage this change	Minimal since change leader <i>but</i> pushed others to improve process Dealt with resistance from unions and staff, 'a lot of personal attack'
R Senior HR	Restructuring De-merger Cultural change	It built credibility <i>High degree of satisfaction</i> in seeing people change High control	Increased workload <i>Pressure</i> , <i>tired</i> <i>Anxiety</i> – <i>would it work?</i>	The majority gained <i>Happy</i> if remuneration went up People were getting feedback <i>Interest</i> , <i>excitement</i> , <i>pleasure</i> , <i>appreciation</i>	<i>Unhappy</i> if remuneration went down <i>Shock</i> , <i>horror</i> , <i>fear</i> , <i>apathy</i>	Brought in as HR manager to lead and implement many changes	Yes	Hired for this role, knew what was expected from outset	Minimal – aspects of timing Dealt with resistance from some partners and staff
S Senior mgr	Restructuring	Opportunity Significance of role has been confirmed (status) High control	Process of managing change was <i>tough</i> , <i>draining</i>	Increased resp., higher level <i>Relief</i> for those who wanted reduced role	<i>Unhappiness</i> for those who got reduced roles	Lead change	Did what was expected but her manager felt she was not moving quickly enough for non-performers <...		No Dealt with resistance from those who lost status – 'resisted reporting to me'
T Employee then manager	Relocation to new town	Opportunity <i>excitement</i> Promoted More money more later when became manager	<i>Shock</i> , <i>fear</i> (reloc) Little control earlier...	Those who moved got more money, those who stayed behind got good jobs elsewhere	Some were made redundant – no payout <i>'bad feeling'</i> , <i>traumatic</i>	First tasks Later take on management role	Did as expected	This was part of my job	Not in beginning but began to resent management style of boss 'I spoke my mind but it fell on deaf ears.' Others resisted relocation and left organisation
U Shop assist.	Merger	<i>Relaxed</i> when no redundancies were announced Low control and no expectation of any	Understaffed when some left due to take over		Some did not want to work under new manager and left <i>Uncertainty</i> , <i>nervousness</i>	Carry on as normal	Did as expected	Role had not changed	No

V Sports facilitat	Restructure Suspension Dismissal	Won his case, got compensation	Lost money, drank more, took a job he did not want Low control <i>Surprise, Pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anger, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very angry > relieved</i> (outcome/process)		Concerned for impact on stakeholders	Restructure - simply expected to see manager if he had questions Suspension/dismissal- be compliant	No – sent out emails to other stakeholders – keep them informed 'I thought that the people could lobby somewhere to ensure that there wasn't too much drastic change' Engaged lawyer, went though mediation and employment court	Concerned for own job and impact on stakeholders Unfair outcome and process	Yes <... Yes <...
W Senior HR	Restructure Redundancy Job redesign Tech change (context) others	Opportunity to showcase change mgt skills = <i>interest</i> High control	More work, travel <i>Frustration</i> people had not embraced change (process)	Better career options + opportunities <i>Enthusiasm</i> <i>but also some relief...></i> Good for co.	Redundancy Some lost mgt positions <.. <i>Anger, frustration...</i>	Change leader with HR role	Probably did more than expected	he had change management experience and skills	No – change leader role but was reluctant to some things that were needed for employee morale and 'clean up messes' Dealt with significant employee resistance, including middle management – legal action taken
X Security guard	Building expansion Work schedules	Got permanent position, salary increase due to position = <i>happy</i>	No general salary change, pay for exp No control Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i> Missed out on promotion = <i>cried</i>	Good for organization Got training Improved facilities	Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i>	'expected to co-operate with the management and work with whatever orders were given to us'	Yes	Agreed with some of objectives – expansion of museum	No – did not feel comfortable voicing opinion with supervisor in case 'you became a target' (see Turnley and Feldman 1998, p 78" Management never wants to hear about problems. You are labeled a troublemaker if you bring up any negatives.") 'We did not put in a petition or anything like that' Queried lack of promotion
Y Small bus owner	Office move	High control As owner: business grew <i>Excitement, pride</i>	Extra work, more travel <i>Some anxiety, stress</i>	Good for organisation Less travel for most staff	More travel for some staff	n/a = business owner	n/a = business owner	n/a = business owner	No resistance from others

Observations

1. This section has to be read in conjunction with emotion management, e.g. I tried to be positive. Put a positive spin on change. Be enthusiastic. These are usually behaviours.
2. The four questions asked here can produce overlapping answers. E.g. resistance (33) is the opposite of do what is expected (30).
3. Many participants said they did not resist the change but on probing indicated that they had challenged management, voiced their dissatisfaction, but either got on with the job or left.
4. Managers believe they should 'act professionally', do what is expected, even if they have negative thoughts, feelings. Change leaders logically don't resist change but perhaps argue against some aspects.
5. Resistance to change stems from: perceived negative **outcomes** for self and others, **unfair** outcomes and processes, not in the best interests of the **organisation**.
6. Resistance seen as behavioural – but did follow questions about behaviour.
7. Managers had to deal with resistance from others – this had emotional ramifications, especially if it got unpleasant.
8. Overall – even if there was cognitive and affective resistance there was little behavioural resistance from most participants.

Questions 34-36 + 42 Personality, previous experience, personal factors outside organisation, other factors

Ptc. Code + role	Type of change	Outcomes for self + ve & control	Outcomes for self – ve & control	Outcomes for others + ve	Outcomes for others - ve	34 Personality	35 Previous experience	36 Personal factors outside organisation	42 Other factors
A Senior manager	Restructuring		Less influence/ Responsibility 'Sense of loss' 'sadness' Lower job satisfaction low control and expected more	Some managers like less responsibility 'relief'		Change - 'It all depends on whether I'm the architect of change or whether I'm having the change imposed on me. No I think I cope, change I enjoy. I normally enjoy change. I enjoy variety.' Need to act professionally	Used to be consulted on change, therefore felt more <i>disenfranchised</i>	X Variable support 'no major dramas'	
B Junior HR	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy	Career opportunity <i>Hugely energising</i> Redund payout Outplacement programme used by others – got a lot <i>satisfaction</i> Got MBA fees paid	'I burnt out' (from the work and conflict) Good for CEO+GMs low control and expected more 'It pushed me to the point where I broke and it changed my life.' I had to work 80-90 hours per week. I didn't have a day off for months at a time. Had not been given time off for MBA	Redundancy package Some got good jobs elsewhere	Redundancy 'People were suspicious, they felt betrayed' 'Middle managers were gutted' staff were <i>absolutely devastated</i>	Change - 'I'm quite change embracing... I'm very changeable... I don't find the spectre of change to be scary. I find it really <i>exciting</i> and I like to embrace change.' But less so if someone else is in control p17 'The culture was aggressive and nasty and I didn't like that, mostly because I was turning into that myself' Pace – 'I like things moving fast... I like volume.' 'I actually <i>enjoy</i> the process of helping people come to terms with the emotions around change.' See p17	'I really needed help. I was drowning. I wasn't mature enough to recognise it in myself' Only been in HR a couple of years but had worked in stressful jobs with conflict. In restaurants you changed jobs all the time... "I never had any problems with being quite fluid" Made me more tolerant of the bad stuff than I should have been, but I probably just covered it up.'	Abusive childhood. Nervous breakdown at 15. Violent father - you did not say no. Depression . Medication. Counseling. "And that was my upbringing that did that because as far as my father was concerned you know, he was quite violent and aggressive and physically violent with me so yeah that was never an option. So any figure of authority I would never go back to him on that kind of stuff so, that very much made me easy pickings to take advantage of."	Replacement in previous role got \$2000 more = 'slap in the face' Boss did not want her to take this project. Boss lowered salary and status for the project role. Offered only \$500 extra at the end. 'She didn't like me and I didn't like her' 'There was some real personal stuff for me going into that role.'
C Senior manager	Take over: division sold Location move Redundancy for some others	New co. committed to expansion of mnf Severance package Some control 'relaxed' about the new employers 'Positive people' <i>Pleased, less stressful</i> than The company	'disappointed' to leave company after 33 years. Redund was <i>stressful</i> Some control Lower remuneration Lousy office Job had less challenge Lower job satisfaction		Some made redundant ' <i>shock, dismay, real concern</i> '	Change - 'I'm a relatively <i>relaxed</i> person.' 'quite flexible' 'the guy who runs the business has a right to run it the way he prefers. I guess if you don't like it the option is to go somewhere else. But I tend to work with it rather than against it. I don't make change easily but...I'm quite relaxed about making change.' [contradiction] 'I won't sort of chop and change every five minutes but I will change' 'Everything I do is considered and if change is necessary I will make it = clarification	Probably subconsciously but I can't think of an example' Came to believe that 'nothing stays the same for very long and the only constant is change.' Not in a specific way but 'taught me not to resist it.'	x	General atmosphere at The company had been negative. Future of company was not positive.

D	Redundancy	Started own business 'in hindsight it was a favour' It was a real cathartic exercise. It made me move on mentally'	No control Move back to remun or redundant ' <i>distressed, shock, betrayal. I felt emotionally attached to the org.</i> ' ' <i>I wanted to howl my eyes out, angry</i>		Got a <i>shock</i> because there had been no redundancies before	Change - 'I always say I hate change and I do and yet when I look back on my life I do tend to go for things that require change' ' [contradiction] 'I do dislike change but once I've gone through the pros and cons and I think it is a good idea then I move on' = clarification 'I don't believe people should stay in the same job for too long without trying to add to their skills.'	x	'told my mother and she said I was stupid, I'd never make a business woman. (impact unclear)	
E	Restructure	' <i>Satisfaction</i> ' helped build relationships, exert influence- High control ...but note comments on 'circle of concern v circle of influence'	Extra work ' <i>Stress</i> ' <i>But little other emotional impact</i>	Good for co. More jobs Some got better positions <i>Grief acceptance</i>	Some redundancies One big loser at senior level <i>cycle Shock denial</i>	Change - 'I'm inclined to almost distance it, but having said that others love to spend their time worrying about what is beyond their ability to influence so it depends on personality.' Comfortable with it 'I have one team member who is change averse'	Yes 15 years of managing change = 'without sounding conceited a sense of wisdom'	x	x
F	Restructure = transfer	Got into new career (HR) <i>silver lining anticipation looking forward</i>	Little control 'being done unto and left to clean up the mess' <i>black cloud 'royal pain in the neck distressing' trepidation, concern'</i> Transition phase was ' <i>bloody horrible</i> '	<i>Relief</i> (ownership issue) Some got good roles.	Some redundancy	Change - More flexible now but 'I don't like <i>surprises</i> '.	x	Family commitments	Moved to new role in organisation before restructuring of his division was complete
G	Branch closed = redundancy for others	<i>Pride</i> , because no PGs High control	Extra work, extra travel, ' <i>Stress</i> ' <i>anxiety, nervousness meeting deadlines</i>	Got other jobs Excellent redundancy package	Redundancy ' <i>pissed off, angry 'stressed', 'personal grieving process</i> Extra work for HO staff	Change - Prefers status quo but thinks of need for change – 'considered approach' 'I am not that demonstrative'	Lots of experience as change manager and consultant – 'gave me a few clues what not to do and not to do.' Mostly been driving change (p7)	More travel missed family events (<i>stress</i>) = result of change Divorced before but not during this change	Other issues facing business at same time, competition, IT issues, new financial management system
H	Ownership change. Job change finally left		Low control expected much more Reported to own subordinate Lost authority, status ' <i>shock</i> ' ' <i>indignant</i> ' (IT change) Excluded from social functions	Subordinate got GM job Owners got their man in charge		Change - I am normally quite <i>comfortable</i> ' but it depends on context. 'I tend to wear my emotions on my sleeve.' Trying to control this. Other – 'I find it hard to be an actor. [EL]'I am quite a resilient person' but this time I didn't seem to have the resilience' 'Things always happen for a reason' Know that something positive comes from change = optimism? But get <i>frustrated</i> when change is wrong or ridiculous.	Previous change was mostly positive – this was not ... 'It was a change I wasn't used to.' Know that something positive comes out of change but there was long lag this time.	Had a young child – not a major issue	New chair was a banker who worked for H's grandfather

J 1 st level mgr	Cut costs		Low control expected more <i>More work</i> <i>More hours</i> <i>More pressure</i> <i>Anger</i> <i>resentment</i>	Good for client	A few redundancies <i>anxiety</i>	Change - 'My attitude to change is that it's expected and it's going to happen anyway so it's not the change, its how we respond to the change.' 'I find change to be natural and expected.'	'I suppose so'	- 'My family life is not good also. I don't have a work-life balance because of all this pressure.' - Birth of child - Sickness of mother - 'I'm naturally dedicated to my work so it was really hard to balance my family and my work at the same time so you have a <i>feeling of being torn</i> .'	
K HR consult ant	From employee to consultant = redundancy	Set up own consultancy and still works for EMA Independent, good money, took 2 yrs	Redundant <i>angry</i> Now more hours Low control <i>'sadness'</i> Drank more	People who stayed got better deal	<i>Anxiety</i> for others affected in same way. They got <i>emotive, volatile</i> Another company Barman would not apply properly for redesigned job, refused lower job, left= <i>sadness</i>	Change - Usually very positive	Very change oriented – HR manager + consultant 'Having helped a lot of people through change and being part of managing change I think you're aware of all the theory in terms of what you should be doing and helping people with but I think when it impacts on you its just the, its really the ability to, how you're going to manage your life I think.'	Marriage broke up partly because wife did not want to move to Tauranga or Hamilton – but this came soon before this change ... > I was sort of compromised.. by what others wanted me to do rather than what I felt I should have done for myself' = <i>hugely disappointed, regret</i> Health issues	
L HR mgr	10 years of change Job design Culture	Varying degrees of Gained credibility, experience, more senior role after a longer period <i>Happy ending, euphoric</i>	control <i>'Dark periods of time' lost confidence</i> <i>'Hard going'</i> <i>'self- doubting questioning'</i> <i>'Undermined'</i> <i>confusion, anger'</i> outcomes+process	Mgrs had to be more consultative	<i>Anxiety</i> for other person	'upfront''I'm a very competitive person.' (= <i>wants to win in a change</i>) 'and that wasn't really the case and there were many times I did not want to do this.' 'up until that point in my life I've always done what's expected of me pretty much. I've always been very conscientious and you know yeah and I think it's the right thing. I do care a lot about people's feelings and I don't like to hurt people, I don't like to...' Change - 'I do think I'm somebody that <i>likes</i> change. I'm quite <i>comfortable</i> working without structure and I'm quite <i>comfortable</i> working in an environment where things are flying at you and changes, <i>like</i> lots of variety and I like that.'	No – other change was different	Marriage broke up during the ongoing changes. 'He was understanding but I think it took its toll.' 'I remember my husband saying to me, God can't you just talk about anything else and you couldn't, it's all you ever thought about'	
M Senior mgr	Restructure + redundancy self	<i>Could have got what seemed bigger role</i> Big redundancy payout Redundancy = opportunity = <i>relief, excitement</i> Varying degrees of Planned own exit	... <i>but wasn't</i> 'It was not the sort of stuff that <i>excites me</i> .' <i>'got nowhere'</i> <i>self-doubt</i> Lower job satisfaction Own redundancy Difficult when people's families phones (others' redundancies) control expected more	Some got new roles, bigger roles Some lost roles they could not cope with	MD +others made redundant Others anxiety – <i>roller coaster</i>	'I <i>like</i> to stamp my mark on things' (but could not here = lack of control) 'I'm a pretty open person' 'I'm quite an emotional person' 'I tend to be fairly vigorous debater.' Change - 'I <i>like</i> change. I usually benefit from change'...>	Usually benefit from change 'I think so'...insight that change is 'about what is best for the business' = <i>can distance himself</i>	Brother doing extremely well as CEO of listed company = bit of <i>'envy'</i> There was some 'sense of failure'	

N GM	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy others	Came in as new GM and had to drive the process 'the impact to me personally was nil' High control <i>Little emotion</i>	Had to manage difficult processes Had to deal with insults	Some transferred to new co and got paid slightly extra Supervisors had fewer reports and less responsibility/hassl e + = <i>relief?</i>	- Some were made redundant or redeployed <i>Disbelief, denial, nervousness, anger, acceptance</i> - managers were <i>nervous, anxious</i> when facing affected employees	Change - 'I have a pretty blasé attitude towards it.'	Been through 9 restructurings in 20 years, first time I was ' <i>gutted</i> ' > 'empathy' 'Made me less anxious and concerned about my own future' ... 'until it's personal it's actually quite hard for people to kind of really understand what it means.	x	
O employ ee	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	Got another job elsewhere before leaving and got redund pay = grateful <i>Relief when process was clarified= certainty</i> <i>Felt really good</i> to take control over process	Made redundant <i>Stressful</i> Lack of control: I don't like being a passenger <i>Anger, frustration, totally uncomfortable</i>	Senior people gained Some junior people got redeployed <i>Relief</i> when not made redundant	Those made redundant <i>One was traumatized, crying, frightened</i>	Change - 'I am not averse to change.' 'I think I'm good with change to be honest. I <i>like</i> to initiate it so I guess that's an issue and because I wasn't in control of part of that process and probably felt too far from the loci I suppose, which is something I learnt about myself.'	No – this was a different type of change	x	x
P Senior mgr	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	<i>Hopeful</i> ... initially that something good would come out of it Got good job elsewhere	Disestablished division, disagreed with outcomes of change, relocated to different city, relationships broke up, 'our function was being devalued' Low control, expected more 'horrible feeling of lack of control' 'we felt quite useless' we had no influence over the process, felt disempowered and basically just conned. <i>Anxiety</i> , (about 'whether I would have a job' <i>huge concern, disappointment, sadness</i> (about loss of momentum) <i>stress, upset, emotionally draining, tiring, hopeless, then indifferent, dissatisfied</i>		People did not like major restructuring, culture change, terms and conditions, did not think they could 'make a difference' as before <i>Loss, uncertainty, demoralising</i>	'I am pretty disciplined' Change - 'I look for opportunities...benefits'	'My career has been built around change management exercises.' 'You can be quite negative and fall into a bit of a destructive pattern of whatever or you just learn to anticipate it.' I think there's a certain degree of comfort in the sense that the basic tasks don't change but you just learn to anticipate and read the politics and structural sort of discussions and people...' You just learned to anticipate I and you can be proactive at personal level' 'Oh absolutely. My career has been in organisational structures and systems and organisational development and particularly in change environments, so I suppose I have been on different sides of the table, I've been part of teams that initiate change. I've been part of teams that have to live with it and been done to so in that sense I can stand back and see the bigger process. 'this is a sector that's used to change ... we take it as part of the game'	It does affect family	Involved in a lot of projects at the time. Change was distraction and it seems would slow down or stop some of the projects

Q Senior HR contractor	Restructuring Job redesign + cultural change	<i>Fun, challenge, new interesting, extension of contract</i> High control	Personal attacks, 'screaming and yelling' <i>Sad, disappointed</i>	<i>Excitement</i> - for those who could see benefit, e.g. promotion opportunities, challenge of new role Good outcomes for co.	<i>Churn, fright, crashed, nervousness, stress</i> – for those who foresaw problems with lower role or redundancy <i>hurt, humiliation, anger, distress</i> , those who lost their supervisory roles and took lower level work or redundancy	'I'm a natural optimist' 'but never surprised' about the way people behave <i>Enthusiastic</i> Change - 'I'm pretty open to change. I like change. In fact I'm not very good in maintenance environments. I guess I'm energised by change. I think I have a strong enough personality to withstand doing it unfairly or wrongly.' Note comments on pers on flight staff p8	'I try very hard not to take it personally.'	Yes – battle hardened, done it for 20 years, gave insights into how to manage this change. 'We're used to these processes regardless of the fact that we're weary of them.'	Brought in as consultant to manage one change project, got offered others, including this big one
R Senior HR	Restructuring/ De-merger Remuneration/P FP + 360 Training Cultural change	It built credibility <i>High degree of satisfaction</i> in seeing people change High control	Increased workload <i>Pressure, tired Anxiety – would it work?</i>	The majority gained <i>Happy</i> if remuneration went up People were getting feedback <i>Interest, excitement, pleasure, appreciation</i>	<i>Unhappy</i> if remuneration went down <i>Shock, horror, fear, apathy</i>	'it's [pressure] sort of self-imposed because I guess I'm the sort of person that if I take something on it's got to happen, it's absolutely got to happen or it's going to be a problem. I don't like to fail. I like to and I don't like to promise something and not deliver so it's those sorts of, something's driving that, but I can't put a finger on that.' 'My normal style is to go for it.' Change- 'I usually look forward to it. I like variety and I like to be doing different things.' It's better if I'm driving it. I guess that comes from wanting to have the choices so not changing clothes but general attitude to change would be to choose change rather than to choose stability.	Yes – had worked in another professional services firm before : 'I worked in another partnership ... for a number of years and so I think that the understanding of the partnership model of a business was also helpful in driving the change. I think if somebody had come in from a commercial organisation where if the boss says that you do it...'	no	'It's not possible in professional services firm to lead the change because all the shareholders work in the business.'
S Senior mgr	Restructuring	Opportunity Significance of role has been confirmed (status) High control	Process of managing change was <i>tough, draining</i>	Increased resp., higher level <i>Relief</i> for those who wanted reduced role	<i>Unhappiness</i> for those who got reduced roles	Change- 'I love change. I thrive on change. I'm a change agent' Control makes a difference? –obviously. Will look for positives, but I have choices.	'I'm highly seasoned in change and you know what goes with it and so I have a good emotional intelligence around what goes on'	'No, I have a very stable personal environment therefore that enables me to you know function stably if I could call it that in the work environment going through those changes.'	
T Employee then manager	Relocation to new town	Opportunity <i>excitement</i> Promoted More money more later when became manager	<i>Shock, fear</i> (reloc)	Those who moved got more money, those who stayed behind got good jobs elsewhere	Some were made redundant – no payout <i>'bad feeling', traumatic</i>	Welcome change if it is positive	Nature of film industry meant I had had lots of change	Whole family had to move to another town = partner's job, school, friends, other family	
U Shop assist.	Merger	<i>Relaxed</i> when no redundancies were announced Low control and no expectation of any	Understaffed when some left due to take over		Some did not want to work under new manager and left <i>Uncertainty, nervousness</i>	'Quite comfortable'	Not really – this was different because of no redundancies		

V Sports facilitat	Restructure Suspension Dismissal	Won his case, got compensation	Lost money, drank more, took a job he did not want Low control <i>Surprise, Pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anger, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very angry > relieved</i> (outcome/process)		Concerned for impact on stakeholders	'I guess it all depends on how quickly the whole change comes about. If it's communicated that the change will take place over a period of time and allow adjustments and how people would move into this change or move out of this change. I think change is something that we just live with.'		Work changes impacted on home not vice versa	In the middle of organising a major forum and this got dropped
W Senior HR	Restructure Redundancy Job redesign Tech change (context) others	Opportunity to showcase change mgt skills = <i>interest</i> High control	More work, travel <i>Frustration</i> people had not embraced change (process)	Better career options + opportunities <i>Enthusiasm</i> <i>but also some relief...></i> Good for co.	Redundancy Some lost mgt positions <.. <i>Anger, frustration...</i>	'My personal approach to life is pretty positive and I understand why companies do what they do and need to and therefore I'm normally with the positive brigade rather than the negative.' 'Usually positive but I'm not immune, like everyone else'	# 'I have a personal interest because of my interest in change and transition so here was an opportunity to continue to apply some methodologies that I've used so personally it was of interest professionally.' 'No impact, it was more a matter of doing what I normally do although I was more hands on involved in it because of the scale of change and because of my experience. Other members of my team didn't have the same amount of experience to support it to the degree that I did.' Good in that it was an opportunity for me to train our management on change and transition management. It was a good opportunity for me to apply those skills myself and there were some mistakes that we made that have been valuable learning lessons for me.' Note: Previous experience of <u>others</u> + need for resources, p11 = been made redundant, +13 led 20 restructurings – this was by far the most difficult	<i>[more travel but could visit mother in home town – not change outside of work]</i>	This was a new frontier for the company – old owners in same building
X Security guard	Building expansion Work schedules	Got permanent position, salary increase due to position = <i>happy</i>	No general salary change, pay for exp No control Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i> Missed out on promotion = <i>cried</i>	Good for organization Got training Improved facilities	Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i>	'I'm quite adaptable to changes'	'No – they were different sorts of changes'	Sometimes family were sympathetic, sometimes did not realize <i>tensions</i> X was suffering from	

Y Small bus owner	Office move	High control As owner: business grew <i>Excitement, pride</i>	Extra work, more travel <i>Some anxiety, stress</i>	Good for organisation Less travel for most staff	More travel for some staff	'I do it. Just get on with it.' 'I think I deal with change exceptionally well' (moved countries, organisations) 'It's not something I stop and think about.'	Yes - Got on with it faster and do what needs to be done.	Moved house and business at same time – no real extra pressure	
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Observations

1. People became cynical from either previous experience in company or with manager, or because of personality, or because of the change context, but it is not easy from many transcripts to accurately attribute it.
2. Personality – people contradicted themselves about change but then clarified it (C, D).
3. Personality – most claimed to cope well with change. Some are not happy to change but were pragmatic about it.
4. Personality – people happier to change when they are in control of the change.
5. Personality – empathy is a characteristic of both personality and EI. Can be detected if participant specifically mentions it or gives an indication of it.
6. Personality – question refers to people's perceptions of their own adaptability to change. Some mentioned specific emotions – comfort, excitement, energized.
7. Personality – participants often indicated relevance of context of THIS change.
8. Personality – references to personality are sometimes not specifically related to openness to change, e.g. I am conscientious, care for others, I like to stamp my mark on things – but become salient in the context of a specific change
9. Personality – Big 5 openness to experience/change = Q34; conscientiousness = do what is expected; extraversion = challenge/support; agreeableness = submission or be pleasant about it, neuroticism = excessive worry
10. Personality – locus of control, people get angry, frustrated when they cannot influence/control things...and expected that they should
11. Personality – emotions such as anxiety, frustration could be dispositional or situational
12. Previous experience – compare this to frequency of change – temporal

Questions 37-41 Leadership and culture

Ptc. Code + role	Type of change	Outcomes for self + ve & control	Outcomes for self – ve & control	Outcomes for others + ve	Outcomes for others - ve	37 Ability of leader	38 Impact on partic	39 Trustworthiness of leader	40 EI of leader	41 Culture
A Senior manager	Restructuring Job redesign		Less influence/ Responsibility <i>'Sense of loss'</i> <i>'sadness'</i> Lower job satisfaction <i>'It's just not nice being on the losing side of the equation'</i> low control and expected more	Some mgrs like less respons. <i>'relief'</i>		Felt he should have been consulted = <i>distress</i> . Boss had not delivered on promises but he then did it <i>'I cannot expect him to consult with me well in advance...'</i> ...>	<i>'Lack of buy in.. because... it's imposed'</i> (from without – being part of bigger co. I am a senior manager. Low control and expected more Some due to <i>'constraints'</i> on GM from more senior execs – no trust here.....>	<i>'I think he's a very honorable guy and a nice guy but just those things ...no longer important to him.'</i> <i>'there's certainly been a strong loss of trust ... and I had a very very high level of trust and now I don't have such a high level of trust. ..I had an unrealistic high level of trust before'</i> More senior: I don't like what I see...arrogant, petty and vain people. <i>Sad</i> <i>'they have power over my future'</i>	Some empathy and responsiveness but A did not discuss feelings.	Previously a <i>'star system'</i> but A now believed he was no longer benefiting. <i>'very strong professional managerial culture'</i> so A responded this way but it moved from <i>'a participative culture'</i> to a <i>'directive culture'</i> <i>'I didn't believe I had any realistic opportunities to affect the change and therefore chose not to even try...and I felt a sense of grief'</i> <i>'People in this profession are notorious for not getting in touch with their emotions'</i>
B Junior HR	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy	Career opportunity <i>Hugely energising</i> Redund payout Outplacement programme used by others – got a lot <i>satisfaction</i> Got MBA fees paid	<i>'I burnt out'</i> (from the work and conflict) Good for CEO+GMs low control and expected more <i>'It pushed me to the point where I broke and it changed my life.'</i> I had to work 80-90 hours per week. I didn't have a day off for months at a time. But no time off	Redundancy package Some got good jobs elsewhere	Redundancy <i>'People were suspicious, they felt betrayed'</i> <i>'Middle managers were gutted'</i> <i>staff were 'absolutely devastated'</i>	<u>1st</u> did not want B to go on project team, influenced lower level of salary <i>not comfortable</i> <u>2nd</u> variable and contradictory, <i>'crap manager'</i> , <i>'nice guy'</i> <i>'personally really supportive but 'I was drowning and just nobody recognised it...It didn't seem to worry anybody.'</i> <i>'No clear guidelines'</i> Failed in his respons. p20 <u>CEO</u> poor especially not fronting up then the issue of media coverage – lost a lot bright people- <i>'slash and burn in a touchy feely caring programme'</i> ..> culture	Carried out tasks at <i>'huge personal cost'</i> found experience very stressful, burned out through work and lack of operational support, but found his personal support really helpful, <i>'he made me feel very positive'</i> B had to do it. Psych C violation <i>Furious</i> <i>'Caused me to have to firefight'</i> <i>maelstrom of anxiety</i>	<u>2nd</u> Integrity yes - Not competent, <i>'naive, bungles along'</i> some cynical decisions made with the intent to pull the wool over the employees eyes and it annoyed me because they thought that the employees were so stupid that they couldn't see it and that just <i>really pissed me off.</i> Staff: <i>'People were suspicious, and they felt betrayed. They felt it was another management trick'</i> there was a real lack of trust in management (outsourcing, redundancies) <i>'huge amount of cynicism'</i>	<u>2nd</u> <i>'He is a lovely man but he just doesn't care when people are drowning'</i> nobody cares if you are drowning' <i>'He doesn't see why people are stressed.'</i> <i>'he's such a lovely guy but he's completely, he's got the lowest EQ of anybody I've ever met.'</i> <i>'I remember one day going into his office and bursting into tears and he was just absolutely, you know, just couldn't work out what was going on....he didn't really know what to do really. He kind of patted me on the back'</i> <u>Senior managers:</u> <i>'No. I wasn't at all good at verbalizing negatives things in a framed or rational way. I mean my way of dealing with it would be to scream at somebody at that point because I would just explode at them. I didn't have a level of emotional maturity'</i>	Loyalty of staff to org. Lower ranks of colleagues were very <i>'tight'</i> Aggressive union Aggressive and nasty, co. <i>'the culture there is horribly dysfunctional'</i> [engineering] Change was done in a <i>'slash and burn kind of way'</i> Line managers cared about their people deeply Senior managers cut off from workforce...insensitive, never listened... never interacted. <i>'Lies...lack of caring for junior staff'</i> Expectations of huge amount of work with little reward and no help Culture of not addressing performance issues <i>'I hadn't been comfortable with the culture really since I'd been working there. I didn't like the culture at all. That was why I was leaving really. It was because of the culture.'</i>

C Senior manager	Take over: division sold Location move Redundancy for some others	New co. committed to expansion of mnf Severance package Some control <i>'relaxed'</i> about the new employers <i>'Positive people'</i> <i>Pleased, less stressful</i> than The company	<i>'disappointed'</i> to leave company after 33 years. Redund was <i>stressful</i> Some control Lower remuneration Lousy office Job had less challenge Lower job satisfaction		Some made redundant <i>'shock, dismay, real concern'</i>	Note: moved from one organisation to the other, therefore leadership/culture issues vary Owners were being difficult New people easy to work with Both companies made effort to treat staff fairly <i>'He wanted to do right by me'</i> cordial, amicable, gave info	Probably made it easy to move if from the way management on both sides did it	<i>'I'm not sure he ever told you the whole story about what he was thinking and what he intended to do.'</i> But...he probably wasn't not allowed to by his bosses <i>'He was probably less trustworthy than others I have worked with.'</i>	The company boss was quite sensitive which was quite surprising because <i>'he can be a proper bastard when he wants to.'</i> But I've learnt <i>'not to talk about those things at that level with my bosses over the years'</i>	The company – <i>gloomy</i> atmosphere, facing strong comp., <i>'change in sense of direction –too corporate Metalfab – more positive, more like family business, 'helped ease me into the transition'</i>
D HR consultant	Redundancy	Started own business <i>'in hindsight it was a favour'</i> It was a real cathartic exercise. It made me move on mentally'	No control Move back to remun or redundant <i>'distressed, shock, betrayal. I felt emotionally attached to the org.'</i> <i>'I wanted to howl my eyes out, angry'</i>		Got a <i>shock</i> because there had been no redundancies before	<u>1st MD</u> <i>'benevolent despot, very autocratic. Got angry when D would not go, very uncomfortable, upset'</i> He liked to be in total control. but...he was being pushed to do it. Did it poorly <u>2nd MD</u> Letter from lawyer about restraint of trade - pretty stink	<i>Shock, horror, stress,</i> made her resist going immediately – stubborn, <i>'got my back up'</i> got a lawyer <i>'I wanted to sit there and howl'</i> <i>'It was a real cathartic exercise...made me move on mentally'</i>	<i>'I questioned everything he did and set out to do.'</i>	<u>1st MD</u> <i>'He didn't once look me in the eye.'</i> This was unlike him. - <i>sign of guilt?</i> <i>'It's quite possible that he thought because I didn't cry I wasn't affected by it.'</i> <i>'He kept right out of my way.'</i>	Had been nice place to work , generous, social club, <i>surprising</i> the way the redundancy was handled given the supportive culture of the organisation.
E Senior HR	Restructure	<i>'Satisfaction'</i> helped build relationships, exert influence- High control ..but note comments on <i>'circle of concern v circle of influence'</i>	Extra work <i>'Stress'</i> <i>But little other emotional impact'</i>	Good for co. More jobs Some got better positions <i>Grief acceptance</i>	Some redundancies One big loser at senior level <i>cycle Shock denial</i>	E = one of the change managers at senior level, change leader = colleague MD of insurance co. MD handled it well – took a lot advice Had a very strong relationship with CEO of holding co.	Glad to be able to support it	Yes	She was responsive to my thoughts and feelings. She had high EQ.	It was a challenging culture, people encouraged to ask questions, vocal, good communication, regular feedback
F Tech mgr then HR mgr	Restructure = transfer	Got into new career (HR) <i>silver lining anticipation looking forward</i>	Little control <i>'being done unto and left to clean up the mess'</i> <i>black cloud 'royal pain in the neck distressing' trepidation, concern'</i> Transition phase was <i>'bloody horrible'</i>	<i>Relief</i> (ownership issue) Some got good roles.	Some redundancy	<i>'you were left with nobody who understood how this thing [restructuring] was supposed to work' = confusion = 6/10</i> Token consultation GM - a <i>'fantastic guy'</i> was indecisive – did not say which of two people would management role and left it to them to work out for a few months Outstanding mentor in new role	<i>Royal pain in the neck, quite distressing</i> Gave me a sense of support, <i>'talking things through and allaying some of the concerns'</i>	<i>'There was no deceitfulness...There certainly was political, manipulative behaviour on the part of some, but it didn't go so far as to lead to a sense of distrust.'</i>	Manager yes - understood his concerns – but wasn't in a position to influence much – treated him with respect. Listened. Provided support. <i>'I couldn't have asked for more than that.'</i> (but left the role in limbo) Others no	Creation of people development person - <i>'They recognised somehow that people were actually important in the process. Goodness gracious me.'</i> Culture had a little impact on G's response to change – financial imperative

G Senior HR	Branch closed = redundancy for others	<i>Pride</i> , because no PGs High control	Extra work, extra travel, ' <i>Stress</i> ' <i>anxiety</i> , <i>nervousness</i> meeting deadlines	Got other jobs Excellent redundancy package	Redundancy <i>'pissed off, angry</i> <i>'stressed'</i> , ' <i>personal</i> <i>grieving process</i> Extra work for HO staff	G= one of the change leaders Seems to have had excellent approach Project manager (colleague) was outstanding and CEO 'owned it, he was the one in the gun' Visibly supported by senior management	Seemed to give comfort + confidence	Change pressures = 'I had to delegate – trust my staff CEO had a lot integrity he was the one 'in the gun' – fronted up 'Trust is something we thrive on'>	Good communication, support	* Organisation had been high in support but not accountability, now a performance culture but still seems one with a focus on supporting people –change to be 'in line with our values to be respectful and supportive' 'Or frame of reference was, if that's happening to me, what would I want to happen?' Also core value is customer ethic 'I think that [org culture] was the glue that made it doable.' See p20 – values – made it easy
H GM then senior mgr	Ownership change. Job change finally left		Low control expected much more Reported to own subordinate Lost authority, status <i>'shock</i> <i>'indignant'</i> (IT change) Excluded from board meetings, governance, social functions Shifting of staff loyalties	Subordinate got GM job Owners got their man in charge	Some people left HR manager resigned Leader changed	First was excellent, gave me autonomy, support Second worse then reported to third, new CEO Communication by email - abrupt 'through that awkward period there was very little interaction'	Helpful Felt she was losing – not managing up 'I couldn't lift my head above that and think right, how do I, how do I manage'	First, very trustworthy 2 nd chairman dishonest about appointing marketing manager then making him CEO But 'he was a puppet' of major shareholder No respect for three directors/shareholders 'no integrity'	1 st knew how H felt 'we had a very open and transparent and honest relationship' Others – 'they didn't respond at all' even though they had an office next door 'communication was by email' –'abrupt' 2nd chair worked with H's grandfather 'I put him in a situation he was <i>not</i> <i>comfortable</i> with.' H <i>upset</i> , had an <i>emotional</i> <i>outburst'</i>	'fundamental' culture change to personnel/industrial relations focus from a people focus And it was all about 'dollars and cents and bottom line and about the numbers, about the sales... and aggressive chasing of debtors' Became very male oriented, rugby, races, Friday night drinks Turf protection – 'It was getting ugly.'
J SC 1 st level mgr	Cut costs		Low control expected more <i>More work</i> <i>More hours</i> <i>More pressure</i> <i>Anger</i> <i>resentment</i>	Good for client	A few redundancies <i>anxiety</i>	No consultation – ' <i>not</i> <i>very happy</i> because the process that was given to me is just I don't want to know about how difficult or why it can't be done...I just want to know that its going to be done.' Good technical skills but not interpersonal skills...	'I didn't feel I had the support.' It did not make me feel <i>comfortable.</i> ' 'disregard, no consideration'	Did not trust him to do anything about it.	Low empathy – 'more lip service than true understanding' 'I do it, why don't you?'"(extra hours) Think he did know how I felt but it was never discussed	'culture of bowing down' 'the culture was never say no' 'the attitude that the customer is number one taken to the extreme' (cutting prices to keep customers)
K HR consult ant	From employee to consultant = redundancy	Set up own consultancy and still works for EMA Independent, god money, took 2 yrs	Redundant <i>angry</i> Now more hours Low control <i>'sadness'</i> Drank more	People who stayed got better deal	<i>Anxiety</i> for others affected in same way <i>Others very volatile,</i> <i>very emotive,</i> Another company Barman would not apply properly for redesigned job, refused lower job, left= <i>sadness</i>	Their offer to staff was inadequate and was changed for people who stayed. Not prepared to negotiate. not upfront.	Not asked	'not upfront' ..the top manager probably lacked genuine credibility about the fact that he had been driving to achieve this change as part of his ability to earn a bonus in terms of achieving his goals but contradiction 1-1 good rel with CEO + GM, felt they were being honest	They were <i>sympathetic</i>	professional

L HR mgr	13 years of change Job design Culture	Varying degrees of Gained credibility, experience, more senior role after a longer period <i>Happy ending, euphoric</i>	control <i>'Dark periods of time' lost confidence</i> <i>'Hard going'</i> <i>'self-doubting questioning'</i> <i>'Undermined'</i> <i>confusion, anger'</i> outcomes+process	Mgrs had to be more consultative	<i>Anxiety</i> for other person Note establishment of HR role meant 'taking power' from senior managers'	Note various leaders over 13 years. Another HR person was poorly managed: weak rationale, structure, poor process, comments 'may the best man win' (sexist + expectation of fighting it out) "didn't like to deliver bad news." 'you'd never really have a straight conversation with him'	Felt undermined, doubted her self-worth – <i>confusion, intense anger, anxiety,</i> 'That is all I thought about all weekend, all night, all day, that was it. I lived, ate and breathed it and that was not a good thing.' Sleepless nights	'I was looking out for where's the loophole, where's the trap' 'I also felt that if they could do that to one person then at any time could they do that to me so you're always wary.' 'Is it a smokescreen'	'may the best man win' – lack of EI Organisation did not deliberately set out to hurt people but managers were low in EI it's a very good organisation and fabulous people in it but I think at the time there wasn't a realisation about this wasn't a number, this was a person and these are people ...you can crunch numbers but crunching people is not good.' ..> 'Patronising in some situations, empathetic in others'	*Ch= 'may the best man win' 'Technical people often are very good solo operators but not always good team players' 'Always having to prove you [HR] could contribute' 'people were fair', 'you are always treated with respect' but... culture changed over the years p23-At the time.. the organisation was very male, engineering male, technical, not emotional on the outside. Very, very strong technical people and still are today, very, very good and now they've got that other dimension where there is a lot of emotional acceptance but then it wasn't like that' – You're soft if you cry old boy network 'it was confusing too because sometimes it was okay to, sometimes they expected you to be girly and other 'If you were not an engineer you were an overhead' 'you toed the line'
M Senior mgr	Restructure + redundancy self	<i>Could have got what seemed bigger role</i> Big redundancy payout Redundancy = opportunity = relief, excitement Varying degrees of Planned own exit	... but wasn't 'It was not the sort of stuff that excites me.' 'got nowhere' <i>self-doubt</i> Lower job satisfaction Own redundancy Difficult when people's families phones (others' redundancies) control expected more	Some got new roles, bigger roles Some lost roles they could not cope with	MD +others made redundant Others anxiety – roller coaster	MD handled it poorly, 'bullying...yelled, ranted and raved' Created conflict Poor process not sufficient participation at lower levels Note: 1-1 leader was bad, but in exec meetings much better	'I didn't feel included and I didn't want to feel included because there was such poor leadership' Made me feel week <i>frustration + anger + devastation</i>	'There was a lack of trusting...while we debated openly there was stuff going on behind closed doors so there was a trust issue there' = <i>frustration + anger</i> Own integrity: 'I have some personal values that I won't compromise and it stretched some of those pretty tight which makes you really question your own integrity' (note <i>guilt</i> about not revealing some info). 'I have a high reliance on personal integrity and tend to look at people based on that as well.'	Did not know what he thought, felt – 'it just doesn't go in.' 'He heard the noise but didn't understand the message' Low leader EI No empathy	'that was part of the culture of the business that you should front them and tell them yourself' rather than get HR to do it. 'Take responsibility for your own actions' 'robust debate around the facts, not around what people want to hear.' 'Culture change takes a long time... they're not interested in that.' 'Culture is directed. It is top driven...but it needs the support of the majority to be effective'

N GM	Outsourcing Restructuring Redundancy others	Came in as new GM and had to drive the process 'the impact to me personally was nil' High control <i>Little emotion</i>	Had to manage difficult processes Had to deal with insults	Some transferred to new co and got paid slightly extra Supervisors had fewer reports and less responsibility/ hassle+ = <i>relief?</i>	- Some were made redundant or redeployed <i>Disbelief, denial, nervousness, anger, acceptance</i> managers were <i>nervous,</i> <i>anxious</i> when facing affected employees	GM = Change leader/mgr 'driving the process to a conclusion' Boss – exec of holding co. His boss – got support		As leader: 'being open and honest and upfront with people [putting] your cards on the table, and that certainly dispels a lot of the distrust and emotional reactions ...people become quite sceptical of the situation'		Company <i>prides</i> itself on how it exits staff- fairly Will look at redeployment first Treat people right
O Emplo yee	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	Got another job elsewhere before leaving got redund pay <i>grateful</i> <i>Relief when process was clarified= certainty</i> <i>Felt really good</i> to take control over process	Made redundant <i>Stressful</i> Lack of control: I don't like being a passenger <i>Anger, frustration</i> Totally <i>uncomfortable</i> when out of control of process	Senior people gained Some junior people got redeployed <i>Relief</i> when not made redundant	Those made redundant <i>One was traumatized, crying, frightened</i>	New GM alienated a lot of people Came from a different country and did not understand NZ context... there were some 'cultural issues'	Manager was good but it was out of his hands – very supportive, asked how we were feeling No faith in CEO	Manager -Good, valued, supported Kept us cohesive, focused CEO – lost trust, lost respect, lost confidence in her ability to lead <.....	asked how we were feeling, engaged on an emotional level new CEO was 'cold and clinical' but knew on a general level people were gloomy, unhappy	New CEO did not seem to live values org stood for Her manner was different She changed the culture and structure 'We don't practice what we preach' = <i>detached</i> Earlier we were cohesive. Committed. Good social env
P Senior mgr	Restructuring Redundancy self + others	<i>Hopeful</i> ...initially that something good would come out of it Got good job elsewhere	Disestablished division, disagreed with outcomes of change, relocated to different city, relationships broke up, 'our function was being devalued' Low control, expected more 'horrible feeling of lack of control' 'we felt quite useless' we had no influence over the process, felt disempowered and basically just conned. <i>Anxiety</i> , (about 'whether I would have a job' <i>concern,</i> <i>disappointment,</i> <i>sadness</i> (about loss of momentum) <i>stress, upset,</i> <i>emotionally</i> <i>draining, tiring,</i> <i>hopeless, then</i> <i>indifferent,</i> <i>dissatisfied</i>		People did not like major restructuring, culture change, terms and conditions, did not think they could 'make a difference' as before <i>Loss, uncertainty, demoralising</i>	Own managers were good but not of Ministry Others – left organisation because of changes and the way they were managed. Process also demoralised people. HFA mgrs looked after their people 'they showed huge leadership in you know recognised, being able to step back from their personal situation and recognise that we couldn't afford as a sector to lose this talent'	low expectations of meaningful support – helped to decide to leave	Own managers yes, very open, but said they had little control Ministry process not transparent 'they were a bunch of bastards' Did not trust their integrity or ability to manage change'	'Validated my feelings' ...empathy ministry people– 'disinterested'	** 'We were a kind of team that felt really important to understand intellectually what we were trying to achieve ..and we needed to understand intellectually why is our function being shaped this way, how does it sit within an organisation structure and so when the team felt quite unclear and we were not convinced and personally people weren't being engaged. Nobody was talking to us about why these things were happening, so when you go through the mechanics of the process with that lack of, I suppose consensus about what it is that we're trying to achieve its a hugely stressful process because some people went through the mechanics, just chucked their job description without really thinking about do I really want to be here and some of us, like myself, we made a conscious decision that this is not what we actually want' 'I think people within the Ministry were pretty cold hearted about it. There was a real culture of you know stamping out any of the sort of features of the culture in the past. It was a sort of take over big brother, stomping on little brother.' culture died' * see p18 bureaucratic v devolved mgt style

Q Senior HR contractor	Restructuring Job redesign redundancies + Cultural	<i>Fun, challenge, new interesting, extension of contract</i> High control	Personal attacks, 'screaming and yelling' <i>Sad, disappointed</i>	<i>Excitement</i> - for those who could see benefit, e.g. promotion opportunities, challenge of new role Good outcomes for co.	<i>Churn, fright, crashed, nervousness, stress</i> – for those who foresaw problems with lower role or redundancy <i>hurt, humiliation, anger, distress</i> , those who lost their supervisory roles and took lower level work or redundancy	Q= change leader, on contract BUT... "I wasn't the owner of the change. I was the change agent...I guess in some respects I was able to remove myself from it a little bit." Senior mgt – good management of change	'quite a diverse group of people' above , with 'different drivers' Both immediate managers were supportive	Staff - sceptical of change Q with ref to some senior staff <i>concerned</i> 'manipulation of the process to a different end' (reduction in headcount) Some of them were dishonest	One boss very 'mechanical' other more emotional and emotionally responsive Both were supportive	* 'Massive absenteeism, performance issues, no ownership of customer issues...came in...did their job and walked out again' see also p10 – we did not have high perform. culture New expectations...p2 'Very service oriented military style' of promotion Affect on job culture – 'that's an extremely emotional group of people' 'used to being looked after and people being <i>warm and gentle and caring</i> ' 'parent to child relationship' Differing levels of resistance p 20
R Senior HR	Restructuring De-merger Remuneration Perf mgt Open plan Culture	It built credibility <i>High degree of satisfaction</i> in seeing people change High control	Increased workload <i>Pressure, tired Anxiety – would it work?</i>	The majority gained <i>Happy</i> if remuneration went up People were getting feedback <i>Interest, excitement, pleasure, appreciation</i>	<i>Unhappy</i> if remuneration went down <i>Shock, horror, fear, apathy</i>	R= change leader CEO supportive he worked very closely behind the scenes with us. Attended a few of the workshops...Talked to a few of the partners.	Definitely, <i>calming, reassuring</i> , tried to reduce R's <i>frustration</i>	CEO - Genuine Staff - 'We were dealing with people who had no faith in the system' [remun] because they didn't know how it worked.' 'There was no trust that anything would improve.' They've tried change before...cynicism + apathy	'Not always, no' but could detect emotions and seemed partly responsive 'He knew what I chose to share' = EI, EL	* Needed to change culture 'Grapevine chats' [rem] > 'transparent understanding' Nature of professional services firm. '...the partners say you must be joking.' 'The partners had to take ownership of stuff' Conservative culture , 'archaic'.. 'incredibly traditional –less commercial than other graduates.' 'blinkers'.. 'not emotional people' =fear of showing emotion Lack of openness [rem+] Hidden things – deals that had been done in the past' Open plan = transparency Cynicism 'We were trying to build a culture of integrating and sharing and working as a team.' But – momentum and hunger building – recognition of some of need for change 'it was the leadership ready to make the difference'
S Senior mgr	Restructuring	Opportunity Significance of role has been confirmed (status) High control	Process of managing change was <i>tough, draining</i>	Increased resp., higher level <i>Relief</i> for those who wanted reduced role	<i>Unhappiness</i> for those who got reduced roles	Change leader GM could have done a better job of encouraging me	Would have appreciate support but still got on with job	Trusted both ability and integrity	Yes – but could have been more supportive. 'He never saw the pain people went through.'	Perception of staff that they did not have fun. But through changes people felt tired. Ambivalent: managers used to change, part of culture but Gen Y people not used to so much change – needed to reassure staff and became <i>impatient</i> Seemed to have a culture that even during change you had to deliver results.

T Employee then manager	Relocation to new town	Opportunity <i>excitement</i> Promoted More money more later when became manager	<i>Shock, fear</i> (reloc) Little control earlier...	Those who moved got more money, those who stayed behind got good jobs elsewhere	Some were made redundant – no payout <i>'bad feeling', traumatic</i>	Initially fine then.. 'He kind of left us, abandoned ship and left us down there' He was bull-headed = <i>anger, frustration</i>	"I felt undervalued."	Competence OK, integrity not	'I spoke my mind but it fell on deaf ears.'	The industry is one when there are frequent changes due to its project nature.
U Shop assist.	Merger	<i>Relaxed</i> when no redundancies were announced Low control and no expectation of any	Understaffed when some left due to take over Another co: locks on door changed by liquidators – felt cheated because promised more time <i>surprise</i>		Some did not want to work under new manager and left <i>Uncertainty, nervousness</i>	OK/not great but it was out of their control (old branch manager before takeover)	Minimal	Another co: locks on door changed by liquidators – felt cheated because promised more time to look for other jobs – <i>surprise, anxious</i>		
V Sports facilitator	Restructure Suspension Dismissal	Won his case, got compensation	Lost money, drank more, took a job he did not want Low control <i>Surprise, Pain, heartache, mental anguish, hurt, uncertainty, anger, anxiety, feeling down, gloomy, very angry > relieved</i> (outcome/process)		Various stakeholders were perceived to have lost from his dismissal	Extremely poor, nature of communication regarding change, (+p11) taking computer, suspension, dismissal, nature of conversations at meetings Thought he was 'trying to clean out the house and get rid of everybody who was associated with the old CEO'	But> * The acts of the CEO were the dominant factor in this change	Thought he was competent in managing org but not change but had no integrity. Dishonest about how many roles and nature of roles , why computer had been taken (from someone else) Also dealt with replacement CEO and did not trust him either	'I think he must have gathered how I felt due to some of the emails'	Changed when new GM took over, not from NZ, did not understand culture of NZ or specific ethnic stakeholders. Previously 'very laid back' Not given enough resources – money for resources being put into buildings
W Senior HR	Restructure Redundancy Job redesign Tech change (context) others	Opportunity to showcase change mgt skills = <i>interest</i> High control	More work, travel <i>Frustration</i> people had not embraced change (process)	Better career options + opportunities <i>Enthusiasm</i> <i>but also some relief... ></i> Good for co.	Redundancy Some lost mgt positions <... <i>Anger, frustration</i> ...	W = change leader Seems to have aimed at fairness, open communication (except for confidentiality) CEO was very supportive, local GM 'wanted results and wanted them quickly' but did not appreciate the effort and skill W was contributing Some of 'staff thought it was done appallingly badly'. 'This was by far the most difficult because of the set of circumstances'	CEO support seemed to give confidence, GM lack of appreciation to some degree resented	Note 'lack of trust' in previous management by staff, 'suspicion' W trusted CEO	Yes- CEO was very supportive, acknowledging the effort we'd put in, praising it, backing what we were doing.	*Takeover + tech change: other org had different culture, esp. re change, managers decide and get on with it quickly. This one was much slower, more consultative. We need to change the culture NB p4, 10, 13, 21 resistance to change, co. had been through several restructurings, lack of trust, suspicion 'they would have a project team behind closed doors' = W's <i>frustration</i> 'We didn't realise there was a gap until we were part way through it.' 'They would have been deeply scarred by their previous employer.'

X Security guard	Building expansion Work schedules	Got permanent position, salary increase due to position = <i>happy</i>	No general salary change, pay for exp No control Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i> Missed out on promotion = <i>cried</i>	Good for organization Got training Improved facilities	Schedule changes, extra work, parking problems, had to deal with customer dissatisfaction = <i>unhappy</i>	People blamed for issues beyond their control. (a) Criticised for being marginally late.(a) Not allowed to go to doctor's appt + nature of remarks made (a) Changes to application for leave We were told to follow orders Senior mgt good in giving initial info and updates but did not organize other aspects of change well.	Leadership style resented and seemed to breed resistance to several changes – and finally left. Perceived systemic injustice	'They had betrayed trust' (promotion) Boss – 'at times she was very nasty...tried to gain advantage for herself and some of her favourites' Spent time on personal emails or internet. Did not trust ability either... could have supported staff regarding notification of schedule changes'	'She sensed my feelings but she was happy' that I did not voice them When X cried and she tried to reassure him he did not believe it was genuine – 'she was trying to cover up' = no trust	Professionalism re customer needs. Survey after change revealed considerable staff dissatisfaction. Nepotism re promotion Dishonesty counter to security values 'You couldn't be a rebel in the organisation...in the 'team' You became a target because a target is always hit upon'(get the worst tasks) if you argued, queried matters. 'You have to humbly accept what is dished out to you'
Y Small bus owner	Office move	High control As owner: business grew <i>Excitement, pride</i>	Extra work, more travel <i>Some anxiety, stress</i>	Good for organisation Less travel for most staff	More travel for some staff	Participant was change leader	n/a	n/a	n/a	Strongly committed to client base – partly prompted to move to this location We've always been very close, families socialise – this helped in the move Enthusiasm, passion and pride, cultural identity

Observations

1. Issues of leadership at times refer to leadership/management of change – at others leadership before the change, at others – leadership after the change.
2. Issues of culture at times specifically answer question how did culture affect your response to change. Aspects of culture also noted through other comments made about culture in general.
3. Intersection of leadership and culture – e.g. people being blamed for issues beyond their control
4. Intersection of trust and culture (see Q)
5. Intersection of culture and justice – systemic justice (difficult to gauge since questions were about fairness of change).
6. Intersection of emotions and culture –e.g. R lawyers are not emotional people –fear of showing emotion
7. Intersection of leadership with justice = table with both
8. Intersection of leadership and participant EI (R - 'He knew what I chose to share') =table with both
9. Sometimes a new leader/manager is the outcome of the change and therefore some of the reflections apply to the first or second leader or both.
10. Leaders/manager/recipient of change not easy to separate – partly depends on perceived/expected degree of control. (N, R)
11. Several people are often considered when change management/leadership questions are asked. This can lead to ambiguous answers. (Q:18)
12. Participants at times give benefit of the doubt on leadership and trust issues in the sense that the person creating injustice may have been pushed into it by those higher up.
13. Most of those leading change seemed to have support from more senior manager and most did not seem to require more. Questions on leadership ability, trust, had little relevance or impact.
14. Need a column for leading/managing change or separate table.
15. Need a column for comments on change processes. Check for reference to roller coaster (Q –no) and marathon effect (Q and R)
16. Organisational culture: sometimes departmental culture a factor (B)