The Role of Personality and Emotions in Employee Resistance to Change

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This thesis investigates the role of personality and emotions in employee resistance to change. Although previous studies investigated the role of personality on attitudes towards organisational change and the role of affective processes in resistance to organisational change separately, there is a gap in empirical evidence of the combined role of personality and emotions in employee resistance to change. Considering the importance of understanding change processes and factors that contribute to successful change nowadays, it is valuable to increase insight into the factors that determine reactions to change. Moreover, since resistance to change is the most frequently cited implementation problem encountered by management when introducing change, especially understanding the factors that determine employee resistance to change is valuable. By providing insight into how different people react to different forms of organisational change in terms of emotions and behavioural responses, this thesis contributes to the existing literature and can serve as a guideline for managers on how to introduce organisational change to its employees in a way that decreases the potential for resistance.

In the first part of this thesis, organisational change, resistance to change and the variables that influence reactions to change according to the literature are discussed. Based on this literature, we present a framework in which we state that reactions to change and resistance to change are determined by the emotions experienced in response to the change. The degree of change and personality traits are in turn responsible for determining these emotional responses. We designed a questionnaire that was distributed among employees of the RSM Erasmus University. They were asked about their personality and emotional and behavioural responses to a certain change. The results showed that second-order change is experienced by employees as much more negative than first-order change, evokes stronger negative emotions and evokes heavy resistance among employees. Moreover, employees that have high levels of Extraversion show less negative emotions in response to change than employees with lower levels of Extraversion. Resistance to change is thus most likely to occur in case of a large and radical organisational change since this kind of change evokes heavy negative emotional reactions, especially among employees with lower levels of Extraversion. Therefore, when planning a radical change in an organisation, managers must consider the negative effects that can arise in response to this change. Tempering the negative emotions of the employees or better informing them about the things that are about to happen can be helpful in trying to minimise resistance to change.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

Today's world is a place of never ending and accelerating change. The progressing globalisation and competition increases the pressure on organisations for continuous adaptation: to shifts in market structure, deregulation or legal initiatives and to quickly grasp evolving opportunities (Fay and Lührmann, 2004). The results from change efforts, however, fall too often behind expectations. In fact, in 1994, 70 percent of all the corporate reengineering and change programs that started that year failed (Reynolds, 1994). This is why it remains an important task for scientists to gain a better understanding of change processes and of factors that contribute to successful change.

The failure of many change initiatives can be directly traced to employee resistance to change (Bovey and Hede, 2001; Del Val and Fuentes, 2003). Resistance to change is the most frequently cited implementation problem encountered by management when introducing change (Bovey and Hede, 2001). It results in costs and delays in the change process that are difficult to anticipate, but must definitely be taken into consideration (Del Val and Fuentes, 2003). Although unwanted, resistance to change can be seen as a natural part of the change process. Therefore, an understanding of the process that leads to change and the underlying causes of resistance to change is very useful.

In order to diagnose the true cause of resistance to change, it is necessary to obtain an understanding in the people behind it. Usually, management has a tendency to neglect or ignore the human dimension when implementing change. They only focus on the technical aspects, not recognising or understanding how the human element influences the success or failure of change. Change requires the participation of the people in the organisation who first need to change themselves before organisational change can succeed (Bovey and Hede, 2001).When implementing change, management thus needs to be aware of the ways in which personal issues can impact on an employee's thoughts, feelings and behaviour. Diagnosing employee resistance when implementing change is therefore an important task that sometimes requires to go beyond the outward aspects of an individual's behaviour and to address the unconscious motivations to achieve a change of attitude (Bovey and Hede, 2001).

Some literature on change management notes that one needs good communication patterns to deal with the uncertainty and anxiety experienced by employees during organisational change (Bordia et al., 2004b). Poorly managed communication can lead to widespread rumours, which often

exaggerate the negative aspects of and feelings due to the change. This builds resistance towards change. Others state that participation or involvement of those affected by organisational change will reduce organisational resistance, creating a higher level of psychological commitment toward the proposed change (Lines, 2004). It is however unlikely that organisations can ever completely eliminate resistance to change. Most important is to introduce organisational changes in a way that decreases the potential for resistance (Jex, 2002).

To be able to do this, one needs to be aware of the factors that underlie resistance to change. The last decade, studies have begun to explore concepts that are related to resistance to change from an individual difference perspective. For example, individual characteristics like self-discipline, an orientation toward creative achievement, and a lack of defensive rigidity were suggested to reflect an individual's adaptability to change (Oreg, 2003). Likewise, a study of Wanberg and Banas (2000) reported that self-esteem, optimism, and perceived control – interpreted as measures of psychological resilience – predicted employees' willingness to accept changes at work.

As such, personality traits form important aspects that need to be taken into account when considering resistance to change. According to Darling (1993), individuals typically seek a comfortable level of arousal and stimulation, and when found try to maintain this state. These comfortable levels of individuals differ, depending on the personality of the specific individual. Therefore, individuals also differ in their reactions to change, as some may passively resist it, some embrace it, and others actively undermine it (Eriksson, 2004). Related and of significant importance to these reactions are the emotions the change evokes in the individual. Everyone who is affected by change will experience some emotional turmoil. Downing (1997) describes organisational change in terms of an emotional plot, or feeling frame. This feeling frame functions as a simple frame of reference and pattern giving meaning to all involved in the change process. Change can for example be seen as a loss, where anxiety is the dominant emotion, or as a conquest, with the emotion of hostility playing an important role. Especially fundamental change in personnel, strategy, identity or other major organisational issues often trigger intense emotions under the people involved. The role of emotions in organisational change has however not been extensively investigated (Vakola et al., 2004). This despite the fact that, although we take emotions and moods for granted, their impact on the way we work and perceive situations in our work can be considerable (Greenberg and Baron, 2002).

It is only recently that organisational researchers perceived that emotions are of influence on behaviours and outcomes relevant to organisations (Mossholder et al., 2000). At that same time, organisational psychologists increased their attention to the causes, consequences, and expression of emotions in the workplace (Brockner and Higgins, 2001). In their research on emotions at work, Brockner and Higgins (2001) assume that people's work attitudes and behaviours are affected by differences in the nature and magnitude of their emotional experiences. Also, researchers of change have begun to consider the emotional undercurrents of change. Emotions and responses to change turned out to be so intensive, that they can be compared with individual responses to traumatic changes such as death and grief (Vakola et al., 2004). More and more it becomes thus clear that emotion is an important dimension of individual and organisational identities and also a powerful influence on everyday organisational processes (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001). As such, we can say that the feelings or emotions an employee experiences during organisational change are related to the personality of that individual and that emotion is another important subject to consider when discussing resistance to change. The current study focuses on these relationships. We further specify the research objective below.

1.1   Research objective

As can be concluded from the literature described above, for an organisational change process to succeed it is important to know how to deal with employee resistance and therefore to understand by what it is caused. Gaining understanding in the factors that determine reactions to change is crucial. This research aims at increasing this understanding and insight and focuses on the underlying factors of resistance to change in terms of personality and emotions. Previous theories investigated the role of personality (e.g. Vakola et al., 2004) and affective processes (emotions) in resistance to organisational change (e.g. Bovey and Hede, 2001). It lacks, however, a theory that relates both personality and emotion to resistance to change. This research focuses on both personality and emotion in relation to resistance to change and proposes that these three subjects are interrelated. We state that organisational change evokes emotions in employees and that these emotions are dependent on the impact of the change and the personality of the specific employee. These factors together determine the reaction towards the change. Furthermore, this research explains what kind of organisational change and type of personality and emotions are most likely to evoke resistance to change.

The theoretical part of this research enriches the current literature by interrelating different underlying factors of resistance to change. By questioning participants about their personality and emotional and behavioural responses to a presented change, conclusions can be drawn about what kind of organisational change and type of personality are most likely to give rise to resistance to change. This provides insight into how different people react to different forms of organisational change. Results form this study make it possible for managers to introduce organisational change to its employees in a way that decreases the potential for resistance.
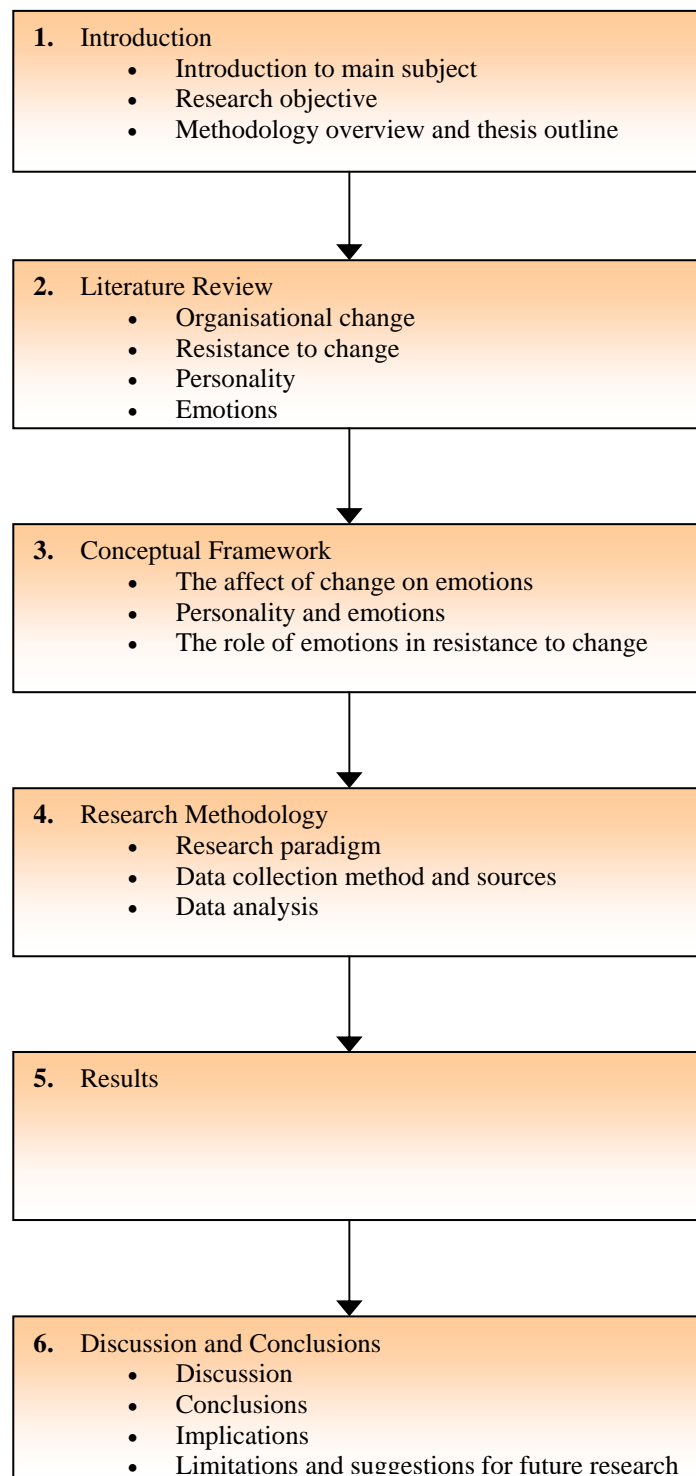
1.2   Methodology overview

This thesis is a combination of both a literature review and an empirical study. The literature part of chapter two and three describes the theory related to the main subject of this thesis. An overview of the different types of organisational change, resistance to change, personality and emotion are provided and these variables are then linked with each other in an integrated framework. Based on this framework, hypotheses are given concerning the relations between organisational change, personality, emotions, and resistance to change. These hypotheses are tested in a survey among employees of the RSM Erasmus university collected with the help of a questionnaire is used to diagnose employee resistance to change. A questionnaire was presented to the employees in which they had to fill in items concerning their personality, items concerning the emotions they felt while imagining a presented change scenario, and items concerning the behavioural intentions in response to the presented change. Based on the findings, conclusions are drawn concerning the plausibility of the hypotheses.

1.3   Outline of the thesis

In this first chapter we gave an introduction to the thesis. We introduced the main subjects of this thesis by shortly stating what other researchers have said on these subjects. Further, we pointed out the objective and relevance of the current research is. Next, a short overview of the methodology was given and we gave the general outline of the thesis. Chapter two describes the theoretical foundations of this study and the perspectives that form the basis of the framework that is given in chapter three. Chapter three elaborates on this conceptual framework and provides the hypotheses. Chapter four describes the methodology of the empirical study. In chapter five the results of the empirical study are given. Finally, chapter six presents the conclusions of the research and finishes

with its limitations and suggestions for future research. Figure 1.1 presents the chapter outline of this thesis graphically.

Figure 1.1:   The structure of the thesis

1. Introduction
- Introduction to main subject
- Research objective
- Methodology overview and thesis outline

2. Literature Review
- Organisational change
- Resistance to change
- Personality
- Emotions

3. Conceptual Framework
- The affect of change on emotions
- Personality and emotions
- The role of emotions in resistance to change

4. Research Methodology
- Research paradigm
- Data collection method and sources
- Data analysis

5. Results

6. Discussion and Conclusions
- Discussion
- Conclusions
- Implications
- Limitations and suggestions for future research

2.   THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In chapter one, we introduced the topic of this research. The current chapter is concerned with the theoretical part of the research. An overview is given of previous research and a discussion of the relevant literature is provided. Different theories and variables necessary for understanding the subject are presented. The complete literature part forms the basis for the development of the research and the interpretation of the results. First, we discuss organisational change. Two different types of organisational change, both having different impact, are given. Next, we discuss resistance to change, the direct consequence of organisational change. Several perspectives on resistance to change, its causes and effects are described. Paragraph 2.3 and 2.4 then discuss personality and emotions and how they relate to each other. Finally, the overall relation between these subjects is highlighted. The next chapter then elaborates on this relation and presents the conceptual framework that will function as the guideline in the remainder of this thesis.

2.1   Organisational change

Due to the fact that organisations nowadays need to operate in increasingly dynamic environments, they are under great pressure to fundamentally change the way they do business (Reger et al., 1994). The world is continuously changing and so the organisations in it need to change along in order to survive (Greenberg and Baron, 2002). According to Greenberg and Baron (2002), organisational change refers to planned or unplanned transformations in the structure, technology and / or people of an organisation. It are variations in shape, quality, or state over time after an introduction of new ways of working, thinking, and acting within an organisation (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995; Del Val and Fuentes, 2003). In general, the aim of an organisational change is an adaptation to the environment and / or an improvement in performance (Del Val and Fuentes, 2003).

2.1.1   First-order versus second-order change

The changes that organisations make differ in scope, as some are only minor and others are major. Actually, they can be defined along a continuum starting in low-scope or evolutionary changes to high-scope or revolutionary changes (Del Val and Fuentes, 2003). The minor, low-scope changes we refer to in this paper as *first-order changes*. First-order changes are changes that are continuous in nature and involve no major shifts in the way the organisation operates (Greenberg and Baron,

2002). These are small changes that alter certain small aspects, but keep the general working framework, looking for an improvement in the present situation (Blumenthal and Haspeslagh, 1994). First-order changes are apparent in the very deliberate, incremental changes that for example Toyota has been making in continuously improving the efficiency of its production process or in a restaurant gradually adding new items to its menu (Greenberg and Baron, 2002). Organisational change can however be far more complex. The second type of changes, the kind of changes that firms need to undertake when there are for example shifts in the global marketplace are called strategic, transformational, revolutionary, or *second-order changes* (Reger et al., 1994; Del Val and Fuentes, 2003). To stay competitive, organisations often have to change their strategic direction, structure and staffing levels (Bordia et al., 2004a). These second-order changes are more radical changes where it is about major shifts involving many different levels of the organisation and many different aspects of the business (Greenberg and Baron, 2002). Second-order changes are radical transformations where the organisation completely changes its essential framework (Del Val and Fuentes, 2003). It is thus not about simply revising processes, structure or strategy but it involves actions that alter the basic character or capabilities of the organisation (Reger et al., 1994). An example of second-order change is when an upper class restaurant decides to change into a fast-food restaurant.

2.1.2 People's reactions to organisational change

According to Bovey and Hede (2001), when people are personally confronted with major organisational change, they go through a reaction process. This process consists of four phases: initial denial, resistance, exploration and eventually commitment (Bovey and Hede, 2001; Reynolds, 1994). Also, O'Connor (1993) says that individuals respond to the threats of change with unconscious processes. People unconsciously use well-developed and habitual defence mechanisms to protect themselves against change and the feelings of anxiety caused by change (Oldham and Kleiner, 2001). Changes lead to a great deal of uncertainty and stress among employees, also due to feelings of no control over the situation engendered by uncertainty. The individual then believes that he or she is unable to effect the change in a desired direction on the environment. Uncertainty, defined as the inability of an individual to predict something accurately due to lack of knowledge about current or future events undermines this ability to influence or control these events. Negative consequences such as anxiety, psychological strain, learned helplessness and lower performance are the result (Bordia et al, 2004a). The defence mechanisms against these negative consequences might obstruct and hinder an individual from adapting to change (Halton, 1994). Greenberg and Baron (2002) give an overview of the nature of people's reactions to organisational change and

some of the specific forms these reactions might take. According to these authors, people's reactions to organisational change can be summarised in a continuum ranging from acceptance (expressed by cooperative behaviour and enthusiasm), through indifference (passive resignation / apathetic behaviour and only doing what is ordered) and passive resistance (not learning, protesting and slowing down the process), to active resistance (expressed by taking time off, making intentional mistakes and deliberately sabotaging the process). The continuum Greenberg and Baron propose (2002) is shown in figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: People's reactions to organisational change:
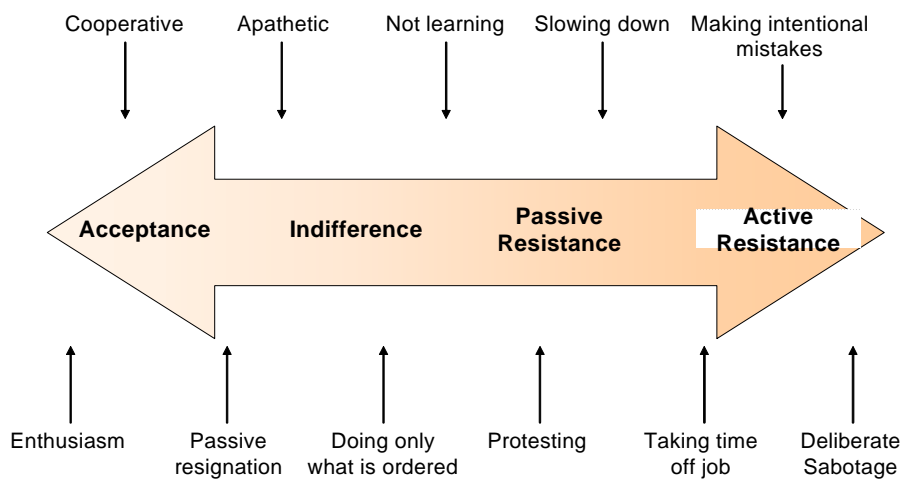
Source: Greenberg and Baron (2002).

The right side of the continuum entails resisting reactions towards change; the left side entails what we call supporting reactions towards the change. The next paragraph elaborates on the concept of resistance to change.

2.2   Resistance to change

As can be seen in figure 2.2 above, reactions to organisational change are, in contradiction to what is usually assumed, not by definition negative. An organisational change, like a move to a more luxurious office, can be warmly accepted simply because the change is seen to have obvious advantages. However, not all changes fit into this category. When changes create uncertainty and ambiguity, resistance to change is likely to emerge. In essence, the resistance is not towards the change in itself, but towards the personal loss, or the possibility to it, that people believe will

accompany the change (McKenna, 2000). Resistance to change can then be described as the behaviours acted out by change recipients in order to slow down or terminate an intended organisational change (Greenberg and Baron, 2002) or as the tendency for organisational employees to be unwilling to go along with changes (Lines, 2004). The definition we use in this research is the one stated by Metselaar (1997). He defines resistance to change as:

"A negative behavioural intention towards the implementation of modifications in an organization's structure, or work and administrative processes, resulting in efforts from the organization member's side to hinder or impede the change process."

Del Val and Fuentes (2003) are of the opinion that on the one hand, resistance to change is a phenomenon affecting the change process, by delaying or slowing down its beginning, obstructing or hindering its implementation, and increasing its costs. On the other hand, they see it as any conduct that tries to keep the status quo and so is equivalent to inertia. But why is it that employees experience negative feelings when they have to deal with change? An answer to this question can be given by looking at organisations as being collections of people (Jex, 2002). According to Jex (2002), people are basically creatures of habit, and as such, they take a great deal of comfort in routine and familiarity. Consequently, even the idea of change often evokes apprehension and anxiety. People develop routines and rituals surrounding many behaviours and have difficulty changing them, no matter whether these changes are positive or negative. This general principle certainly applies also in the workplace (Jex, 2002). Even when people are unhappy with the current state of affairs confronting them in organisations they may still be afraid that any changes will make things only worse. This fear of new conditions or change comes from a belief that changes will have a negative impact, or just from general fear of the unknown. Consequently, it creates unwillingness to accept change and the people in the organisation may react quite negatively to organisational change (Greenberg and Baron, 2002; Jex, 2002).

2.2.1 *Four main perspectives on resistance to change*

From the literature on resistance to change we can differentiate four main perspectives on this phenomenon: the irrational perspective, the political perspective, the social perspective, and the psychological perspective. The last three of these perspectives emanate from a rational point of view and offer more leads for the investigation of resistance than does the first one, the so-called irrational approach (Metselaar, 1997). In this irrational approach resistance is seen as an unavoidable behavioural response to change. Managers and employees confronted with

organisational change are said to be irrational acting people, who are anxious out of uncertainty for new developments and therefore want to stay with old habits. As a consequence of this, the central emotions in the literature on organisational change are mostly negative ones. Examples are fear of the change, doubt about willing to change, sadness because of saying goodbye to old habits, anger or not accepting the change, and not being able to change (Metselaar and Cozijnsen, 1997). Resistance to change is according to this approach a to-be-expected aspect of change described as "any force directed away from the change process" (Lippitt et al., 1958). Commenting upon this perspective, Metselaar (1997) argues that in order to understand the dynamics of resistance to change, theories that depict resistance as an irrational element of the change process should be refuted. Therefore, in opposition to the irrational perspective given above we now look at resistance from subsequently a political, a social and a psychological perspective. Seen from a political perspective, organisations are made up of coalitions with usually opposite interests. Change is then resisted because it leads to alternations in the existing balance of power between these coalitions. Change processes might alter the lines of authority and use of rules in an organisation, leading to a struggle for power among interest groups. Therefore, according to the political perspective, resistance mainly originates form the existing power structure in an organisation. Considered from a social point of view, organisations are socially constructed realities made up of individuals or groups of individuals working together. Here, resistance develops during the course of social interaction when group norms and values are colliding. This view stresses that the chance of conflicts or resistance to change increases when rituals of daily routines are broken. This approach is partly based on Morgan's (1986) description of the management of meaning. Morgan (1986) states that the attitudes and visions of particularly top corporate employees tend to have a significant impact on the meaning system pervading the whole organisation. An example is the language that top management uses when talking about the change. This is expected to influence the perceptions of employees of the change and the way they expect their jobs to be affected by it.

The last and, since it recognises the importance of individual differences, in our view most suitable perspective on resistance to change is the psychological perspective. From this point of view, people have a tendency towards homeostasis, meaning that people strive for a balance between change and stability. Too much change leads to uncertainty and commotion, but no change at all leads to boredom. However, some people tend more towards a life with certainty and no commotion, while others prefer some uncertainty and consciously seek excitement. These differences can usually be explained by individual characteristics or past experiences. For example, individuals that prefer regularity in life or employees that have bad memories of experienced

organisational changes are more insurgent to new changes. Next to this, the expected consequences of the change concerning the job satisfaction also play a key role. Resistance is especially likely to occur when the change collides with specific task characteristics that are highly valued by employees or with the objectives and responsibilities associated with specific work roles. Accordingly, people's values play an important role here. In the psychological perspective the causes for resistance might thus lie in the perception of a constant threat to the status quo, with as a consequence lower levels of well-being, motivation and satisfaction (Metselaar, 1997; Metselaar and Cozijnsen, 1997).

2.2.2   Causes of resistance to change

There are a variety of forms by which resistance can manifest itself. It can range from quite harmless covert manifestations -like rumours and gossip, a 'wait and see' policy, protest letters to the management and trade union activity- to harmful overt manifestations -like sabotage of work processes and aggression against management (Coch and French, 1948). The harmful manifestations of resistance can have severe effects on the well being of organisational members. Structural resistance can, for example, lead to high staff turnover, reduced effectiveness and efficiency of the organisation, conflicts, reduced organisation commitment and increased absenteeism and lateness (Metselaar, 1997). In order to understand the emergence and manifestation of resistance to change, it is necessary to know the causes of this phenomenon. In the literature many subdivisions are given of the causes or reasons of resistance to change. First of all, according to Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) there are four major reasons why people resist change: because they are afraid of losing something of value; because they misunderstand or mistrust the change and the implications of it; because they believe that the change is of no use; or simply because they have a low tolerance for change. In these cases, the sources of resistance exist in both the personality and the environment (Coghlan, 1993). Second, Metselaar (1997) made a distinction between primary and secondary causes of resistance. Primary causes of resistance are antecedents of resistance which are directly related to the contents of the change. This is the case when for example the change process has detrimental effects on the work conditions. Also the impact a change has on the methods and jobs of the employees, the number of employees affected by the change, or the range of activities altered are considered as primary causes of resistance. Secondary causes of resistance can be defined as barriers that directly or indirectly hinder the acceptance or implementation of the change. Examples include lack of time, material, or financial means to implement the change, the absence of a clear change plan, and a lack of experience or know how among the people that have to implement the change (Metselaar, 1997).

Secondary causes of resistance are by other researchers referred to as barriers to successful change. In the literature a distinction is made between four types of barriers: psychological, social, cultural, and organisational barriers. To understand the emergence of these barriers, Armenakis et al. (1993) adopted insights from three theories of social dynamics. These three theories, the individual differences theory, social differentiation theory, and social relationships theory can contribute to an understanding of respectively the psychological, cultural and social barriers to change. Firstly, according to individual differences theory, the response of one person may diverge from that of another person because they have differing cognitive structures. Some people for example believe that they have a lack of personal control over unfolding events. This theory is very much in line with the psychological perspective on resistance to change described above. Previous experiences with organisational change, lack of trust and misunderstanding of the intentions of the change (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979), and personality factors as low empathy, dogmatism and fear of failure (Rogers and Schoemaker, 1971) are other examples of psychological barriers to change (Metselaar, 1997). The explanation of cultural barriers to change can be sought in the social differentiation theory. This theory argues that the responses and reactions of individuals are partly determined by their cultural or sub-cultural membership, which may polarise members' beliefs, attitudes and intentions. The hierarchical differentiation in an organisation can for example shape group membership, resulting in psychological boundaries that affect the way the change is perceived by the different subgroups. As a result, feelings of mutual solidarity against the change or polarisation of social norms can emerge, which are examples of cultural barriers against change. These cultural barriers particularly emerge when there is incongruence between the organisation's present norms and values and the ones on which the organisation will be based in the future (Metselaar, 1997). Finally, the social relationships theory of Armenakis et al. (1993) can contribute to an understanding of the social barriers to change. This theory argues that responses to change are dependent on the network of relationships individuals have. Friendship, rivalry and trust or distrust make up a network of relationships linking the members to each other with communication paths. The frequency, duration and specific aim of contacts between members of an organisation are therefore relevant to the explanation of the social barriers to change. A central member in an organisation or an opinion leader might for example have a very large impact on the attitudes and intentions of others in the network. Other examples of socials barrier are groupthink and increased group cohesiveness. Next to these three types of barriers against change, we can distinguish a fourth type of barrier that may hinder the implementation of change. This barrier does not derive from the organisation members themselves, but more from the organisation. These so called organisational

barriers occur when the organisation does for example not provide sufficient personnel, information or material to implement the change.

Greenberg and Baron (2002), also recognise organisational barriers to change. They argue that employees are resisting changes either due to individual fears of the unknown or due to organisational impediments. The key factors that are known to make people resisting to change in organisations, the so-called individual barriers, are:

- economic insecurity: because any changes on the job have the potential to threaten the livelihood of the employees by for example loss of job or reduced pay, some resistance to change is inevitable
- Fear of the unknown: Employees derive a sense of security from doing things the same way. They know who their co-workers will be and to whom they are supposed to listen and answer from day to day. When these well-established, comfortable patterns are disrupted, unfamiliar conditions are created which is a state of affairs often rejected.
- Threats to social relationships: People working in organisations usually form strong bonds with their co-workers. Many organisational changes, for example the reassignment of job responsibilities, threaten the integrity of friendship groups that provide valuable social rewards.
- Habit: Habitual jobs that are well learned are easy to perform. A new or changed job asks people to develop new skills. This is clearly more difficult than continuing to perform the job as it was originally learned.
- Failure to recognise need for change: Unless the employees of the organisation recognise and fully appreciate the need for change, any vested interests they may have in keeping things the same may overpower their willingness to accept change.

The organisational barriers Greenberg and Baron (2002) give are:

- Structural Inertia: To the extent that employees are selected and trained to perform certain jobs and rewarded for doing them well, the forces acting on individuals to perform in certain (stable) ways are very powerfully determined. This signifies that jobs have structural inertia. Jobs are thus designed to have stability and because of this it is often difficult to overcome the resistance created by the forces that create stability.
- Work group inertia: due to the development of strong social norms within groups, possible pressures to perform jobs in a certain way can exist. When change is introduces, these established normative expectations are disrupted what can lead to resistance.

- Threats to existing balance of power: If changes are made with respect to the people in charge, it is likely that this entails a shift in the balance of power between individuals and organisational sub-units. Resistance against change then comes from the units or individuals that fear losing their advantageous position as a result of the change.

- Previously unsuccessful change efforts: If people or organisations have lived through a past disaster regarding organisational change, they are understandably reluctant to endure another attempt.
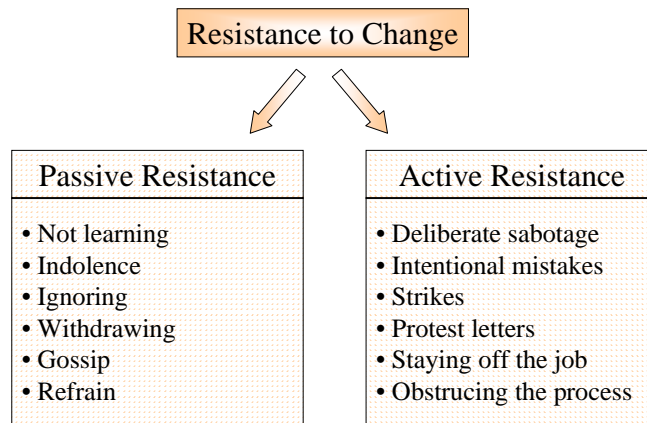
Shortly put, causes of resistance to change either lie in the organisation or in the individual. This research aims at explaining the relation between personality factors and resistance to change and therefore we focus on the causes that lie in the individual.

2.2.3   *Expressions of resistance: passive and active resistance*

Next to causes of resistance, we can also identify consequences, symptoms and different forms of resistance. Consequences of resistance refer to the influence that the resistance has on the change process, the organisation, and the people involved. In general, resistance has a delaying effect on a change process. Targets are not reached in time and because of this the result of the change process falls short of the actual plan. Also, the people involved can notice resistance on a deteriorated working atmosphere, and on reduced job satisfaction and motivation. When the behaviour of the people involved can not directly be traced back to the organisational change, we speak about symptoms of resistance. Examples of symptoms of resistance are a rise of employees reporting ill, being late on meetings and a rise of the number of conflicts in the organisation (Metselaar and Cozijnsen, 1997). When employees demonstrate symptoms of resistance it is important to distinguish these symptoms of resistance from the causes behind it (Bovey and Hede, 2001). Forms of resistance are the expressions of discontent that, in contradiction to symptoms of resistance, can directly be traced back to the change process. We already spoke about forms of resistance in paragraph 2.1.2. Here, we distinguished two forms of resistance in the model of Greenberg and Baron about peoples' reactions towards change, namely passive resistance and active resistance. Bovey and Hede (2001) also adopt this distinction, defining active resistance as originating action and passive resistance as not acting or inertia. Passive resistance refers then to restrained expressions of resistance, like not learning, passivity (Greenberg and Baron, 2002), ignoring or withdrawing the change (Bovey and Hede, 2001). Active resistance contains reactions like dismantling or obstructing the change with deliberate sabotage or making intentional mistakes. Other examples of forms in which resistance occurs are strikes, protest letters to the management,

and gossip about the change (Metselaar and Cozijnsen, 1997). Figure 2.2 gives the different forms of resistance to change.

Figure 2.2: Forms of resistance to change

Resistance to Change

Passive Resistance	Active Resistance
• Not learning • Indolence • Ignoring • Withdrawing • Gossip • Refrain	• Deliberate sabotage • Intentional mistakes • Strikes • Protest letters • Staying off the job • Obstrucing the process

Source: Adapted from Greenberg and Baron (2002) and Bovey and Hede (2001).

2.2.4 Individuals' different reactions

The previous paragraphs gave an overview of the causes, consequences, symptoms and forms of resistance. This does however not explain employees' diverging reactions in response to changes in their job or organisation. Why does for example one employee see the change as a threat and does another see it as an opportunity? This can, among others, be explained by looking at the differences between groups of people. Group characteristics of a specific group of employees determine the reactions of its members to the change. The cultural background, nationality, composition, or social position of a group are examples of these group characteristics. But also the hierarchical distance between top and middle management makes that both groups consider the change in the organisation differently. Moreover, processes within a group, like groupthink, can strengthen the opinion of the group, making it more difficult to change the individual opinions (Metselaar en Cozijnsen, 1997). In this research we are interested in the differences between people. We believe that especially individual differences make that reactions to change diverge. This because individual difference variables play an important role in employees' work attitudes and their coping with change (Vakola et al., 2004). Moreover, the personality of an individual entails what is important to an individual and how an individual appraises a situation (Lazarus, 1991). Individual characteristics, age, and experiences thus determine how someone reacts to changes in his or her (working) environment. An example of a characteristic that plays a role in handling resistance to

change is rigidity. This is the degree to which a person holds on to routines or habits in his daily life or work. Rigid individuals generally have more difficulty with accepting changes in their organisation than individuals that are flexible. Concerning age, it is assumed that older employees generally have more difficulty with organisational changes than younger employees. This due to memory deficiencies of older people, causing limitations in learning and problem solving, and so making it harder for them to deal with change (Gregoire, 2003). With respect to experience, it holds that people who have bad experiences with past changes are more difficult to persuade for a new change than employees with positive experiences (Metselaar and Cozijnsen, 1997). In this research we focus on the influence of an individual's personality on the way this individual reacts in response to change. But before analysing this relation, we first elaborate on the concept of personality.

2.3   Personality

People differ along many different dimensions. Some people are trusting, while others are suspicious; some are reserved, while others are outgoing. The list is endless, but such individual differences are very important. Differences between people are often reflected in their behaviour, and this behaviour has strong effects on relations with others, the course of their careers, and many other work-related issues. Researchers who have studied individual differences often divide them into two major categories, personality and abilities. Abilities refer to the capacities individuals possess or acquire for performing various tasks. Personality refers to the traits and characteristics that make individuals unique (Greenberg and Baron, 2002). Personality can be defined as the totality of traits, as of character or behaviour that are peculiar to a specific person. It is the pattern of collective character, behavioural, temperamental, emotional, and mental traits of a person (www.thefreedictionary.com). These can be seen as complementing to each other, each possibly playing an influential role in shaping a person's actual behaviour in a given situation (Gulliford, 1992). Personality is thus an important determinant of behaviour in organisations (Greenberg and Baron, 2002) and is also said to determine an individual's reaction to organisational change (Metselaar and Cozijnsen, 1997). Several studies (e.g. Lee-Baggley et al., 2005) highlight the importance of considering personality when examining coping behaviours. Vakola et al. (2004) argue that individual difference variables, such as positive affectivity, openness to experience, and tolerance for ambiguity play an important role in employees' work attitudes and their coping with change. Also, as stated earlier, Wanberg and Banas (2000) argue that individual characteristics like self-esteem, optimism, and perceived control predict employees' willingness to accept change.

Personality traits thus seem to have an influence on the differing individual responses to change (Armenakis et al., 1993; Vakola et al., 2004). Therefore, we aim at analysing personality factors as on of the predictors of the reactions towards change.

2.3.1 *The Five Factor Model of Personality*

There are many traits that can describe an individual's personality. This makes it impossible to consider all these traits in order to understand the role of personality in organisational behaviour. Therefore, several models are designed to bring order in the dimensions of personality. One model of personality that has been found particularly useful in understanding attitudes toward change is the Five-Factor Model of Personality (McCrae and John, 1992; Paunonen, 2003; Vakola et al., 2004).The belief in this model is that personality based variations in behaviour are largely interpretable in terms of the Big Five dimensions of personality. These five factors have been identified across a number of cultures and different languages and have proven to present a clear measurement framework in personality psychology (Vakola et al., 2004). It is a broad based taxonomy of personality dimensions that arguably represent the minimum number of traits needed to describe personality (McCrae and Costa, 1986, Lee-Baggley et al., 2005). These five personality dimensions are:

- *Extraversion*: the quantity and intensity of interpersonal interaction and activity level. This gives the degree to which individuals are gregarious, assertive, and sociably (high extraversion) versus being reserved, timid, passive, and quiet (low extraversion, or introversion).

- *Agreeableness*: the quality of a person's interpersonal interaction along a continuum from compassion to antagonism. This describes the extent to which individuals are cooperative and warm (highly agreeable) versus cold and hostile (highly disagreeable).

- *Conscientiousness*: the amount of persistence, organisation and motivation in goal directed behaviours. This gives the extent to which individuals are hardworking, organised, tidy, dependable, and preserving (high conscientiousness) versus lazy, disorganised, careless, and unreliable (low conscientiousness).

- *Neuroticism*: the tendency to experience negative affect such as anxiety, insecurity, and psychological distress. This is also referred to as emotional stability and gives the degree to which individuals are insecure, anxious, depressed, and emotional (emotionally unstable / highly neurotic) versus calm, self-confident, and secure (emotionally stable / not neurotic)

- *Openness to Experience*: the proactive seeking and appreciation of new experiences. This gives the extent to which individuals are creative, imaginative, curious, and cultured (open to

experience) versus practical and with narrow interests (closed to experience) (McCrae and John, 1992; Greenberg and Baron, 2002; Vakola et al., 2004).

The Five Factor Model of Personality is an appropriate framework for studying individual differences and attitudes towards organisational change. However, in contradiction to those who state that personality determines an individual's reaction to organisational change (Metselaar and Cozijnsen, 1997), we are of the opinion that it is not personality that directly determines the reaction to change, but that this influence is mediated by another factor. We state that organisational change and personality indirectly determine the reaction to change, mediated by emotion. Emotion thus intervenes as the mediating factor in the relations between organisational change and reactions to change and personality and reactions to change. Therefore, in the next paragraph we discuss the factor emotion.

2.4   Emotion

As stated earlier, the impact of emotions on the way we work and perceive situations in our work can be considerable (Greenberg and Baron, 2002). But how then do emotions influence us? According to Greenberg and Baron (2002), our everyday feelings, reflected in our emotions and moods, play an important role in how we think and act. People's judgments and decisions regarding others and events will be "heated up" by their emotions (Forgas, 1991; Kunda, 1999). That is, their structures, strategies, and modes of processing can be coloured by their affective system. The affective system is a broad term, consisting of interpersonal evaluations, emotions and moods. According to Fiske and Taylor (1991), interpersonal evaluations and moods are affective states that are simple, long-term positive or negative feelings. The distinction lies in that interpersonal evaluations are in response to a specific target, whereas moods are not. Mood can be defined as an unfocused, relatively mild feeling that exists as background in our daily experiences. Moods are more subtle and difficult to detect than the emotions we are sure to recognise. You may for example say that you are in a good or bad mood, but this is not as focused as saying that you are feeling sad or experiencing fear. Emotions are, in contrast to interpersonal evaluations and moods, highly specific and intense. Emotions are complex, relatively brief reactions involving physiological responses, subjective states, and expressive behaviours (Fiske and Taylor, 1991; Forgas, 1994; Greenberg and Baron, 2002).

Emotions can be defined as overt reactions that express feelings about events (Greenberg and Baron, 2002). In an organisational context, the emotions that individuals harbour or express may have potential to reveal how they feel about ongoing events in the organisation and how they may react to these events (Mossholder et al., 2000). Emotional reactions at the workplace are, for example, getting angry when a colleague takes advantage of you, becoming sad when your best friend leaves to take a new job, or becoming afraid of what the future holds when a larger firm merges with the firm in which you have worked for twenty years. Although these emotional reactions have obvious differences, all emotions share four key properties. First of all, emotions always have an object: there is always someone or something that caused or triggered your emotional reaction. Second, there are six major categories of emotions. We do not have an infinite number of different emotions. Research (e.g. Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996; Greenberg and Baron, 2000) has shown that emotions fall into six major categories: *anger, fear, joy, love, sadness, and surprise* and of which the first five can be divided in subcategories (see table 2.1). Third, the expression of emotions is universal. People throughout the whole world generally portray the same emotions by using the same facial expressions, making it possible to recognise other peoples' emotional state. Fourth, how and when people express emotions is determined by culture. Despite the previously stated fact that people throughout the world express their emotions in the same way, informal standards or cultural norms govern the degree to which it is acceptable for them to do so (Greenberg and Baron, 2002).

Table 2.1: The six major categories of emotion and their subcategories

Anger	Fear	Joy	Love	Sadness	Surprise
• Disgust	• Alarm	• Cheerfulness	• Affection	• Disappointment	(no subcat)
• Envy	• Anxiety	• Contentment	• Longing	• Neglect	
• Exasperation		• Enthralment	• Lust	• Sadness	
• Irritation		• Optimism		• Shame	
• Rage		• Pride		• Suffering	
• Torment		• Relief		• Sympathy	
		• Zest			

Source: Greenberg and Baron, 2000.

Emotions guide people in appraising social situations and responding to them (Fineman, 1997; Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001). Emotions can be positive (pleasant and exciting) or negative (unpleasant and disturbing). This depends on interpretations given by individuals and tested through

their relations with others. Emotions are thus coping mechanisms, that enable individuals to adapt to changing circumstances. In this manner they function to preserve what a specific individual values in different circumstances and at the same time signals when there is a need for change (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001).

2.4.1 *The emotion elicitation process*

As already stated above, an emotion always has an object, there is always something that caused the emotional reaction. Emotions are, however, only triggered by events that are personally relevant, meaning that the event has to have direct implications for one's personal goals or strivings (Frijda, 1988). So, only when discrepancies are encountered that are relevant to an individual's personal well-being, concerns, or goals and objectives, emotions arise. An explanation of how particular emotions arise is given by the common framework describing the emotion elicitation process. According to this framework individuals engage in a two-stage process. In the primary stage, the so-called appraisal stage, individuals ascertain whether an event is of relevance of the individual's well being. This initial evaluation of relevance is based upon the importance of the specific event for furthering or thwarting personal goals and values (Frijda, 1994; Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996; Weiss et al., 1999). Only if a person has a personal stake in an encounter, like a short- or long- term goal such as social or self-esteem or the well-being of a loved one, will there be an emotional response to what is happening (Lazarus, 1991). This primary appraisal stage involves thus a gross evaluation of harm or benefit leading to a general positive or negative direction of the emotion. The primary appraisal stage is followed by a secondary, interpretative meaning analysis stage, which results in the particular discrete emotions we experience, like anger, guild or pride. This secondary appraisal stage involves an examination of the context along dimensions as the possibility for coping, attribution of agency (self versus others), and certainty of outcome (Weiss et al., 1999).

2.4.2 *The function of emotion*

From the previous paragraph we can conclude that emotions are relatively intense affective states that interrupt ongoing thought processes and behaviours. Emotions signal people where they need to focus their attention and place them in a state of readiness (Frijda, 1988; George and Jones, 2001). Emotions are triggered by events that are novel or unexpected and personally relevant. They arise in response to events that are important to the individual and which importance he or she appraises by the direct implications the event has for the personal goals or strivings. Events that for example satisfy or promise to satisfy the personals goals, yield positive emotions; events that threaten or

harm the concerns of the individual lead to negative emotions (Frijda, 1988). Emotions thus provide a signal that there is something that is personally relevant in need for attention. This signalling function of emotions is complemented by the motivational implications of emotions: emotions motivate cognitive activity and behaviour in order to deal with the emotion triggering situation (Frijda, 1994). We are however not fully aware of how our emotions shape the work relations we are in. The relational theory of emotions provides two important insights on how emotions are intertwined with processes of organisational change. This theory helps us in understanding the complicated functioning of human beings in the processes of organisational change (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Doorewaard and Benschop, 2003). According to the relational theory of emotions, a person's actions and intentions do not only stem from their rationality, but are always and inextricably bound up with the emotions he or she has. Also, emotions are seen as being both individual characteristics and features of the power based relationships between people involved in organisational change. Emotions thus function as implicit subroutines or feeling frames and they do so in non-neutral, often prevailing power processes (Doorewaard and Benschop, 2003). Looking at emotions as subroutines, it is important to note that the emotional influence usually takes place between the levels of consciousness and unconsciousness, also referred to by Giddens (1984) as the twilight zone of people's "practical consciousness". Still, whatever the situation, emotions play a different, but always decisive role, portraying how the people involved give meaning to what happens in their organisation (Doorewaard and Benschop, 2003).

2.4.3   *Relating emotion to personality*

Emotion is thus clearly affected by the way an individual interprets or values a situation. Individual variability in the emotion process is predicated on differences in how people appraise a situation. A particular gesture may, for example, induce anger if interpreted as an insult, contempt if read as ingratitude, or compassion if seen as pleading. The same holds when two persons have been treated inconsiderately in a social transaction: one of them can interpret the other person's behaviour as an unwarranted personal offence and will get angry, however, if the other person interprets the same behaviour as a consequence of a personal tragedy, the emotion of that person might be compassion or empathy (Lazarus, 1991). The interpretation and judgement of a situation is guided by the existing knowledge, values and beliefs of an individual as well as by his or her prior emotional states and moods. Some individuals possess insatiable needs for love, approval, or success, and such needs make these people vulnerable to negative emotional experiences. However, despite the existence of powerful environmental and personality influences that are in themselves capable of shaping emotional states, the relational principle – that we will not feel threatened unless the

environment is refractory to our wants – still applies (Lazarus, 1991). Thus, an organisational situation continuously engenders different emotional responses, depending on the different ways in which they are interpreted by the different employees (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001). Personality includes what is important to an individual person and how an individual appraises a situation (Lazarus, 1991). Following on this, it can be stated that organisational change engenders different reactions to change, caused by different emotional reactions among employees, and that these emotional reactions also depend on the employees and their different personalities. This relation forms the main thought presented in this research and is further explained in the next chapter.

3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Previous studies investigated the role of personality on attitudes towards organisational change (e.g. Vakola et al., 2004) and the role of affective processes (emotions) in resistance to organisational change (e.g. Bovey and Hede, 2001). This research focuses on personality and emotion in response to change and the relation with resistance to change and proposes that these subjects are interlinked. We state that a specific event in the environment, in this case an organisational change, evokes a particular emotion in an individual / employee, which is also dependent on the personality of that individual and that these factors together determine the behavioural outcome towards the change. Put differently, we propose that the reaction to change is determined by emotion, which in turn is determined by the factors of personality and organisational change. Emotion is thus presented as the mediating variable between organisational change and resistance to change and between personality and resistance to change. This leads to the following figure:

Figure 3.1   Conceptual framework
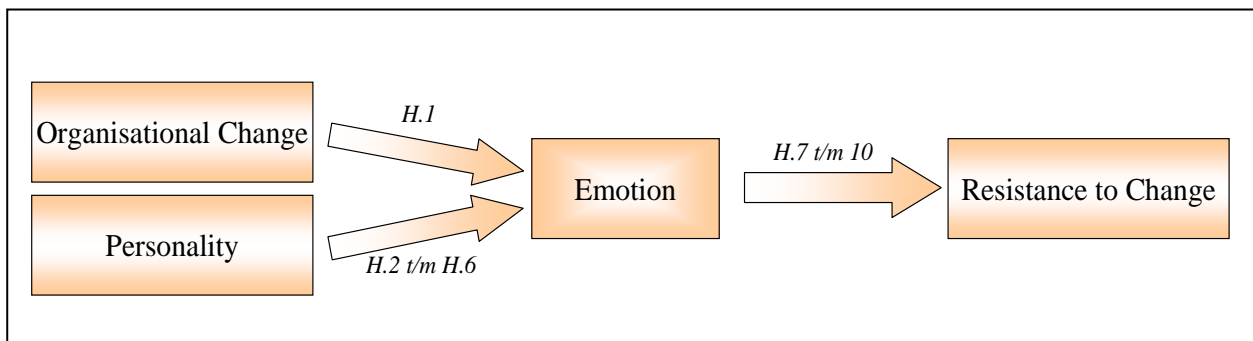
Organisational change is divided into first-order and second-order change and is proposed to determine the intensity of the emotion (strong / weak emotion). Personality, given by the Big 5 dimensions, is proposed to influence the value of the emotion (more positive / more negative emotion) in response to the change. Emotions then determine the reaction to organisational change. The proposed relations given in figure 3.1 are further discussed in the next paragraphs, starting with the relation between organisational change and emotion.

3.1.   The affect of organisational change on individuals' emotions

As stated earlier, an organisational change is likely to evoke emotional reactions among employees. Anyone involved in a change program or part of an organisation working with a change program can testify that these programs create emotional states (Eriksson, 2004). A lot of people acknowledge that they experience emotions like anger, anxiety, fear, happiness, or joy, in response to work or ongoing change efforts at work (Eriksson, 2004). The intensity of these emotions however differs along with the kind of organisational change, which we divided earlier in this research in first-order and second-order change.

First-order changes were defined as minor, low scope changes and second-order changes as more radical changes. Huy (1999) states that second-order change is likely to arouse stronger emotional responses than first order-change by explaining that second-order change refers to a fundamental, qualitative change in the firm's philosophy or core identity. Core identity can be defined as the central, enduring, and distinctive characteristics of the organisation that a large number of employees feel proud of and have identified with personally. A radical change causes not only a pervasive redistribution of power and resources which can be upsetting by itself, but also demands a paradigm shift that challenges the employees' most basic assumptions about the nature of the organisation. These assumptions provide a patterned way of dealing with ambiguous or uncontrollable events, in which the employees have invested emotionally (Huy, 1999). Challenging their emotional stability equates with attacking core identity and can thus trigger strong defence mechanisms, like anxiety and defensiveness (Schein, 1992). Also, according to Lazarus (1991), powerful environmental and personality influences are in themselves capable of shaping emotional states, but we will not feel threatened unless the environment is refractory to our wants (Lazarus, 1991). The environmental influence, in this case the organisational change, needs thus to be powerful and evidently conflicting with our wants. Since second-order change is more radical than first-order change and more powerful and conflicting with our wants, we believe that this kind of change is more likely to evoke heavy emotional reactions. Mossholder et al. (2000) confirm this, as they state that large organisational changes are the events with the greatest potential of eliciting emotions by employees. On top of this, Frijda (1988) argues that emotions are not so much elicited by the presence of favourable or unfavourable conditions, but more by expected or actual changes in favourable or unfavourable conditions. The larger the change, he states, the stronger the subsequent emotion. The amount of pleasure will for example be considerably smaller when it is

produced by an event without prior challenge or tension then when produced by the same event with prior challenge and uncertainty (Frijda, 1988).

Given the higher expected impact of second-order changes, most studies measured the relationship between a specific concept and resistance to change during second-order changes. In this research, we investigate the emotions and reactions towards change of employees in relation to both first- and second- order changes. We examine whether second-order change does indeed elicit more intensive (stronger) emotions than first-order change and whether a first order-change will evoke any emotion at all. Emotion is in this case the dependent variable with organisational change as the independent variable (see figure 3.2). We hypothesise that:

H₁: Second-order change evokes a stronger emotional response than first-order change

Figure 3.2: Hypothesis one
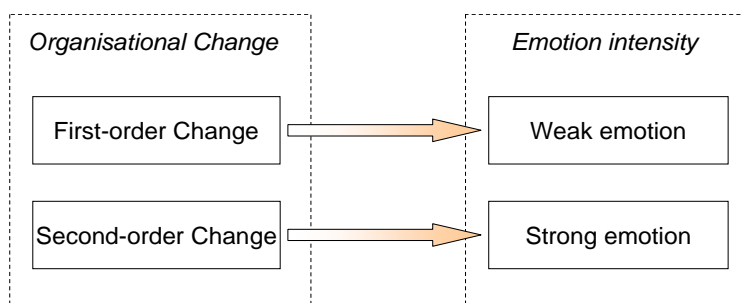
3.2. Personality and emotions

In the previous chapter we explained that there are individual differences in terms of ability and willingness to adapt to organisational change (Darling, 1993; Bovey and Hede, 2001). Change is experienced in different ways (Carnall, 1986), as some people move through a change process without any problems, while others become stuck or experience feelings of fear or anger. According to the differential emotions theory (Izard et al., 2003), emotions are closely related to personality. Smith and Lazarus (1990) also discussed personality-emotion relations and state that traits of personality influence emotion activation and emotion regulation. Personality variables, along with environmental variables (organisational change) are then the causal antecedents of an emotion (Lazarus, 1991). We propose in this research that the feelings or emotions an employee experiences during organisational change and their positive or negative value are influenced by personality. The

different emotions in response to organisational change, we believe, find their origin in the different personalities of the individuals experiencing the change. The following can be said about the different personality characteristics and their relation to positive or negative emotions:

Extraversion (E) describes individuals who tend to be sociable, warm, cheerful, energetic, and assertive and tend to experience positive emotions. Those higher on E engage in higher levels of problem-focussed coping than those lower on E and they also employ less maladaptive forms of emotions such as self blame, wishful thinking, and avoidance. Individuals higher on E tend to use more adaptive forms of emotion-focussed coping, like positive thinking or reinterpretation. Extraversion can thus be related to positive attitudes towards change (Vakola et al., 2004; Lee-Baggley et al., 2005). However, since we state that it is not personality that is directly related to resistance to change, but emotion influenced by personality, we expect that higher scores on Extraversion are associated with more positive emotions and less negative emotions in response to organisational change:

H_{2a}: People with higher levels of Extraversion show more positive emotions in response to organisational change.

H_{2b}: People with higher levels of Extraversion show less negative emotions in response to organisational change.

Agreeableness (A) is according to Vakola et al. (2004) also a dimension expected to be related with positive attitudes towards change. It describes people as compliant, soft-hearted, good natured, and avoiding tenses and disagreement in the workplace (McCrae and Costa, 1986). Individuals high on A tend to be altruistic, trusting, and helpful and tend to use positive reappraisal and planned problem solving. It is said that employees with a high score on A are more reluctant to resist change and more willing to follow new policies and procedures (McCrae and Costa, 1986, Lee-Baggley et al., 2005). Following on this, we expect that higher scores on A are associated with more positive emotions and less negative emotions in response to change:

H_{3a}: People with higher levels of Agreeableness show more positive emotions in response to organisational change.

H_{3b}: People with higher levels of Agreeableness show less negative emotions in response to organisational change.

Conscientiousness (C) describes employees with self-discipline, ambition and competence. Individuals high on C tend to be reliable, organised, determined, hard working and self-disciplined (McCrae and Costa, 1986). According to lee-Baggley et al. (2005), C has been found to be related to the use of active, problem focused strategies, like planning, problem solving, positive reappraisal, and suppression of competing activities. Employees with a high score on this dimension are dutiful end tend to adhere strictly to principles and obligations, like a change in the organisation, initiated by management (McCrae and Costa, 1986; Vakola et al., 2004). Conscientiousness is also related to positive attitudes towards change (Vakola et al., 2004). Therefore, we expect that higher scores on C are associated with more positive emotions and less negative emotions in response to change:

H_{4a}: People with higher levels of Conscientiousness show more positive emotions in response to organisational change.

H_{4b}: People with higher levels of Conscientiousness show less negative emotions in response to organisational change.

Openness to experience (O) is related to effective coping and adjustment. Individuals high on O tend to be creative, imaginative, curious, psychologically minded, and flexible in their thinking. They are likely to have broad interests and to prefer variety (McCrae and Costa, 1986, Lee-Baggley et al., 2005). McCrae and Costa (1986) indicated a positive relationship between openness to experience and utilisation of effective coping mechanisms in order to deal with stressful events in life. Openness to experience is thus a dimension that can be related to positive attitudes toward change, it describes employees who are open to new ideas and suggestions, who can demonstrate effective coping mechanisms, and are tolerant and perceptive (McCrae and Costa, 1986). Based on this, we expect that people that are open to experience are also open and positive to change:

H_{5a}: People with higher levels of Openness to experience show more positive emotions in response to organisational change.

H_{5b}: People with higher levels of Openness to experience show less negative emotions in response to organisational change.

Neuroticism (N) describes employees as worrying, nervous and anxious. Individuals high on N are amenable to experience negative emotions, like depression, anxiety, or anger and tend to be

impulsive and self-conscious (McCrae and Costa, 1986; Lee-Baggley et al., 2005). Because the introduction of organisational change is usually associated with increased stress levels and insecurity among employees, Neuroticism is, unlike the previous dimensions, said to be positively linked with negative attitudes towards change (McCrae and Costa, 1986; Vakola et al., 2004). Based on the previous facts, we expect that higher scores on N are associated with less positive and more negative emotions in response to change.

H_{6a}: People with higher levels of Neuroticism show less positive emotions in response to organisational change.

H_{6b}: People with higher levels of Neuroticism show more negative emotions in response to organisational change.

These ten hypotheses about the relation between the independent variable personality and the dependent variable emotion can be summarised in the following figure:

Figure 3.3: Hypotheses 2 - 6
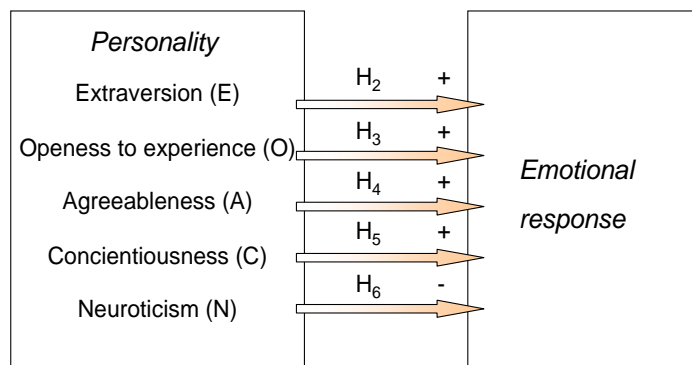
In addition to testing these hypotheses on personality and emotion, the statistical analysis also aims to identify and discuss which specific personality trait has the strongest relationship with resistance to change.

3.3.   The role of emotions in resistance to change

In the conceptual framework we presented emotion as the mediating variable since it is theorised to influence the relationship between the independent variables personality and organisational change

and the dependent variable resistance to change. It is predicted that emotion, as an intervening variable, will impact upon the relation between personality and organisational change on the one hand and resistance to change on the other hand.

In paragraph 3.2 it was stated that the more individuals are amenable to experience negative emotions the higher the chance that they will proceed in resistance to change. The more they tend to experience positive emotions, the less likely they are to proceed in resistance to change. Negative emotions are thus positively related to resistance to change, while positive emotions are negatively related to resistance to change and instead positively related to positive attitudes (support) towards change. Therefore, we expect that when the emotions of an individual evoked by the change are negative, this individual is likely to resist the change; when, on the contrary, the emotions in response to the change are positive, no resistance, but a positive response (support) towards the change will follow. We expect that this is the case for both active and passive resistance and active and passive support.

H_7: People with positive emotions show active support to change.

H_8: People with positive emotions show passive support to change.

H_9: People with negative emotions show active resistance to change.

H_{10}: People with negative emotions show passive resistance to change.

These four hypotheses regarding the relation between emotion and resistance can be summarised in the following figure, with resistance to change as the dependent and emotions as the independent variable:

Figure 3.4: Hypotheses 7a-7d
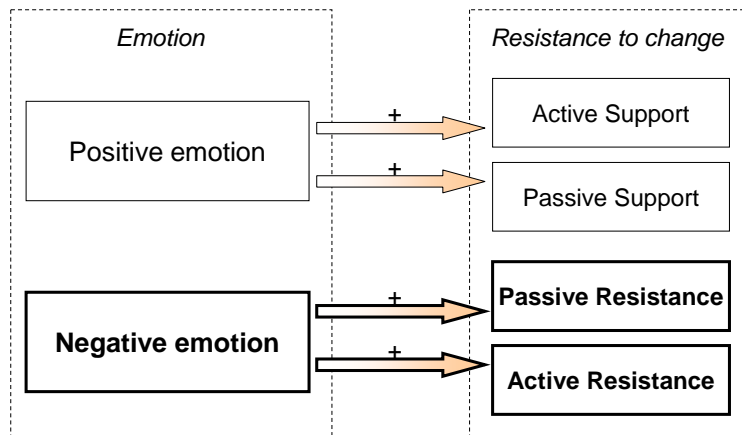
The complete set of hypotheses given in this paragraph forms the basis for the empirical research and the conclusions of this thesis. How we approached the empirical research is described in the next chapter.

4.   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapters we reviewed the literature on organisational change, resistance to change, emotion and personality and based on this we created an conceptual framework. In this chapter we focus on the empirical research. This chapter describes the methods used to collect and analyse the empirical data to provide the answers to the research problem. The methodology and methods of a research are dependent on the paradigm adopted. There are two main paradigms in business research: the positivistic and the phenomenological paradigm. Paragraph 4.1 explains what research approach and paradigm is used in this research and why. Paragraph 4.2 describes the data sources and collection methods that are used in the empirical research. Next, the operationalisation of the concepts of interest is explained along with the manner in which the data is analysed.

4.1   Research Paradigm

This study provides insight to the factors responsible for resistance to change. In the previous chapters, theories on resistance to change, emotions, and personality have been investigated and resulted in the creation of the conceptual framework. The purpose is now to test the framework and the hypotheses deduced from it against empirical evidence. Therefore, this study is conducted in the field. To generate understanding of the factors responsible for resistance to change, we need to examine and measure people's reactions to change. This is best done by using a quantitative approach that concentrates on measuring phenomena and is more objective in nature than, the more subjective, qualitative approach (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

According to Hussey and Hussey (1997) a positivistic paradigm is associated with a quantitative data collection method and analysis and a phenomenological paradigm is associated with a qualitative approach. From this and the facts given above we can state that this research can be categorised under the positivistic research paradigm using a quantitative approach. The positivistic paradigm is based on the approach used in natural sciences. The belief is that the study of human behaviour should be conducted in the same way as studies conducted in natural sciences. Positivists seek the facts or causes of social phenomena, with little regard to the individuals' subjective state. Logical reasoning is applied to the research, and as such, precision, objectivity and rigour replace hunches, experience, and intuition as the means of investigating research problems.

The choice for a positivistic paradigm has several effects. First of all, concerning reliability, a positivistic paradigm focuses on the precision of measurement and the ability to repeat the research and is therefore much easier to replicate than a phenomenological research. Since the extent to which the research is replicable and the research findings can be repeated determines the reliability of a research (Yin, 1994), the reliability of a positivistic research is usually high. If a different researcher would replicate this research by following the same procedures and using the same questionnaire, the same findings would indeed be found. Therefore, the reliability of this research is high.

Concerning validity, a positivistic paradigm always has the danger of a low validity, whether under a phenomenological paradigm the validity is usually high. The validity is the extent to which the findings of a research accurately represent what is really happening in the situation (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). A phenomenological paradigm is aimed at capturing the essence of a phenomenon and generating data that is rich in its explanation and analysis. A positivistic paradigm, on the other hand, focuses on the precision of measurement and the ability to repeat the research reliably and therefore there is always a danger that the validity is low (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). The methods and theories used in this research are however frequently used and tested by prominent researchers (e.g. McCrae and Costa, 1986; Lazarus, 1991) and therefore the danger of low validity in this research is confined. The extent to which the findings of this research are generalisable is higher than in phenomenological research. Generalisability is the extent to which conclusions can be made about one thing based on information about another (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). This is what Yin (1994) calls the external validity of a research. As a result of the quantitative approach of this research, the empirical findings are based on a broad sample of respondents. We are confident in stating that the characteristics or results found in this sample are present in the whole population and so the generalisability of this research is high.

Within positivistic studies a further distinction can be made between cross-sectional studies, experimental studies, longitudinal studies, and surveys (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). A survey is described as a methodology whereby a sample of subjects is drawn from a population and studied to make inferences about the whole population (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). This research investigates a sample of individuals with different personalities and emotions in their reactions to organisational change with the purpose to get insight in how different people involved in organisational change should be managed. Therefore we can state that the technique we use in this research is the survey. Additionally, a survey comprehends a large amount of randomly chosen research units, with which

the aim is to generate a wide overview of the field in question Verschuren and Doorewaard, 2003). Accordingly, a survey focuses more on width and generalisability rather than on depth and specificity.

4.2   Data collection method and sources

4.2.1   Data collection method

For the empirical research which tests the hypotheses presented in chapter three, data has to be collected from the field. In the area of personality, emotions, and resistance to change there are many researchers that used questionnaires as data collection method. Among these are Vakola et al. (2004) in exploring the role of emotional intelligence and personality variables on attitudes toward organisational change, Bovey and Hede (2001) in their research on how human elements including cognitive and affective processes are associated with an individual's level of resistance to organisational change, and Mossholder et al. (2000) in their study on the relationship between emotions during organisational transformations and job attitudes. These researchers all decided to use questionnaires in order to collect the data needed since the questionnaire is an efficient way to collect data for specific variables of interest (Bovey and Hede, 2001; Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

The purpose of this research is to generate understanding of the factors responsible for resistance to change. The variables of interest are the personality of an individual, the emotions of an individual evoked by a particular organisational change, and their behavioural intentions as a consequence of these emotions. Since the aim of a questionnaire is to find out what a selected group of individuals, think, feel, or do (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Verschuren and Doorewaard, 2003) and it makes it possible to reach a large amount of people, the most appropriate data collection method in this research is the questionnaire. Furthermore, a questionnaire also provides anonymity for respondents who are anxious to reveal information about themselves or, as is the case in this research, about their reactions to or feelings about change.

4.2.2   Research material

To measure the personality, emotions and behavioural intentions to resist change we designed a questionnaire that consists of three parts. The first part measures the personality of the respondent. After this first part, the second part starts with a short scenario of a change relevant to the respondents, which the respondents have to imagine and keep in mind when answering the rest of

the questions. First, the respondents are asked to grade the change as either positive or negative. Then the respondents' emotion and emotion intensity in reaction to the proposed change are measured. Following on this it is asked how the respondents believe they would react following on the proposed change. Here the respondents' behavioural intentions to resist to the 'proposed' change are measured. In the third part the procedure of part two is repeated, but a different change scenario is given. Finally, the respondents are asked to rate the given changes in terms of size, affect, radicalism, and complexity to measure the impact of the change on the respondents.

To be able to receive insight to the emotions and behavioural intentions of the employees in response to the presented change, we used the scenario method in the questionnaire. The scenario method makes it possible to obtain insight in a specific subject, its context, and the consequences for the people involved. Scenarios are plausible stories about the future, which are in this case about a change in the organisation in which the respondents are employed. With these changes in mind, the participants had to fill in the questions. The subject of the first scenario is a merger between Erasmus University Rotterdam and 'Hogeschool Rotterdam' due to economy measures. The first-order version of this scenario proposes that the two organisations each hold their own rules and procedures, but that they will jointly use the buildings and facilities. This for example implies that lectures of the Erasmus University are given in a lecture room of the 'Hogeschool Rotterdam' and vice versa. The second-order version of this scenario proposes that due to the economy measures the employees of both organisations are subsumed in the same building and the rules and procedures are also adjusted. On top of this, all departments have to reduce the number of members with 20%, which means that a lot of people are going to get fired. The subject of the second scenario is an increase in working hours of the faculty members. This due to a decision of the board that students need more personal attention from their teachers. In case of the first-order version of this scenario this is accomplished by reducing the work groups to eight students only implying temporarily more work, since new teachers are hired as soon as possible. In case of the second-order version the board decided to drastically change the structure of education. This new structure implies that teachers from now on have to spend more time with their students and additionally get several new time consuming tasks for which they have to follow a training. In this case the job thus becomes much more time consuming.

Consistent with the description of a first-order change given in chapter two, the first-order scenarios are minor and low-scope in nature. They involve no major shift in the way the organisation operates, but a small change that alters certain small aspects, keeping the general working

framework and looking for an improvement in the present situation. The second-order scenarios are more radical in nature; they are about a major shift in the strategy of the organisation, involving many different levels of the organisation and many different aspects of the business. This also is consistent to the description of a second-order change given in chapter two.

Dependent on the different change scenarios and the order in which they are presented in the questionnaire, four kinds of questionnaires were distributed. One half of the questionnaires gives two examples of a first-order change (the first-order versions of scenario one and two) and the other half gives two examples of a second-order change (the second-order versions of scenario one and two). The different questionnaires were randomly distributed among the faculty members. The purpose of distributing these two kinds of questionnaires is to find out whether there exist differences in the reactions to change depending on the kind of change (first-order / second-order), as hypothesised in chapter three. To avoid bias in the results due to differences in the first- and second- order changes other than the intensity of the change as described above, the subject of the first-order change and the corresponding second-order change is similar, only differing in terms of impact. So, the examples of changes in scenario 1 (and thus a first- and a second-order change) have the same subject, but only differ in terms of impact. This also holds for scenario 2. Also, in order to avoid sequence effects, the order in which the changes are presented in the questionnaires is randomised. Moreover, the respondents are not informed about the kind of changes proposed in their questionnaire.

Before the questionnaires were distributed, we first conducted a pilot to find out whether the change scenarios were effective to the respondents and whether the presented variance in intensity of change were adequate enough to result in the desired effect. To give any effect, the scenarios had to be relevant to the employees of the RSM Erasmus University. Furthermore, the first-order version of the specific scenario had to give a smaller effect than the second-order version of the specific scenario, but the smaller effect still had to be measurable. The first pilot gave a quite significant result, but some improvements were desirable. Therefore, a second pilot was conducted. The independent variables of the pilot were change (first-order and second-order) and scenario (scenario one and scenario two). The dependent variables to measure the impact of the specific changes were size, affect, radicalism, and complexity. The results of the second pilot showed that there was a significant difference between the first-order change and the second-order change and between the two scenarios. Pillai's trace was .62 for change with a significance of .00 and .28 for scenario with a significance of .02 (see table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Multivariate Tests pilot 2

Effect		Value	F	Sig.
Change	Pillai's Trace	,615	13,185	,000
Scenario	Pillai's Trace	,284	3,276	,023

When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, all the dependent variables reached statistical significance for the independent variable change (see table 4.2). In consideration of these results, we decided to use the change scenarios of the second pilot for the scenarios in the final questionnaire.

Table 4.2: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Pilot 2

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of 2s	Mean 2	F	Sig.
Change	Size	18,225	18,225	25,729	,000
	Affect	34,225	34,225	46,848	,000
	Radicalism	19,600	19,600	33,600	,000
	Complexity	11,025	11,025	14,125	,001

4.2.2 Participants

The participants in the questionnaire were sixty-six teaching faculty members of the RSM Erasmus University. They were all lecturers from one of the seven departments that the RSM Erasmus University holds, which was either the department of Strategy and Business Environment, the department of Decision and Information Sciences, the department of Financial Management, the department of Management of Technology and Innovation, the department of Organization and Personnel management, the department of Business and Society Management, or the department of Marketing Management. The respondents were of all ages, with some only recently employed at the RSM Erasmus University and others for a longer period. The sample included male and female faculty members.

4.2.3 Procedure

For distributing the questionnaires, we approached the faculty members by coming by the offices off all the faculty members, and if present, asking the particular person whether he or she was

willing to participate in our research by filling in the questionnaire. They were informed that all data would be treated as confidential. When a faculty member was interested in filling in a questionnaire, a paper version of the questionnaire was handed over. If preferred, the questionnaire was sent by email. The different questionnaires were randomly distributed among the faculty members. After two days, eighty-five faculty members were approached and asked to complete the survey within one and a halve week. By handing over the questionnaire, we made the announcement (which was also on the front page of the questionnaire) that we would either come by their office after this time period to collect the completed questionnaire or that they could return the completed surveys by internal mail. There was no reward for completing the questionnaire, but if desired, the respondents could write down their email-address to receive a copy of the final results of the research.

4.2.3 Measures

The personality of the respondents is measured by using the five factor model of personality. The most widely used and extensively validated measure of this five factor model is the 240-item NEO Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO-PI-R; Costa and McCrae, 1992). To make the questionnaire more manageable, we made, like other researchers (e.g. Paunonen, 2003) a selection out of these 240 items, giving quicker, but still reliable and valid measures of the five dimensions. In the NEO-PI-R each of the five factors is subdivided into six facets, or defining traits. The facets for each dimension are: Neuroticism – anxiety, angry hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability; Extraversion – warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, excitement seeking, and positive emotions; Openness to experience – fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas, and values; Agreeableness – trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness; Conscientiousness – competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation (Judge and Bono, 2000). In our research, we measure each dimension with five items based on the previous facets, summing up to a total of thirty items (see appendix A). On each of these items, the participants respond on a five-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (5). To help prevent response set, we use a mix of positively and negatively formulated items. To ensure that all items are scored so that high scores indicate high levels, the scores on the negatively worded items are reversed before the data is analysed.

The emotion in response to the change is measured by asking the participants to indicate the emotions they experienced and the degree or intensity of the experienced emotion. The participants

responded on a five-point scale ranging from 'not at all' (1) to 'very much' (5). The kinds of emotions are derived from the theory in chapter two. Only four of the six main categories of emotion presented in chapter two are given in the questionnaire; the other two, love and surprise, do not apply to the subject of this research and are therefore left out. From each of the four main emotions, two forms are given. Due to the fact that there is only one positive main emotion, the number of positive emotions given in the questionnaire is two, while for the negative ones there are six (see appendix A).

Finally, resistance to change is measured by asking the respondents to fill in their likelihood of behaving in the presented behavioural intentions towards the change. The questions are designed to measure both support and resistance behaviour and were constructed from key words derived from the dimensions given in paragraph 2.2. The questions consists of sixteen items (ten positive and six negative) and ask the respondents to rate the extent to which they agree with each item on a five-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (5) . An example of a positive item is "I embrace the change". An example of a negative item is "I refuse to accept the change". This dependent variable measures the intentions of an individual to engage in supportive, passively resistant, and actively resistant behaviour towards organisational change. A complete overview of the measures and items can be found in the questionnaire which is enclosed in appendix A.

In the next chapter we elaborate on the results of the empirical research.

5.   RESULTS

This chapter presents the statistical analyses and results of the empirical research. Paragraph 5.1 describes the manipulation check that had to be done before further analyses. Paragraph 5.2 describes the sample that participated in the questionnaire. Next, paragraph 5.3 gives the properties of the measure. Here the reliability of the scales used in the measure is checked. After decided whether or not to remove some of the items, we could then start with the investigation of the hypotheses. The results of the analyses of Hypothesis one, Hypotheses two to six, and Hypotheses seven and eight are given in respectively paragraph 5.4, paragraph 5.5. and paragraph 5.6. Finally, paragraph 5.7 analyses whether emotion is indeed the mediating variable between the independent variables personality and change and the dependent variable resistance to change.

5.1   Manipulation check

Before we started to analyse the results, we first checked whether what we presented as a first- and second- order change was also experienced as a first-order or second-order change by the respondents. Therefore, we conducted a one way between groups analysis of variance to explore the impact of the organizational change on total impact perceived by the respondents. Given the fact that second-order changes score higher on size, affect, radicalism, and complexity than first-order changes, the mean scores of total impact should be larger for second-order change than for first-order change. This was indeed the case for both scenarios, but only for the first scenario this difference was statistically significant (impact 1: p=.00, impact 2: p=.26). This convinced us to skip the results of the second scenario and to proceed with only the results in response to the first scenario. Since this was calculated in when designing the questionnaire, this is not a problem for further analysis.

5.2   Sample

To measure the personality, emotions and behavioural intentions to resist we designed a questionnaire that we distributed among the (teaching) faculty members of the RSM Erasmus University. The faculty members were male or female and differed in age, tenure and department employed. They were informed that all data would be treated as confidential. The total number of questionnaires distributed is 85, of which 66 are returned, giving a response rate of 78%. Of the

returned questionnaires 32 questionnaires included first-order changes (48,5%) and 34 (51,5%) included second-order changes.

The mean age of the respondents is 33, with a minimum of 23 and a maximum of 58 years. The mean tenure of the respondents is 5,5 years, with a minimum of 0,5 an a maximum of 30 years.

Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics Sample

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	60	23	58	32,7	9,05
Tenure	60	0,5	30	5,6	6,31

In the sample there are 49 males (73,8 %) and 17 females (26,2 %) (see table 5.2), which is consistent with the total number of teaching males (177 = 76,3%) and females (55 = 23,7%) employed in the RSM Erasmus University (Erasmus University, Annual Report 2004).

Table 5.2: Frequency table gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	48	73,8
Female	17	26,2
Total	65	100,0

The majority of the respondents is employed at the department of Strategy and Business Environment (37,5%), 14,1% at the department of Decision and Information Sciences, 10,9% at the department of Financial Management, also 10,9% at the department of Management of Technology and Innovation, 9,4% at both the department of Organisation and Personnel management and the department of Business and Society Management, and 7,8% at the department of Marketing Management (see table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Frequency table departments

Department	Frequency	Valid Percent
Decision & Information Sciences	9	14,1
Organisation & Personnel Management	6	9,4
Marketing Management	5	7,8
Strategy and Business Environment	24	37,5
Financial Management	7	10,9
Management of Technology & Innovation	7	10,9
Business & Society Management	6	9,4
Total	64	100,0

5.3   Properties of the measures

Before testing the hypotheses, we started with the initial data screening process using SPSS for Windows 11.0. We checked the data for outliers, but no extreme values well above or well below the majority of the cases were found. Accordingly, no observations were removed. Next, we checked the reliability of the scales used in the questionnaire. This is particularly important in survey research and studies that involve the use of scales to measure for example personality characteristics, attitudes, and beliefs (Pallant, 2001). The reliability of the scale refers to the scale's internal consistency, which is the degree to which the items that make up the scale 'hang together' and measure the same construct (Pallant, 2001). First we made sure that the fifteen negatively worded items in the scale of personality were reversed, since we used a mix of positively and negatively formulated items in this section to help prevent response set (Pallant, 2001). Then, we used principal component analysis (PCA) complemented with reliability analysis to determine the reliability of the scales. Onto the six items measuring the characteristic Neuroticism, two items were removed (N1 and N2). The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value, which measures the sampling adequacy, was .647 after removing N1 and N2, exceeding the recommended value of .600 (Pallant, 2001). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .59, which does not exceed the recommended value of .7 to be considered reliable, but since 'Alpha if item deleted' gave no higher values, this was the highest possible value. Of the six items measuring Extraversion, only one item (E6) was removed (KMO = .753, alpha =.77 (>.7)). The PCA of the six items of Openness to experience revealed the presence of two components (O1, O2, O4, O6 and O3, O5). Based on the content of the items and the higher values for KMO and Cronbach's alpha, we chose to remove the four items and to keep O3 and O5, giving a KMO value of .5 and a Cronbach's alpha of .69. The six items measuring

Agreeableness gave no decisive internal consistency. Therefore, we chose, on the basis of the content of the items, one item (A3) to measure Agreeableness. Of the six items measuring Conscientiousness we removed three items (C1, C4, and C5). The remaining items (C2, C3, and C6) gave a KMO value of .666 and a Cronbach's alpha of .6658. Two of the eight items measuring emotion measure positive emotion and six items measure negative emotion. The KMO value of negative emotion was .872 (>.7) and alpha was .91 for negative emotion and .89 for positive emotion. Accordingly, this scale is reliable and no items had to be removed. Onto the five items measuring passive resistance we first removed one item (KMO = .695, alpha = .79). Further analysis however revealed than when PR4 was also removed both the KMO value and Cronbach's alpha increased to .71 and .81 respectively. This in combination with the content analysis of the item made us decide to remove both items. The five items measuring active resistance gave a KMO value of .816 and a Cronbach's alpha of .88, indicating that the scale is reliable. The scales of both passive support (KMO = .734, alpha = .91) and active support (KMO = .727, alpha = .94) were also reliable. The scales measuring the total impact (size, affect, impact, and complexity) were also reliable, giving a KMO of .802 and alpha of .92. After checking the reliability of the scale and removing some of the items, we calculated the total scores of the scales. This led to five total scores for personality (N,E,O,A,C), four total scores for emotion (positive and negative for the two scenarios), eight total scores for active and passive resistance and support (four for each scenario), and two total scores for impact (impact scenario 1, and impact scenario 2). Further analyses were done with these total scores. The following page gives the correlation table of the variables to be further investigated and the Cronbach's Alphas of the variables.

Table 5.1: Correlations table

	change	N	E	O	A	C	Pos.1	Neg.1	Pos.2	Neg.2	PR	AR	PS	AS	Age	Imp.1	Imp.2	Psn-1	Psn-2
Mean		9,92	17,52	6,94	3,58	9,97	3,83	14,91	5,35	12,55	8,15	10,24	9,95	6,67	32,7	13,89	14,22	2,36	3,12
SD		2,98	3,41	1,92	0,84	2,33	1,89	6,71	2,02	5,40	3,50	4,75	3,17	3,12	9,0	5,32	3,36	1,37	1,20
1. Change	-																		
2. Neuroticism	-.02	.59																	
3. Extraversion	.09	-.32*	.77																
4. Openness	-.06	-.22	-.44**	.69															
5. Agreeableness	.02	.21	-.09	-.24*	-														
6. Conscientiousness	-.12	-.20	.31*	-.18	.16	.67													
7. Positive emotions-1	-.31*	-.01	.14	.20	.14	.15	.89												
8. Negative emotions-1	.52*	.14	-.15	-.22	-.04	-.13	-.23	.91											
9. Positive emotions-2	.29*	.18	-.07	.05	.10	-.18	-.09	.41*	.89										
10. Negative emotions-2	.02	.06	-.08	-.04	-.06	-.14	.31*	.10	-.35**	.91									
11. Passive resistance	.40**	.18	-.15	-.17	-.05	-.21	-.25*	.66**	.17	.21	.79								
12. Active resistance	.48**	.11	-.10	-.12	-.17	-.12	-.24*	.78**	.29*	.19	.55**	.90							
13. Passive support	-.32**	-.10	.19	.25*	.15	.09	.36*	-.53**	-.17	-.07	-.37*	-.69**	.91						
14. Active support	-.42**	-.08	.26*	.27*	.16	.16	.62**	-.60**	-.15	.01	-.58**	-.55**	.73**	.94					
15. Age	.09	.08	-.12	.01	-.11	.11	-.11	.17	.12	-.03	-.01	.30*	-.32*	-.16	-				
16. Total impact-1	.73**	.04	-.04	-.04	-.03	-.17	-.32*	.68**	.27*	.02	.55**	.60**	-.40**	-.49**	.12	α.92			
17. Total Impact-2	.13	.03	.11	.10	-.07	.03	-.09	-.09	.03	.22	.08	.04	.12	.04	.05	.09	.91		
18. Position-1	-.66**	-.02	.13	.21	-.08	.12	.42**	-.74**	-.31*	.03	-.58**	-.63**	.50**	.69**	-.10	-.74**	.09	-	
20. Position-2	.05	.08	-.03	.04	.02	.11	-.16	.23	.64**	-.67**	-.03	.01	-.10	-.05	.06	.13	-.09	-.12	-

*** The diagonal shows the Cronbach's Alpha's
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

5.4   Organisational change and emotion

The first relationship / hypothesis we investigated was the one between organisational change and emotion. We stated in chapter three that organisational change evokes emotional responses among the employees, and that second-order change evokes a stronger emotional response than first-order change. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. We conducted a one-way between groups (first-order vs. second-order) analysis of variance to explore the impact of organisational change on emotion. We first tested the assumption of homogeneity of variance. The significance value for Levene's test was only for positive emotions smaller than .05, indicating a violation of the assumption. However, this is not a problem since the size of the groups is almost equal (Pallant, 2001, p. 172). The results gave a statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level in the scores of both positive emotions ($p=.01$) and negative emotions ($p=.00$). We hypothesized in H_1: *Second-order change evokes stronger emotional response than first-order change.* The mean score of *negative emotions* in response to second-order change was indeed significantly higher than the scores in response to first-order change (M first-order = 11,4, M second-order =18,2, $p<.05$, see table 5.2). This confirms H1: second-order change evokes stronger (*negative)* emotional response than first-order change. However, the mean score of *positive* emotion in response to second-order change was 3,3, whilst for first-order change it was 4,4 (see table 5.2). This rejects H_1: second-order change does not evoke stronger (*positive*) emotional response than first-order change.

Table 5.2: Results analysis of variance change - emotions

Emotion (dependent variable)	Change (independent variable)	Mean score	Sign. Between groups
Positive emotions	First-order	4,4375	.011*
	Second-order	3,2647	
Negative emotions	First-order	11,3750	.000*
	Second-order	18,2353	

* significant at the 0.05 level

5.5   Personality and emotion

To explore the impact of personality on emotion we conducted two multiple regressions (see table 5.3 for the relevant results). Based on the hypotheses considering the relation between personality and emotion, the following questions had to be explored: 1) Are Extraversion, Agreeableness, Openness to experience, and Conscientiousness indeed positively related to positive emotions and negatively related with negative emotions, and so the higher individuals score on these characteristics, the more positive and less negative their emotions in response to organisational change?; 2) Is Neuroticism indeed negatively related to positive emotions and positively related to negative emotions, and so the higher individuals score on Neuroticism, the less positive and the more negative their emotions in response change?

Controlling for the effect of change on emotion, we used a hierarchical stepwise multiple regression. We checked, after controlling for the effect of change on emotion, whether and which of the personality characteristics are able to predict a significant amount of the variance in positive and negative emotion. In the results of the regression, the collinearity diagnostics showed that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated (the results of the hierarchical stepwise regression are given in table 5.3).

We first conducted the hierarchical stepwise multiple regression with positive emotions as the dependent variable. The results showed one model, indicating that besides change there is no personality variable that has a significant additional contribution in explaining positive emotion. Next, we conducted a stepwise multiple regression with negative emotions as the dependent variable. The results showed two models, indicating that besides change, there is one personality characteristic that significantly contributes to emotion. The R^2 of model 1, indicating how much of the variance in the dependent variable emotion is explained by model 1 (change), was .27. Change thus explains 26,5 % of the variance in negative emotions ($p<.01$). Model 2 includes (hierarchically) the personality variable extraversion, meaning that extraversion also has a significant contribution in explaining emotion ($R^2 = .31$, $p<.1$). The score of ΔR^2 of .04 shows that Extraversion explains a significant additional 4,1% of the variance in negative emotions. The beta of Extraversion was -.20 ($p= .06$), indicating that Extraversion is negatively related with negative emotions. This confirms H_{2b}: The higher an individual scores on Extraversion, the less negative his emotions in response to organisational change.

Second, we checked whether the personality variables interact with change and whether this gives a significant outcome. This was done by adding the interaction variables in the regression analysis. However, there was no significant outcome, indicating that there is no significant interaction between change and personality on emotion.

Table 5.3: Results (betas) of stepwise regression Personality / Change – emotion

	Positive emotion	Negative emotion	
		Model 1	*Model 2*
Change	-.31*	.52**	.53**
Neuroticism	-		-
Extraversion	-		-.20*
Openness	-		-
Agreeableness	-		-
Conscientiousness	-		-
Neuroticism x Change	-		-
Extraversion x Change	-		-
Openness x Change	-		-
Agreeableness x Change	-		-
Conscientiousness x Change	-		-
R²	.097	.265	.306
Δ *R²*	.097*	.265**	.041*
Anova sig.	.011	.000	.000

* significant at the 0.10 level
** significant at the 0.01 level

5.6   Emotion and resistance to change

To explore the impact of emotion on resistance to change we conducted several multiple regressions. Based on the hypotheses considering the relation between emotion and change, the following questions had to be explored H_{7-10}: Show people with positive emotions passive and active support and people with negative emotions passive and active resistance? Given that we measure the behavioural intentions to resist by dividing it into passive resistance, active resistance, passive support and active support, we had to conduct four regression analyses. First of all, the

collinearity diagnostics showed that the value of Tolerance were very high (>.945), indicating a low multiple correlation with other variables. The R_2 was .616 for active resistance. Positive and negative emotion thus explain 61,6% of the variance in active resistance. For passive resistance, active support and passive support this was respectively 44,7%, 60,3% and 33,9%. In all cases the results were statistical significant (see table 5.4 for an overview of the results).

The questions whether people with positive emotions show passive and active support and people with negative emotions show passive and active resistance we can answer by looking at the betas of positive and negative emotions under the different reactions towards change. Given the fact that both in the cases of passive and active support the beta of positive emotions is significant and that this value was positive (.51 and .25), we can state that positive emotions are indeed positively related to passive and active support. Also, given the fact that both in the cases of passive and active resistance the beta of negative emotion was significant and that this value was positive and not negative (.77 and .64), we can state that negative emotions are indeed positively related to passive and active resistance to change. This can also be concluded when we look at the correlations between the variables. Here we can see that positive emotion indeed correlates positively (p> .05) with active and passive support and that negative emotion, as opposed to positive emotion, indeed significantly correlates positively with both active and passive resistance. This confirms the hypotheses.

Table 5.4: Results of regression analysis emotion-resistance

	Active Resistance	Passive Resistance	Active Support	Passive Support
Positive emotion	-.063	-.103	.508**	.247*
Negative emotion	.768**	.637**	-.481**	-.473**
R²	.616**	.447**	.603**	.339**
Anova sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000

* significant at the 0.05 level
** significant at the 0.01 level

To find out which specific emotions are mainly responsible for resistance to change, we conducted an additional stepwise regression analysis, with the different forms of emotions presented in the questionnaire as the independent variables. The results showed that with a beta of .566 and .347 of respectively anger and alarm, these are the emotions that are mainly responsible for inducing active resistance. Alarm (beta = .544) and disappointment (beta = .304) are the emotions that have the

largest significant contribution in explaining passive resistance. For passive support this is irritation (-.484) and happiness (.270), and for active support cheerfulness (.507) and irritation (-.430).

Table 5.5: Results of stepwise regression individual emotions

	Active resistance		Passive resistance		Passive support		Active support	
	Model 1	*Model 2*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*
Happy	-	-	-	-	-	.270*	-	-
Cheerful	-	-	-	-	-	-	.629**	.507**
Irritated	-	-	-	-	-.537**	-.484**	-	-430**
Angry	.749**	.566**	-	-	-	-	-	-
Afraid	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Disappointed	-	-	-	.304*	-	-	-	-
Worried / alarm	-	.347**	.703**	.544**	-	-	-	-
Sad	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
R²	.749**	.805**	.703**	.749**	.537**	.598**	.629**	.753**
Anova sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

* significant at the 0.05 level
** significant at the 0.01 level

5.7   Emotion as the mediating variable

In the previous paragraphs, we looked at the separate relations between two variables, organisational change on emotions and emotions on resistance to change. However, what we actually propose, as can be seen in the conceptual framework, is that emotion is the mediating variable between organisational change and resistance to change. We thus have to look at the relation of organisational change on emotions influencing resistance to change. Therefore, now we have found that organisational change influences emotion and that emotion influences resistance to change, we have to find out whether emotion acts as a mediating variable between organisational change and emotion. This can be done by: firstly checking whether the relation between organisational change and emotion is significant; secondly checking whether the relation between organisational change and resistance to change and between emotions and resistance to change is significant; and finally checking whether the relation between organisational change and resistance to change weakens or disappears when emotion is added in the mode.

The results showed that the relation between organisational change and emotion is indeed significant. With both a significant Beta of -.31 (p=.01) for positive emotion and .52 (p=.00) for negative emotion, the contribution of organisational change in explaining emotion is statistically significant. Second, significant betas of .48 for active resistance, .40 for passive resistance, -.32 for passive support, and -.42 for active support (see table 5.5 under model 1), we can conclude that organisational change indeed has a significant contribution to explaining active and passive resistance and active and passive support. Considering the relation between emotions and resistance to change, it turns out that positive emotion only has a significant contribution in explaining active and passive support and not in explaining resistance. Positive emotion is thus not the mediating factor between organisational change and resistance to change. Negative emotion, however, has a significant contribution to explaining active and passive resistance and active and passive support. For the significant contributions in explaining both emotion and resistance to change, we have to check whether the contribution of organisational change to resistance to change stays intact (significant) when we add emotion in the model. In all cases, the betas of change turned out to be not significant anymore in model 2 (see table 5.5). The contribution of organisational change in explaining resistance to change diminished / disappeared when emotions was added in the model. From this we can conclude that, except for positive emotions in passive and active resistance, emotion is indeed the mediating factor between organisational change and support / resistance to change. The results of the hierarchical regression of change and emotion on support and resistance to change is given in table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Results of hierarchical regression analysis change / emotion on resistance to change

	Active resistance		Passive resistance		Passive support		Active support	
	Model 1	*Model 2*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*
Change	.475**	.086	.400**	.058	-.322**	-.003	-.415**	-.013
Positive emotion		-.045		-.091		.246*		.505**
Negative emotion		.727**		.610**		-.471**		-.475**
R²	.225**	.621**	.160**	.449**	.104**	.339**	.172**	.603**
Δ *R²*		.395**		.289**		.235**		.431**

* significant at the 0.05 level
** significant at the 0.01 level

6.   DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this thesis we tried to increase insight in the factors that determine reactions to change. We focused on both personality and emotion in relation to resistance to change and proposed that these three subjects are interrelated. We stated that organisational change evokes emotions in employees and that these emotions are dependent on the impact of the change and the personality of the specific employee. Together these factors determine the reaction towards the change. Furthermore, we investigated what kind of organisational change and type of personality and emotions are most likely to evoke resistance to change. We did this by questioning employees of the RSM Erasmus University about their personality and emotional and behavioural responses to a certain change. Based on the findings, conclusions can be drawn about what kind of organisational change and type of personality give rise to support or resistance to change. This provides insight into how different people react to different forms of organisational change and can therefore serve as a guideline for managers on how to introduce organisational change to its employees in a way that minimises resistance. In paragraph 6.1 the main subjects of this thesis and the hypotheses are discussed. Paragraph 6.2 discusses the conclusion of the thesis. Paragraph 6.3 gives the implications and finally paragraph 6.4 discusses the limitations of this study and the suggestions for future research.

6.1   Discussion of the results

In chapter three we proposed that the reaction to change is determined by emotions evoked by the change and that these emotions are dependent on the personality of the employee and the kind of organisational change. Here, emotion was presented as the mediating variable between organisational change and resistance to change and between personality and resistance to change. To investigate the proposition, we subdivided it in the partial relations and proposed for each relation one or several hypotheses. The first part of the proposition we investigated was the **affect of organisational change on individuals' emotions**. We stated that the intensity of emotions depends on the kind of organisational change and divided organisational change in first- and second-order change. First-order changes are minor, low scope changes. Second-order changes are radical, revolutionary changes. The first hypothesis was defined as: *Second-order change evokes a stronger emotional response than first-order change.* Given the higher expected impact of second-order changes, we suggested that second-order change elicits more intensive (stronger) emotions than first-order change. The results showed that *negative* emotions are stronger in response to second-order change than in response to first-order change. This confirms H1: second-order change

evokes stronger (*negative)* emotional response than first-order change. However, *positive* emotions are not stronger in response to second-order change than in response to first-order change. Instead, positive emotions are stronger in response to first-order change. This can, however, be explained by the results of the one-way between groups (first-order vs. second-order) analysis of variance of change and the respondents' attitude (positive or negative) against the change. These results showed that the respondents valued the first-order change scenario more positive than the second-order change scenario. As such, positive emotions in response to first-order change should indeed be stronger than in response to second-order change. In our case the first-order change thus evoked less negative and more positive emotions and the second-order change evoked more negative and less positive emotions. Second-order changes are experienced as more negative and therefore evoke stronger negative emotions and weaker positive emotions. This is in accordance with what we expected on the basis of the literature. We stated in chapter three that, according to Huy (1999), a radical, second-order organisational change causes a pervasive redistribution of power and resources and challenges employees' basic assumptions about the nature of the organisation. Schein (1992) adds that this attacks the employees' core identity and therefore triggers strong defence mechanisms, like anxiety and defensiveness. Second-order organisational change is in itself thus experienced as a negative situation and therefore evokes negative emotions. We feel not threatened unless the environment is refractory to our wants (Lazarus, 1991) and, as we can conclude based on our findings, the larger the change, the more it is refractory to our wants and the more the change is experienced as negative. As a consequence of this, stronger negative emotions arise. Accordingly, in case of second-order change, more negative and less positive emotions are evoked than in case of first-order change and as such, second-order change evokes stronger negative emotions and weaker positive emotions than first-order change.

The second part of the proposition we investigated was the **role of personality in emotions**. As we stated in chapter three, change is experienced in different ways by different people. Therefore, we expected that the feelings or emotions that employees experience in response to organisational change are influenced by personality. Considering the Big five dimensions of personality, we expected that the personality characteristics Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience are positively related to positive emotions and negatively related to negative emotions and that, on the contrary, Neuroticism is negatively related to positive emotions and positively related to negative emotions. The results showed that there was only one personality characteristic that was significantly related to emotions. Extraversion is negatively related to negative emotions. This confirms *H_{2b}: People with higher levels of Extraversion show less negative*

emotions in response to organisational change. People with lower levels of Extraversion are described as reserved, timid, passive, and quiet. People with these characteristics thus show more negative emotions than other people and in accordance appraise situations more negative. Therefore people with lower levels of Extraversion also appraise organisational change as more negative and are consequently more amenable to show resistance in response to change. According to Vakola et al. (2004) extraversion is related to positive attitudes towards change. Our findings indicated, however, that people with higher levels of Extraversion do not show more positive emotions in response to change than people with lower levels of Extraversion. The level of Extraversion is thus not decisive in determining whether or not the employee shows more positive emotions. People with higher levels of Extraversion (people that like positive thinking or reinterpretation and tend to be sociable, warm, cheerful and energetic) do, however, show less negative emotions in response to change than people with lower levels. Therefore, the level of Extraversion is only decisive in determining the negative emotions showed. In contradiction to this, the other personality variables are not determinative in whether or not an individual experiences more or less positive or negative emotions in response to change. The level of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness to experience, and Neuroticism of an individual has no implications for their emotions in response to changes. Agreeable people, described as compliant, soft-hearted, and good-natured, do not show more or less positive or negative emotions in response to change than people that are not agreeable. The same holds for people that are ambitious, reliable, and competent (Conscientious), creative, imaginative, and flexible (Open to experience), and worrying, nervous and anxious (Neurotic). Although some of these features seem to be related with emotions (people that are worrying or anxious are expected to show more negative emotions such as alarm and anger), these features are not decisive in the determination of the emotions experienced in response to change. We can thus conclude that personality is not as important in determining the emotions in response to change as we thought.

Next we investigated the role of **emotions in resistance to change and whether emotion is the mediating factor between organisational change and the reactions to change.** We predicted that people with more positive emotions in response to change show active and passive support to change, while people with more negative emotions in response to change show active and passive resistance to change. The findings confirmed these hypotheses. Based on these findings we can conclude that positive emotions are positively related to supportive behaviour in response to change and that negative emotions are positively related to resistance to change. In addition to this, negative emotions were negatively related to supportive behaviour, while on the other hand positive

emotions were not related to resistance to change. People that experience more negative emotions in response to change thus show more negative behaviour or resistance in response to change and less supportive behaviour. People that experience more positive emotions in response to change show more positive or supportive behaviour but do not show more or less resistance. Following on this we can conclude that emotion is the mediating factor between organisational change and reactions to change, except between positive emotions and passive and active resistance. Emotion thus acts as the mediating factor between positive emotions on the one hand and supportive behaviour on the other hand and also between negative emotions on the one hand and negative reactions towards the change on the other hand. Moreover, based on further analysis we can state that the emotions irritation and happiness are mainly responsible for active support and that cheerfulness and irritation are mainly responsible for passive support. This means that the more happy and less irritated employees are, the more they show active support. The same holds for cheerfulness and irritation in relation to active support. Cheerfulness is positively related and irritation negatively related to active support. Accordingly, the more cheerful and less irritated employees are in response to change, the more they actively support the change. Furthermore, the two emotions that are mainly responsible for inducing respectively passive and active resistance are alarm and disappointment and anger and alarm. These negative emotions are positively related with resistance. This means that the more alarmed and disappointed employees are in response to change, the more likely they will show passive resistance. Additionally, the more angry and alarmed, the more the employees will show active resistance. Whether an employee shows passive or active support is thus determined by whether he or she experiences, in addition to alarm, disappointment or anger. Anger then leads to active resistance and irritation to passive resistance, which is to be expected since anger can be seen as a stronger negative emotion than disappointment. Moreover, we can conclude that resistance is solely caused by negative emotions. Resistance to change only occurs when a change has evoked solely negative emotions. This in contradiction to passive and active resistance. Active support is caused by both a positive and a negative emotion: irritation is a negative emotion and is negatively related to active support; happiness is a positive emotion and is positively related to active support. The same holds for passive support and cheerfulness and irritation. Support towards change, a positive reaction, can thus arise in spite of a negative emotion evoked by organisational change, while resistance to change only arises in response to negative emotions.

6.2   Conclusion

If a change is small, it can evoke positive emotions and negative emotions, however, the bigger this change, the smaller the chance on positive emotions and the higher the chance on negative emotions. The first-order change we presented the employees was refractory to their wants, but not refractory enough to cause only negative emotions. Somewhere, they also experienced the first-order change as something positive. The positive emotions that followed, made them more resilient in response to the change. Organisational change is thus not always experienced as something negative. However, if the change becomes too refractory to the wants of the employees it does cause negative emotions that will invoke resistance to change. Since second-order change evokes stronger negative emotions than first-order change, the chance of resistance to change is larger than in case of a first-order change. This is due to the solely negative emotions that arise in response of the second-order organisational change. Moreover, people that have lower levels of Extraversion appraise change as more negative than other people. Therefore people with lower levels of extraversion will show faster stronger negative emotions in response to the change and will also show more resistance to change.

Organisations nowadays need to fundamentally change the way they do business in order to survive in the increasingly dynamic environments. Although sometimes forgotten, it must be realised that in this process the employees in the organisation are of the greatest importance. The change will only turn out into a success when it finds bearing surface among the employees and the employees are willing to change along. Resistance to change is the most cited implementation problem. An understanding of why change and especially second-order change causes resistance to change among employees is very important. The intense negative emotions that can arise in response of change are then very important to pay attention to. As we stated in chapter two, emotions always have an object: there is always someone or something that causes or triggers the emotional reaction. Moreover, emotions are only triggered by events that are personally relevant. Organisational change is such an event. Second-order change involves almost every employee in the organisation and so has direct implications for their personal goals and strivings. This is threatening and therefore this event triggers heavy negative emotions like anger and alarm. Since a person's actions and intentions are bound up with the emotions he or she has, the negative emotions experienced by employees in response to change are of influence on their actions and intentions. They cause that the employees are obstructed to adapt to the change. This is why resistance to change occurs. The organisational

change is seen as the cause of the negative emotions and is therefore not appreciated, resulting in employees' intentions to resist the change.

6.3   Limitations and suggestions for further research

This paragraph discusses the limitations of this research and provides suggestions for future research. First of all, as a result of the positivistic paradigm of this research, there is a danger that the validity of the findings is not as high as desired. The advantage of the questionnaire as research method is that a large amount of people can be reached. The additional disadvantage is that the data generated from the questionnaires is not as rich in its explanation and analysis as it would be when using a data collection method of the phenomenological paradigm. Therefore our findings might not represent what is really happening within the employees. When using a questionnaire as data collection method you depend on the willingness of the respondents to trustworthy fill in the questionnaire. Despite the fact that we stated that the data would be treated as confidential, the respondents might adjust their answers because they think the questions are too personal or because they rather give social desirable answers. In addition to this, we used the scenario method what implied that the respondents had to visualise the presented changes and had to imagine how they would feel in case of this change. Having to imagine a change and not actually being in one, can give divergent answers. Although the scenario method is a good method for obtaining insight in the context of a specific object and the consequences and the people involved, it might be valuable for future research to investigate the same factors among the employees of a firm that at the time is or recently has been in a change process. Second, to establish reliable scales in the research we had to remove some items. As a consequence of this some conclusions could have been drawn based on only a few items. For future research, a larger questionnaire with more items would be the answer to this limitation. Another limitation is considered with the generalisability of the research. Because the research was conducted among employees of only one organisation, the findings may not be generalisable to employees of other firms. Moreover, we stated earlier that how and when people express emotions is determined by culture. It is plausible that the emotions experienced by our respondents are somewhat biased, because they share the same (working) culture. Other organisations might have different cultures and values and therefore the employees would also react different in response to change. Future research could be conducted among employees of different companies at the same time, taking into account their national culture.

6.4   Implications

As is now clear, resistance to change is most likely to occur in case of a large and radical organisational change since this kind of change evokes heavy negative emotional reactions. These negative emotions are especially present among employees with lower levels of Extraversion. Therefore, when planning a radical change in an organisation, managers must consider the negative effects that might arise in response of this change. The employees in an organisation are a very important factor in whether the change turns out as a failure or success. The managers of the changing organisation should thus take account of the fact that large changes evoke negative emotions and reactions among the employees. When employees seem annoyed, angry or anxious due to a presented change, this indicates that they feel threatened by the change. In response to this they can hinder or obstruct the change process. People are creatures of habit that like routine and familiarity. Tempering the negative emotions of the employees or better informing them about the situation and things that are about to happen can decrease the uncertainty among the employees. Good communication, openness and clarity toward the employees about the change and their future can be helpful in trying to minimise the resistance to change. This as early as possible, preferably in advance of the beginning of the change process. Even better is to convince the employees of the opportunities and advantages of the change. This should not be done only to the employees that openly express their discontent. Especially the employees that act reserved, quiet, or passive in response to the change should be minded since these employees have lower levels of extraversion and are therefore more capable of showing resistance to change. Organising meetings for the employees during which explanation is given about the change and its effects is one way to minimise negative effects. Paying attention to employees' interests that are under pressure as a result of the change is then helpful. These meetings should continue during the complete implementation of the change. In this way the employees might feel that they are involved in the change process and, consequently, bearing surface and commitment might arise, making them willing to change along. Maybe then positive emotions turn up and instead of being resisted, the change is accepted or, even better, supported. Completely evading from resistance to change is unfeasible, but it can certainly be given a try.

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Appendix A: Example of questionnaire

Beste respondent,

Deze vragenlijst is onderdeel van mijn afstudeeronderzoek naar reacties op verandering. Het eerste deel van de vragenlijst bevat vragen over uw persoonlijkheid. Vervolgens wordt u in deel twee gevraagd een kort stukje tekst te lezen en met deze situatie in uw achterhoofd de rest van de vragen in te vullen. In deel drie wordt de procedure herhaald alleen met een ander stukje tekst. De twee teksten zijn fictief en hebben ook niks met elkaar te maken. U dient de teksten dan ook niet met elkaar te vergelijken. Tenslotte wordt u gevraagd nog een paar afsluitende vragen te beantwoorden. Alle informatie zal vertrouwelijk worden behandeld. Het invullen van de vragenlijst duurt ongeveer 10 minuten.

Indien u nog vragen heeft, kunt u met mij contact opnemen via onderstaande gegevens. Indien u geïnteresseerd bent in de bevindingen van dit onderzoek, vult u dan onderaan deze pagina uw emailadres in, zodat ik u de resultaten kan mailen.

Op **3 april** kom ik de vragenlijst weer bij u ophalen. U kunt de ingevulde vragenlijst ook per interne post sturen naar **Vakgroep Strategie en Omgeving, T7-25, t.a.v. Janou Vos.**

Uw bijdrage zal enorm gewaardeerd worden.

Janou Vos
Tel: 010-4082986
e-mail: st_volberda5@rsm.nl

Algemene vragen:

Wat is uw geslacht?   m / v
Wat is uw leeftijd?
Bij welke vakgroep bent u momenteel werkzaam?
Hoeveel jaar bent u werkzaam op de EUR?

Deel 1
Geef op een schaal van 1 tot 5 aan in hoeverre de volgende stellingen op u van toepassing zijn, waarbij **1 = helemaal niet mee eens** en **5 = helemaal mee eens**

Ik ben makkelijk in verlegenheid te brengen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik kan goed verleidingen weerstaan	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben een tobber	1	2	3	4	5
Ik voel me zelden eenzaam of somber	1	2	3	4	5
Ik raak gemakkelijk van slag	1	2	3	4	5
Ik word zelden kwaad	1	2	3	4	5
Ik houd van spanning en sensatie	1	2	3	4	5
Ik maak gemakkelijk vrienden	1	2	3	4	5
Ik laat anderen het voortouw nemen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik praat niet makkelijk met vreemden op feestjes	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben een vrolijk en levendig persoon	1	2	3	4	5
Ik doe dingen graag op mijn gemak	1	2	3	4	5
Ik kan me goed in situaties inleven	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben geïnteresseerd in kunst en poëzie	1	2	3	4	5
Ik houd niet van veranderingen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik vind het leuk om complexe problemen op te lossen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben conservatief ingesteld	1	2	3	4	5
Ik raak zelden emotioneel	1	2	3	4	5
Ik kan niet goed tegen strijd	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ben vaak cynisch over de bedoelingen van anderen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik houd me aan de regels	1	2	3	4	5
Ik werk liever met anderen samen dan te wedijveren	1	2	3	4	5
Ik houd ervan om over mezelf te praten	1	2	3	4	5
Ik weet niet hoe ik anderen op hun gemak moet stellen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik houd me aan mijn beloftes	1	2	3	4	5
Ik vind het niet erg als mijn spullen niet opgeruimd zijn	1	2	3	4	5
Ik weet niet goed hoe ik dingen aan moet pakken	1	2	3	4	5
Ik streef ernaar uit te blinken in alles wat ik doe	1	2	3	4	5
Ik kies mijn woorden zorgvuldig	1	2	3	4	5
Ik verdoe veel tijd voordat ik echt aan het werk ga	1	2	3	4	5

Deel 2:
Hieronder vindt u een korte beschrijving van een verandering. Lees het stukje door en probeert u zich in de situatie in te leven. Vul vervolgens de rest van de vragen in.

- Om redenen van bezuiniging is besloten dat de EUR een samenwerkingsverband aan zal gaan met de Hogeschool Rotterdam (HR) zodat er goedkoper, maar kwalitatief nog steeds hoogstaand onderwijs kan worden gegeven. De medewerkers van de EUR en de HR zullen ieder hun eigen regels en procedures houden, maar er zal gezamenlijk gebruik worden gemaakt van de gebouwen en faciliteiten. Zo zou het bijvoorbeeld voor kunnen komen dat de docenten van de HR in een zaal van de EUR college geven of andersom om zo efficiënter gebruik te maken van de beschikbare ruimte. -

Geef op een schaal van 1 tot 5 aan hoe u staat tegenover deze verandering:

Tegenover deze verandering sta ik   negatief   1   2   3   4   5   positief

Geef aan welke gevoelens deze verandering bij u oproept en ik welke mate, waarbij
1=helemaal niet en **5= heel erg**

Deze verandering maakt mij:

boos	1	2	3	4	5	verdrietig	1	2	3	4	5
teleurgesteld	1	2	3	4	5	geïrriteerd	1	2	3	4	5
bang	1	2	3	4	5	ongerust	1	2	3	4	5
gelukkig	1	2	3	4	5	blij	1	2	3	4	5

In navolging op deze verandering, hoe zou u reageren / welke van de volgende acties zou u ondernemen?
Geef op een schaal van 1 tot 5 aan welke van de volgende verschillende stellingen op u van toepassing zijn, waarbij **1 = helemaal niet mee eens** en **5 = helemaal mee eens**

Ik negeer de verandering en doe alsof er niks aan de hand is	1	2	3	4	5
Ik uit kort mijn ongenoegen over de verandering, maar leg me er vervolgens bij neer	1	2	3	4	5
Ik praat op een negatieve manier over de verandering met collega's	1	2	3	4	5
Ik toon dat ik lak heb aan de verandering	1	2	3	4	5
Ik geef toe aan de verandering maar niet zonder mokken of enig tegenstribbelen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ga in protest (door b.v. schrijven protestbrief of staking)	1	2	3	4	5
Ik weiger me bij de verandering neer te leggen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik uit duidelijk en openlijk mijn ongenoegen over de verandering	1	2	3	4	5
Ik werk niet mee met de verandering en ga dwarsliggen	1	2	3	4	5
Ik blijf opzettelijk weg / meld me ziek	1	2	3	4	5
Ik stem in met de verandering	1	2	3	4	5
Ik accepteer de verandering	1	2	3	4	5
Ik houd me aan de verandering	1	2	3	4	5
Ik ondersteun de verandering	1	2	3	4	5
Ik reageer enthousiast op de verandering	1	2	3	4	5
Ik werk graag mee met de verandering	1	2	3	4	5

Ik reageer anders, namelijk:
_____
_____