

The role of Emotional Intelligence in managing resistance to change

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Acknowledgements

As I begin to reflect on the magnitude of this project, Anthony Robbins reminds me of this short story in his book *Awaken the Giant within*.

The celebrated quarterback sprints onto the field in the last quarter of the game, confers in the huddle, confidently strides out to the line of scrimmage and throws the perfect spiral pass fifty yards downfield into the end zone to score the winning touchdown! The fans cheer, the coaches are thrilled and the quarterback gets to joyously celebrate in the glory of winning the game. But it was a team effort. The quarterback is the public hero; however, in any game in life there are a multitude of players who are the hidden heroes and in this endeavour there have been many.

I am overwhelmed as I begin to think about so many selfless family members, friends and classmates. My sincere gratitude to the following members of my team:

I thank God for the opportunity He gave me to be able to study and for giving me the strength, insight and perseverance to complete this study.

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Abstract

At the start of the twenty-first century the world is in a constant state of change and no organisation can escape the effects of operating in a dynamic, continually evolving landscape. The forces of change are so great that the future success, indeed the survival, of thousands of organisations depends on how well they respond to change or optimally, whether they can actually stay ahead of change. Despite the fact that successful organisational change initiatives hinge on successful personal change, this remains one of the most neglected areas in organisational change practice as the tendency of management is to focus only on the technical elements and requirements of change.

This research aims to add to the body of literature on change by focusing on the much-neglected human element in the process of change. The purpose of this research was to establish the role of Emotional Intelligence in managing resistance to change.

A literature study, which included more than seventy sources, identified the need for research on this specific topic. It was evident that the bulk of literature on and research into change is concerned with change primarily at an organisational, societal and cultural level and tends to neglect the human element. The literature study revealed that the concept of Emotional Intelligence links directly with individuals' responses to change. The researcher therefore drew the conclusion that Emotional Intelligence will play an important role in how individuals will manage the most natural human response to change, i.e. resistance.

An empirical investigation was done by Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd, an organisation in the Information and Communication Technologies sector in South Africa, through the utilisation of two thoroughly researched and well-developed questionnaires i.e. the Bar-On EQi measuring individual Emotional Intelligence and Oreg's resistance to change scale. The purpose of the investigation was to find evidence that supported

the research findings in the literature study and to investigate the extent to which Emotional Intelligence plays a role in managing resistance to change.

The main research objectives were supported by the significantly negative correlation found between Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change. The research produced very interesting findings including the following: Managers, on average, have a higher level of Emotional Intelligence than their subordinates; Managers tend to be less resistant to change due to the fact that they understand the bigger picture better than their subordinates; Managers are able to manage resistance to change more effectively; Individuals experience change on an emotional level but resistance to change on both cognitive and emotional levels.

The research study provided evidence which supported the idea that Emotional Intelligence plays a role in managing resistance to change, but did however, reveal some shortcomings, which opened the door for a great deal of future research opportunities. The researcher suggests that future research should focus on measuring managers' level of Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change by the employees, specifically reporting to those managers. The researcher believes that such research will provide much better explanations of the role of Emotional Intelligence in managing resistance to change.

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CHAPTER 1. NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

At the start of the twenty-first century, the world is in a constant state of change and no organisation can escape the effects of operating in a dynamic, continually evolving landscape (Sims, 2002:2). Increasing uncertainty and competitiveness in the marketplace, changes in technology – enabling and supporting new ways of working, trends towards globalisation, the reduction of barriers to entry in some markets as a result of the internet and e-business, the perceived need to reduce costs, improved quality and a demand to be more responsive to customers' needs, are all held to promoting change (Clegg & Walsh, 2004:217).

The forces of change, according to Sims (2002:2), are so great that the future successes, indeed the survival, of thousands of organisations depend on how well they respond to change or, optimally, whether they can actually stay ahead of change. Change is the new “normal”. Rather than thinking of work as a series of stable times interrupted by moments of change, companies must now recognise work as constant change with only occasional moments of stability (Godin, 2002:6).

It should be clear that all (or most) organisations are constantly trying to change. These ongoing and seemingly endless efforts can put a lot of strain not only on organisations, but also on individuals (Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004:88).

Any organisational change initiative will be affected by the frame and context of individual-level changes. While organisational change is usually geared to achieving specific objectives by specific times and dates, the impact for individuals is typically much slower, internally focused and does not have a clear timescale attached to it

(Holbeche, 2006:71). The process is also different for each person involved with change.

Despite the fact that successful organisational change initiatives and efforts hinge on successful personal change, this remains one of the most neglected areas in organisational change practice (Van Tonder, 2006:8). This interface and interdependence between individual change and organisational change remain essentially undetected, at best understated. While this ignorance is surprising and probably indicative of denial and/or an extensive bias cultivated over time, by an array of factors including education, formal training and organisational experience, members of management teams remain largely uninformed and this will continue to impact adversely on individual and organisational functioning during and after change.

This tendency of management to focus on the technical elements and requirements of change and at the same time neglecting the equally important human elements in the process of change is widely acknowledged in the literature (Levine, 1997; Huston, 1992; Steier, 1989; Arendt et al, 1995; Tessler, 1989; New & Singer, 1983 in Bovey & Hede, 2001:372; Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2003:88; Van Tonder, 2006:163).

With regard to the abovementioned statement, the researcher decided to take a closer look at this all-important human element in the process of change. The research focuses on normal human reaction during the process of change – that of resistance. The focus will then be on the specific element of Emotional Intelligence as having an influence on human resistance and the management thereof.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Much has been written on the subject of change in organisations. In general, the diverse experiences and meanings that are evoked by change have been overlooked. It is far simpler and more convenient to deal with change as a general and abstract concept than as a multifaceted complexity that derives its meaning from the many organisational participants and bystanders (Van Tonder, 2006:163).

Research, dealing with organisational change, was mainly focused on organisational factors neglecting the person-oriented issues (Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004:88). According to Judge et al (1999) in Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou (2004:89), people-oriented research in organisational change, explored issues of charismatic or transformational leadership, the role of top management in organisational change and the phenomenon of resistance to change, without considering the psychological traits or predispositions of individuals experiencing the change, which are equally crucial for its success. The researcher is of the opinion that it could be argued that individual difference variables, such as locus of control, positive affect, openness to experience and tolerance for ambiguity, play an important role in employees' work attitudes (e.g. organisational commitment, satisfaction) and can furthermore predict self- and supervisory assessments of coping with change.

Research on organisational change has also shown that change programmes often face serious problems (Eriksson, 2004:111). Some common problems include human resistance, politics and the conflicts between competing groups in a contextually changing process. Different theoretical perspectives have also identified diverse obstacles to change, but the one common problem, according to Eriksson (2004:111), is human resistance. According to Van Tonder (2006:163) change is also unfortunately more often than not viewed as a tedious and troubling phenomenon referred to as "resistance", which in turn is associated with "negative" emotions, strained organisational relationships and lowered effectiveness.

The researcher agrees with the statement of Jones and Brazil (2006:121) that resistance is arguably the most important factor in change and also the most neglected. According to Jones and Brazil (2006:121) research suggests that resistance is often the primary reason why change fails. Since the field of organisational development is largely concerned with the human aspects of organisational life, one might expect organisational development texts and journals to put heavy emphasis on this topic, but sadly, much of the literature about organisational development gives it only a passing mention. According to Van Tonder (2006:183) resistance is likely to be caused not by a single factor but by multiple factors, which reside in the broader context, the

organisation and the individual. This only serves to complicate attempts to deal with resistance. Factors causing resistance, such as fear of the unknown, a loss of control, lack of confidence and so on are unavoidably mediated by individual perceptions (Van Tonder, 2006:183).

A search for literature has revealed that very little theoretical or empirical work has been done examining the importance of Emotional Intelligence in assisting individuals to deal with organisational change (Jordan, 2005:460).

Huy (1999:326) suggests that well-channelled emotional dynamic can lead to the realisation of radical or second-order change. For those firms faced with an increasingly dynamic environment, emotional energy represents a largely unexploited, yet ready resource. Well-tapped, it will enable organisations to realise strategic stretch (Huy, 1999:326).

The researcher is therefore of the opinion that Emotionally Intelligent employees will be more likely to be adaptable in emotional reactions to discrepancies signalling the need for change, since these people are more adaptive and responsive to their emotions and moods, with better knowledge and understanding of the feelings they are experiencing. According to Jordan (2005:465) the research evidence to date, has demonstrated that Emotional Intelligence has the potential to predict a range of behaviours in the workplace, but its impact during organisational change is still to be tested.

Apart from the difficult challenges associated with research on and in to change within organisations, society has been influenced by the bulk of the literature, which is concerned with change primarily at an organisational, societal or cultural level. This, in turn, has been dominated by the management of change within organisations. One consistent oversight resulting from this focus is that the organisation cannot exist without its employees and that change in or within organisations cannot take place or be dealt with effectively, if the individual employee is not engaged in the initiative for change – to the extent that the individual internalises and accepts the change and finally supports efforts to facilitate or manage this process of change. This lack of participation

and involvement is cited as one of the primary reasons why so many organisational change efforts do not produce the desired results and eventually fail.

Reports of high failure rates of change and organisational development initiatives are also common in the literature. Porras and Robertson in Clegg and Walsh (2004:218) analysed 72 empirical studies on the impact and range of organisational development initiatives. These included changes in organisational arrangements (e.g. changes in structures and rewards), social factors (e.g. management style and teamwork), physical setting (e.g. layout and design) and technologies and techniques (e.g. new technology, work flow and design). According to Clegg and Walsh (2004:218) this represents the most comprehensive and rigorous evaluation of the impact of organisational development. The main findings were that across the studies overall, 53 percent of the dependent variables showed no change as a result of organisational development effort, 9 percent revealed negative change and 38 percent demonstrated positive change. This evidence points to two main conclusions. First, change initiatives are common and second, their performance appears to be disappointing. According to the researcher this seems to imply that a third conclusion may also be warranted – namely that, despite having a great deal of practice, many organisations are not very good at change management.

Another significant construct, which has not been extensively investigated, is the role of emotions in organisational change, since the typical organisational change paradigm focuses on problem-based models underestimating the impact of emotions (Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004:89). Change generally elicits strong emotional responses from most people, which range from shock, anger and depression to excitement and elation (Van Tonder, 2006:181). According to Antonacopoulou and Gabriel in Van Tonder (2006:181), contrary to common perception, the individual reaction to change is not simply a matter of resistance or acceptance, but instead comprises a complex blend of psychological, social, emotional and cognitive factors.

Philosophers, psychologists, novelists and organisational theorists have debated the relationship between emotion and cognition for centuries, with a number of different

conclusions – emotion is the opposite of reason, emotion is deeply interwoven with reason and emotion can occur independently from reason (Smollan, 2006:144).

Cognitive and affective responses thus create attitudes to change that may contain positive and negative elements and will be influenced by a range of factors, including perceived favourability of outcomes and fairness of outcomes, processes of decision making and communication (Smollan, 2006:145).

The importance of looking into the connection between the management of one's own emotions, the understanding of someone else's emotions and the importance of these elements in managing resistance to change, is evident.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

A thorough investigation of literature revealed that an excessive amount of research has been done on the topic of organisational change. However, research dealing with organisational change, focused mainly on organisational factors, neglects the all-important person-oriented issues.

Research on organisational change has also shown that change programmes often face serious problems – one of the most common being human resistance to change. This results in high failure rates for organisations when it comes to the implementation of change initiatives.

The researcher is of the opinion that the level of individual Emotional Intelligence plays a vital role in dealing with change, although a literature study revealed that very little theoretical or empirical work has been done examining the importance of Emotional Intelligence in assisting individuals to deal with organisational change (Jordan, 2005:460).

The researcher is further of the opinion that emotionally intelligent individuals will be more likely to be adaptable in emotional reactions to discrepancies signalling the need for change, since these people are more adaptive and responsive to their emotions and

moods, with better knowledge and understanding of the feelings they are experiencing. According to Jordan (2005:465) the research evidence to date has demonstrated that it has the potential to predict a range of behaviour in the workplace, but its impact during organisational change is still to be tested.

With the abovementioned statements in mind, the researcher identified the fact that the term "Emotional Intelligence" has not been linked with organisational change very often. This comes as a surprise to the researcher since he is of the opinion that the management of one's own emotions and understanding of others' emotions, play a determining role in how one will manage the resistance to change.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 Demarcation of the field of study

Although there has been considerable research conducted on change in organisations over an extensive period, interest regarding the role of emotions in organisations has been much more recent. As became evident through the literature review in chapter 2, the bulk of literature on and research into change is concerned with change primarily at an organisational, societal and cultural level and tends to neglect the human element.

This research aims to add to the body of literature on change by focusing on the much-neglected human element in the process of change. During the research, specific emphasis will be placed on the important influence of certain elements of Emotional Intelligence that play a vital role during the individual experience of change and also have an impact on individual resistance to change.

The researcher decided that the main focus of the research will not be too specific with regard to different work levels, but will rather focus on the individual. The researcher will however, take a look at the differences in levels of Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change of managers and their employees, in order to draw certain conclusions. In any organisation change will be experienced differently depending on which side of the

initiative one takes. Change needs to be driven by managers who will experience the change differently from those who need to change. At the same time, change will be experienced differently dependent on the level of impact it will have on the individual.

The intention of the research will therefore focus on the individual and his level of Emotional intelligence and how it impacts on his level of resistance to change and the management thereof. The researcher will then also attempt to differentiate between managers and their employees and find some conclusions.

1.4.2 Research objectives

The main objective of the research is to find evidence which supports the researcher's hypothesis that managers who can manage and make sense of their own and their subordinate's emotions during organisational change, contribute more to the process of change and are less likely to resist change. Employees with higher levels of Emotional Intelligence are also less likely to resist change.

The primary objective of finding evidence that the level of Emotional Intelligence plays a role in managing resistance to change, will be realised by meeting the following secondary objectives:

- Finding a correlation between Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change.
- Confirmation that managers with a higher Emotional Intelligence are able to manage themselves and their subordinate's better during change efforts. This will also result in less resistance to the change effort by themselves and their subordinates.
- An indication that individuals with higher Emotional Intelligence contribute more to organisational change and are less likely to resist change efforts.

1.4.3 Scope of study

The scope of this study will include the entire workforce of Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd, including senior management.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF METHODOLOGY

1.5.1 Literature study

In order to establish a sound theoretical background to the problem as formulated above, an *in-depth analysis, evaluation and integration* of the different aspects relating to organisational change, resistance to change and Emotional Intelligence will be conducted.

The aim of the literature study is thus to gain theoretical knowledge into the connection between resistance as a normal human reaction to change and Emotional Intelligence. The literature study will further be used to identify the need for research on the human element during change. The knowledge gained from the literature study will be used as foundation to compile questionnaires for the empirical investigation.

The literature search will consist of relevant textbooks, technical journals, magazine articles and publications on the internet.

1.5.2 Empirical study

The empirical field investigation will focus on the entire workforce of Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd, including senior management. The research will have specific reference to:

- *The individual levels of Emotional Intelligence*
- Individual levels of resistance to change

- Differences between the levels of Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change of managers and their employees

To establish the abovementioned aspects, the empirical study will be aimed at all employees of Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd, including executive and senior management members as well as permanent and contracted employees, measuring Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change.

The Bar-On EQi questionnaire developed by Reuven Bar-On, a clinical psychologist, measuring individual Emotional Intelligence, will be used to determine the Emotional Intelligence levels of individuals. The questionnaires will be distributed via e-mail invitations. The return of the questionnaires will be monitored through the central database and followed up by using e-mail, telephone calls and personal contact to ensure a high return rate. All questionnaires will be treated confidentially to ensure that *facts will not be distorted*.

For the second part of the research the resistance to change questionnaire developed by Shaul Oreg in 2003 will be used (Oreg, 2003:680–693, Oreg et al, 2008:935–944). This questionnaire will be distributed to the respondents of the Bar-On EQi questionnaire only.

The results will be statistically analysed, using an appropriate statistical methodology. The analysed results will be used to draw conclusions on the role of Emotional Intelligence in managing resistance to change. Recommendations will be made regarding the implications for future research in this area of the study.

1.6 LAYOUT

It is suggested that the mini-dissertation consists of four chapters. The chapters will consist of the following:

Chapter 1 – Problem statement and research proposal

Chapter 1 undertakes to develop the problem statement and sub-problems. It continues by outlining the project's objectives and the motivation for undertaking the study and concludes with the research methodology approach to undertake this mini-dissertation.

Chapter 2 – Literature study

An extensive literature study will be undertaken to identify the current research available in this field and also to acquire an indication of existing opportunities for future research.

Chapter 3 – Empirical study

Chapter 3 will present an overview of Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd and insight into the current culture and state of the organisation. It will furthermore present the statistical analysis of the empirical study and interpret and discuss these results.

Chapter 4 – Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 4 will present the conclusions from the study. Recommendations will be made to address the shortcomings identified in chapters 2 and 3.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is to explain the concepts surrounding change, resistance to change and Emotional Intelligence in order to explore the role of Emotional Intelligence in the management of resistance to change.

The chapter begins by defining the change, describing the different types of change and the processes and models of change. The research further explores the different experiences of change and the impact of change. It is evident through the research study that much has been written on the subject of change. The research dealing with organisational change has mainly focused on organisational factors, neglecting the person-oriented issues. The researcher will therefore attempt to make a theoretical connection between the experiences of change and emotions in order to formulate a theory on the human aspects of change.

The abovementioned effort links the human element with one of the most natural human responses, i.e. resistance to change. This concept is then explored in detail, whereby it should become clear that the concept of Emotional Intelligence is a crucial factor for managing resistance to change, which has in theory been explored superficially only.

The researcher will therefore focus on the main objective of the research study, which is to explore the role of Emotional Intelligence in the management of the natural human response of resistance to change. The chapter ends with extensive theoretical research on Emotional Intelligence, making the important link between Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change.

2.2 A WORLD OF CONSTANT CHANGE

Change is probably the most quoted phenomenon today and is at the root of every event of any significance. The signs of worldwide change are all too evident. We find ourselves in the midst of a rapidly evolving society that is no longer characterised by the apparent stability of the 1950's and 1960's (Van Tonder, 2006:3). As the twenty-first century begins, the world is in a constant state of change and no organisation can escape the effects of operating in a dynamic, continually evolving landscape (Sims, 2002:2). The features of this society include increasing global competition, technological innovation, and declining resources.

According to Pascale, Milleman and Goiya in Van Tonder (2006:4), the turbulence and the rate of change and innovation experienced in the operating context of organisations at the organisational level are equally evident and the competitive pressures that give rise to major organisational change are increasing.

The forces of change, according to Sims (2002:2) are enormous, so that the future success, indeed the survival of thousands of organisations depend on how well they respond to change or, optimally, whether they can actually stay ahead of change. As organisations try to survive and remain competitive, they are reorganising, re-engineering, downsizing and implementing new technology (Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004:88). In other words, they are constantly changing.

According to Chrusciel (2006:644), it is now commonplace for an organisation to undergo change owing to various internal and external factors, which require an organisational adaptation. Of particular importance is the significant change with which an organisation must cope in order to improve its competitive advantage and maximise the gain from the needed change/transformation process (Chrusciel, 2006:644). According to Kotter (1996:3–4), dealing with significant change is ongoing and gaining in importance.

The one factor that appears to be constant in organisations today is change (Jordan, 2005:456). Indeed, the organisation's ability to deal with change provides the much needed competitive advantage. This is not a new concept either, but an idea that has been evident for decades. In the first chapter of *Thriving on Chaos*, Tom Peters rolled out a litany of turbulence that had been hitting the world more than 20 years ago:

Excellent firms don't believe in excellence – only in constant improvement and constant change. That is, excellent firms of tomorrow will cherish impermanence – and thrive on chaos.

– Tom Peters, *Thriving on Chaos*, 1987 (Godin, 2002:15)

Change is the new “normal”. Rather than thinking of work as a series of stable times interrupted by moments of change, companies must now recognise work as constant change, with only occasional moments of stability (Godin, 2002:6).

2.2.1 Defining change

From much cited examples of change phenomena we are able to glean some understanding of what is meant by the term “change” but, as can be expected, perspectives and therefore descriptions or definitions of “change” in its generic sense flourish. By and large most of these definitions seem to subscribe to the same fundamental views of change (Van Tonder, 2006:4).

Ford and Ford (1994:759), with a description that emphasises the motion element of change, argue that change is a phenomenon of time, where something over time turns into something else.

Lewin's classic view of change is a sequence of activities that emanate from disturbances in the stable force field that surround the organisation (or object, situation or person) tend to focus on the role of context, stability as preferred state and the onset of a chain reaction of events when the force field is disturbed (Van Tonder, 2006:5).

Another example of the "process-oriented" definitions of change views it as a dynamic process concerned with the modification of patterned behaviour (Kanter, Stein & Jick, 1992:11).

Van de Ven Poole's definition places more emphasis on the end result of change. He states that change, one type of event, is an empirical observation of difference in form, quality or state over time in an organisational entity (Van Tonder, 2006:5).

Perhaps more simply, change could be described as making or becoming different or, as something (new) that starts at a specific point in time (Van Tonder, 2006:5).

No definition is beyond criticism and the researcher is of the opinion that it is inevitable that some of the definitions of change, including the abovementioned, may be perceived as being too general, too specific, too selective or employing terminology that could have been replaced with more useful and practical terminology.

A more differentiated view of change was put forward by Ackerman in 1984, who describes three types of organisational change varying in scope and depth: 1) developmental change, 2) transitional change and 3) transformational change (Alas & Sharifi, 2002:315), developmental change being an improvement of what is in existence, transitional change being the implementation of a known new state and management of the interim transition state over a controlled period of time and transformational change being the emergence of a new state (which is unknown until it takes shape) out of the remains of the chaotic death of the old state.

The model created by Burke and Litwin in 1992 also helps to create a distinction between transformational and transactional factors (Alas & Sharifi, 2002:315).

Transformational factors deal with areas that require different employee behaviour as the consequence of external and internal environmental pressures. Transactional factors deal with psychological and organisational variables that predict and control the motivational and performance outcomes of the climate of the work group. Alas and Sharifi (2002:15) however, argue that the former factors define and shape the latter. Equally, the latter can reinforce or dilute the former. Therefore the factors may be distinct, but they are interrelated.

The researcher agrees with Van Tonder, who argues that while these descriptions of change diverge in terms of perspective and focus, they essentially converge in terms of viewing change as a *process resulting in a difference of varying magnitude and nature in the state and/or condition of a given entity over time – whether the entity is a phenomenon, situation, person and/or object* (Van Tonder, 2006:6).

The main elements of this generic definition of change are thus:

- Change is a process – it is dynamic, bound to time, and clearly not discrete.
- Change is evident in a difference in the state and/or condition within a state.

Change as “difference” does not occur in a void, but is bounded by its context. The context on its part is indicated by the general reference to an “entity”, which may include the person, the organisation, a situation, an object, some phenomenon, a system, an organism or any such defining term.

This difference may be substantial or insignificant and in most cases is likely to be observable.

Lastly, this difference in state or condition unfolds over time as previously mentioned. Without time, a “difference” cannot be registered – we are unable to record change if we do not consider the passage of time.

This framework and the elements that guide the researcher's view of change are important points of departure that need to be stated at this early stage. It is important to recognise that organisations cannot change without individual change. A discussion of organisational change therefore unavoidably implies a discussion of individual change and will be dealt with in paragraph 2.5. In metaphorical language we can refer to this relationship as the umbilical cord through which the experiences of change of the organisation and the individual employees are inextricably linked.

2.2.2 Change typologies and concepts

Of the extensive literature on the topic of change across different disciplines, the salient contributions are those that attempt to describe different types of change. The researcher will commence with an overview of the rich diversity to be found in alternative concepts of change and a review of some of the contemporary change typologies.

2.2.3 Types of change

A selection of popularly quoted change conceptualisations from the literature has been briefly summarised in Table 2.1. These have been sourced from several scientific disciplines and reveal the increasing cross-disciplinary forays of scholars in an attempt to develop a greater understanding of the change phenomenon (Van Tonder, 2006:81).

TABLE 2-1 CHANGE TYPOLOGIES AND CONCEPTS

Source	Conceptualisations of alternative forms of change
Watzlawick, Weakland & Fisch, 1974	<p>First-order change: a variation within a given system which in itself remains unchanged</p> <p>Second-order change: changes to the system itself, change of change, always in the domain of discontinuity or logical jumps</p>
Golembiewski, Billingsley & Yeager, 1976	<p>Alpha change, which involves a variation in the level of some existing state – change along relatively stable dimensions of reality, within a relatively fixed system or state</p> <p>Beta change, similar to alpha change, with the added complication that aspects of the measurement framework have also changed (e.g. the intervals of the measurement “instrument” have been recalibrated)</p> <p>Gamma change, which involves a redefinition or reconceptualisation, a major change in the perspective or frame of reference within which phenomena are observed</p>
Sheldon, 1980	<p>Normal change: similar to tinkering with one dimension, with the objective of improving the fit between the organisation and its environment and the fit between the organisation’s components</p> <p>Paradigmatic change: change in several or all dimensions at the same time, radical change in world view</p>
Levy, 1986	<p>First-order change: change in one or a few dimensions/levels or behavioural aspects, more quantitative in nature, involves changes in content, continuity/continuation or improvement in the same direction, incremental and reversible changes, logical and rational, does not alter the world view or paradigm, changes within the prevailing or old state of being</p> <p>Second-order change: multi-dimensional, multi-level in all behavioural aspects, more qualitative change, change in context as opposed to content, discontinuous – taking a new direction, revolutionary jumps, irreversible, seemingly irrational, results in a new world view or paradigm, results in a new state of being</p>

<p>Bartunek & Moch, 1987</p>	<p>Portray change relative to the paradigm or schemata within which it occurs:</p> <p>First-order change, which involves the tacit reinforcement of existing understandings (also referred to as incremental change)</p> <p>Second-order change, which entails the conscious modification of an existing schema or framework in a particular direction</p> <p>Third-order change, which focuses on creating the capacity to identify and change schemata as and when desired</p>
<p>Nadler & Tushman, 1989</p>	<p>Tuning and adaptation as two different types of incremental change (the former being pre-emptive or anticipatory and the latter reactive in response to external events). Neither involves fundamental change.</p> <p>Reorientation or frame-building change</p>
<p>Ford & Ford, 1994</p>	<p>Distinction between different logic(s) or viewpoints:</p> <p>Formal logic: change is achieved through replacement or substitution</p> <p>Dialectics: change emerges as a result of contradicting/opposing forces or conflict</p> <p>Trialectics: change occurs through attraction between entities which are drawn to one another and this results in change</p> <p>Circumstances will determine which logic will be more appropriate</p>
<p>Nadler, 1998</p>	<p>Two categories of change are distinguished:</p> <p>Incremental or continuous change: constant change, part of an orderly flow, designed to improve efficiency and/or eliminate problems, step-by-step change where each step builds upon the previous one</p> <p>Radical or discontinuous change: complex, wide-ranging change brought on by fundamental shifts in the external environment, disruptive, radical, requiring dramatic changes in strategy and abrupt departures from the organisational status quo</p>

Van Tonder (2006:82)

According to Van Tonder (2006:81), a brief analysis of the different change types observed in Table 1 reveals several obvious features of the selection of concepts of change:

- Depending on the scholar's frame of reference, change may be presented from the perspective of the individual or the organisation, or from a context-free perspective.
- Change typologies tend to identify four types of change at most. Generally two or three types of change are proposed, suggesting a rather uncomplicated view of the change domain and, indeed, of change.
- The dimensions, in terms of which the various types of change are described and differentiated, vary from scholar to scholar. These typologies entertain a combination of two or three descriptive dimensions, for example, the time orientations of the change, the mechanisms of the change and the magnitude and scope of the change in terms of "what" and "where".

The alternative concepts of change introduced in Table 2.1 can be broadly clustered under two primary concepts of change (Van Tonder, 2006:95):

A steady-state, incremental or step-by-step sequential change, which generally evolves over an extended period of time, does not have a disruptive influence on the system and is generally within control of the system.

A major, disruptive, unpredictable, paradigm-altering and system-wide change, which has a very sudden onset and escalates rapidly, to a point where it is perceived as being beyond control of the system.

The conceptualisations of change as presented in Table 2.1 suggest that change can be described in terms of two qualitatively different and clearly differentiated change types and categories. At the same time there are several potential dimensions on which change phenomena could be conceived, measured or graphed.

As a consequence, according to Van Tonder (2006:96) it should be possible to describe systemic and organisational change in terms of the following:

- The scope of the change (ranging from a relatively limited and isolated impact to system-wide ramifications).
- The rate or pace of change (ranging from slow to rapid change).
- The progression or progressive unfolding of the change (ranging from incremental and step-wise to quantum leaps).
- The degree of control over the change can be visualised (ranging from clearly predictable outcomes with a high probability of occurrence to completely unpredictable outcomes).
- The role of the organisation (ranging from reactive and responding to proactive and initiating).
- The ultimate impact of the change (ranging from a minor, superficial impact in terms of peripheral features of the organisation, to alteration of core or fundamental features of the organisation).

The typologies briefly reviewed in this section clearly highlight the importance and potential utility of developing a differentiated and specific view of change that would render change more “manageable”. The typologies also suggested major inadequacies in the way we view and consequently act on change, namely the predominant focus on cognitive dimensions to the exclusion of equally valid affective dimensions of change, as well as inadequate attention to bringing about cognitive change in day-to-day practice.

The role of emotions and therefore Emotional Intelligence as the tool for managing emotions should clearly be explored and therefore supports the motivation for this specific research.

2.2.4 Current typologies of change

Unlike the typologies of change referred to earlier in the literature review, later typologies appear to have devoted less attention to the structure of the typology and more to the definitional and descriptive nature of the types of change. More time and effort are devoted to theorising and discussion of papers, with a commensurate decline in hard, empirical research on change types and typologies.

2.2.4.1 Continuous, discontinuous and radical change

As terminology suggests, change types are differentiated and described in terms of continuity, where continuous change suggests a continuation of an existing pattern or trend and discontinuous change means an interruption or break with existing patterns or trends of change. Continuous change has been described by Pullen as a gradual adjustment of the organisation's internal "logic" to continuously changing environmental circumstances (Van Tonder, 2006:100). "Logic" in this sense is interpreted as the organisation's structural architecture and mode of functioning.

By contrast, Allaire and Firsirotu have described discontinuous change as change events or processes that are not continuous with the past or current direction of the organisation (Van Tonder, 2006:101). Prominent to this view is the break with past patterns or trends, which places it in the same category as "frame breaking" mentioned in Table 2.1. It is also suggested that discontinuous change is likely to occur when existing corporate skills are incapable of addressing the current problems within the organisation, which in turn suggests that problems are likely to be novel.

Radical change proceeds to describe the magnitude or scope of the disruption in the continuity of an organisation's functioning. Radical change occurs at pivotal moments for organisations, such as when organisations reach a crisis point, leading to major downsizing or restructuring, or when organisations go on a growth curve, transforming itself through strategic acquisitions and mergers for example (Holbeche, 2006:6).

It is natural to assume that discontinuous change will be radical in nature and indeed general references to this form of change in the literature tend to reinforce this view, but the researcher is of the belief that this assumption cannot be taken for granted.

According to Huber and Glick in Van Tonder (2006:101), regardless of how the magnitude of these types of change is defined, it would seem that organisational survival and success are dependent on both continuous and discontinuous change occurring within organisations.

2.2.4.2 Transformational change and organisational transformation

Transformational change and its equally popular variants, corporate transformation or organisational transformation are probably the most widely used concepts of change (Van Tonder, 2006:105). Unlike the previous discussions of types of change that emphasise the flow and nature of the change process, the description of change as “transformational” emphasises the result or consequence of the change. Organisational transformation was originally defined by Levi and Merry in Van Tonder (2006:105) as follows: “second-order change is a multi-dimensional, multi-level, qualitative, discontinuous, radical organisational change involving a paradigmatic shift”.

Efforts to change, geared towards transformation, are usually aimed at helping an organisation to regain strategic alignment with its environment (Holbeche, 2006:6). When alterations to the basic framework are required “second order” change is required which can challenge the basic assumptions underpinning the organisation.

It would seem that organisational transformation or transformational change as a type of change appears to be reasonably well embedded at the levels of organisational practice and academic discourse (Van Tonder, 2006:109). In practice it appears to be useful in differentiating at a very general level between two qualitatively different types of change in organisations. At the academic discourse level it appears to have been used largely as an expanded version of second-order change which, for this reason, makes it a

preferred choice over narrow and singular descriptions of radical, discontinuous or revolutionary change (Van Tonder, 2006:110).

2.3 CHANGE MANAGEMENT PROCESSES AND MODELS

As was already indicated, the concept of change has been increasingly researched by cross-disciplinary forays of scholars in an attempt to develop a greater understanding of the change phenomenon. As is evident so far, much has been written on the concept of change and it is widespread in the literature. For the purpose of this research it is important to understand the previous statement. The researcher wants the reader to understand the need for research to be much more focused on a specific part within the concept of change.

In the following section the researcher will continue with the concept of change, but will start focusing on the different models of change identified by scholars and also explore the context and processes of change.

The breadth of the concept of strategic organisational change allows researchers to look at it from various perspectives. According to Filipovic (2004:58), some deal with the *very nature of change and often involve analysis of the reasons for resistance to change as well as other major factors, influencing the way changes unfold*. Others focus on the integrative nature of change, placing it in context and discussing the links between the outer and inner environment of the organisation, the need for change, its contents and the process via which change is implemented. Another group of authors presents detailed, pragmatic models of change aimed at suggesting the optimal course of action for achieving successful change in the organisation. Yet another group extends its focus to the key factors in change – leaders and employees – as well as to the effects of organisational culture.

2.3.1 The nature of change

Early work on organisational change emerged from the organisational development tradition and stressed techniques for planned transition management (Bennis et al, 1976;20, Beckhard & Harris, 1977 in Filipovic, 2004:58). The early work often focused on relatively low managerial levels within an organisation and on incremental changes “owned” by employees. This became obviously inappropriate in the face of company developments in the 1980s; coercive approaches to change began to dominate and large-scale (second-order) changes became the principal domain of analyses (Tichy 1983; Kimberly & Quinn 1984; Pettigrew, 1985 in Filipovic, 2004:58).

This opens up the discussion about the nature of organisational change, whether it is continuous or discontinuous in its manifestations. Proponents of continuous change claim that constant change in the environment demands continuous adaptation and that continuous improvement is a more effective response than massive change. They focus on continuous learning and unlearning and promote tools such as Kaizen and learning organisations (Filipovic, 2004:58). They also share the opinion that change can be led, but not imposed from the top. On the other hand, proponents of the discontinuous change perspective claim that owing to inertia, pressure has to be built up to start change, creating “boom and bust” cycles and requiring competence in revolutionary change (Hamel, 1996:75). A typical change pool proposal is that of business process re-engineering. Proponents of the discontinuous change perspective often take the view that change should be initiated from the top and can be carried out by a handful of change agents (Day, 1994:151).

The researcher tends to agree with the first-mentioned proponents and also believes that change should be led, but not imposed by top management. Change agents should initiate the change effort, but all employees, almost with a “bottom-up” approach, should drive it with only change agents and top management guiding the change initiative.

Another view of the nature of change has to do with whether firms are adaptable to the pressures for change, or whether they resist these pressures. Traditional responses

from the contingency theory suggest that organisations can control their destinies by actively and purposely creating a fit between the structure of the organisation and the demands of the environment; it's size and technology (Filipovic, 2004:59). Leaders and dominant coalitions in companies have a duty to assess environmental changes and decide on the strategies and actions to match them. Organisations achieving this fit are more likely to have higher performance levels and better survival chances. Along with the concept of adaptation, authors note the dependence on critical resources and propose that organisations should take active steps to minimise the related uncertainties (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978 in Filipovic, 2004:59). Thus actions may take the form of adapting the organisation to the environment, but sometimes even of acting upon the environment to alter it.

In a parallel to the contingency theory, another adaptive view of organisational change was presented by the organisational learning perspective proposed by Senge (1990:4). It takes the position that organisational learning consists of organisational modifications based on feedback from the organisational environment. If the environment has been accurately investigated, organisational change should be adaptive.

The institutional theory suggests that socially constructed belief systems become institutionalised in organisations and their structures (Scott, 1987 in Filipovic, 2004:59). In order to gain legitimacy and increase their stability and survival possibilities, organisations demonstrate their conformity to the institutional environment by incorporating environmentally embedded and institutionally rationalised rules into their structures (Ibarra & Andrews, 1993:277). As can be seen in institutional theory, change is not likely *per se*, but is of a continuous nature and the results of change are under normal circumstances convergent (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996:1028) This is due to external institutional pressures enforcing norms in appropriate organisational goals, structures and processes.

Many other views of organisational change are feasible, such as the random organisational action theory, the integrated perspective, power, politics and culture and the economic perspective on the influence of costs (Filipovic, 2004:62). Many authors

also offer combined views, trying to bring together one or more theories, linking different frameworks, as well as institutional theory and organisational learning (Newman, 2000:602).

As can be seen by the above, organisational change cannot be pinned down to a specific nature – neither content, context nor processes – which will be discussed in the next section. It is evident that by analysing the nature of change and of change processes, no definite reason for human resistance thereto, or factors leading to resistance can be identified.

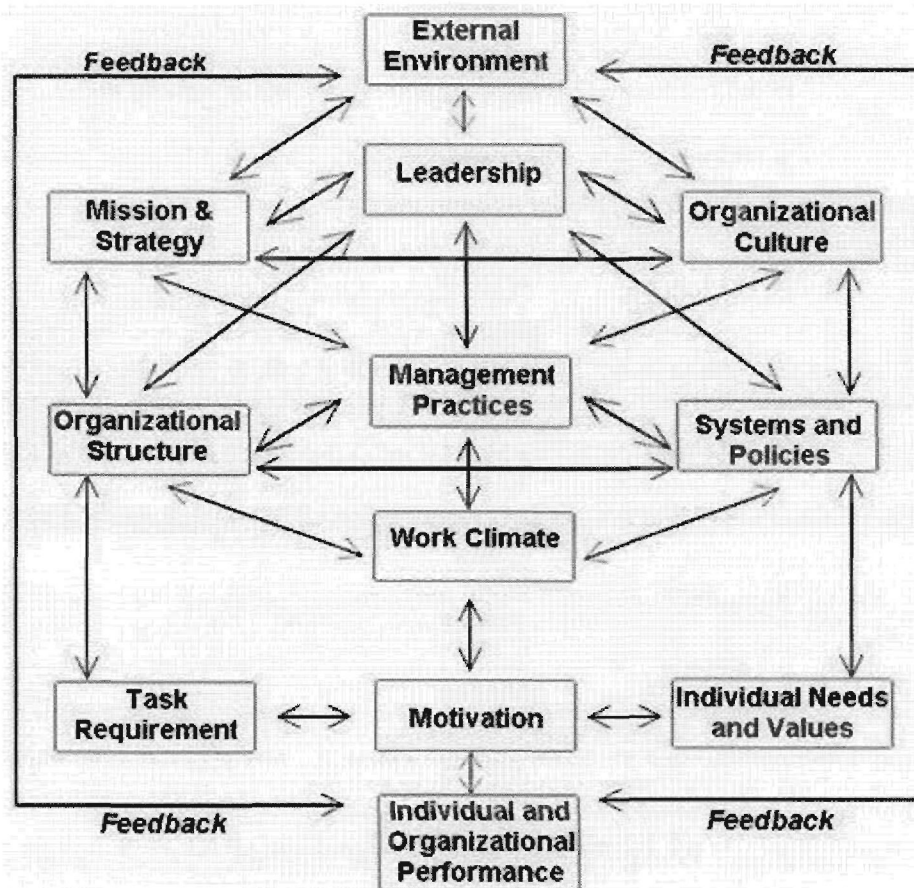
2.4 CONTENT, CONTEXT AND PROCESS OF CHANGE

Some authors disagree with the mainstream schools of thought because of one intuitive, highly appealing objection: it is unrealistic to expect that universally successful patterns of change can exist (Filipovic, 2004:64). In other words, the content, context and process of change are mutually dependent. Consequently, any given change effort may be driven by a different set of influences and while certain aspects of that particular change can be explained by one theory, other aspects may reflect phenomena predicted or explained by another theory. While authors make gestures in this direction, typically discussing one particular aspect of change or trying to build a universal theory that would integrate various theoretical perspectives, few have explicitly addressed the holistic view of change. In Filipovic (2004:64), some like Pettigrew (1987) remained primarily at the conceptual level while others, like Burke and Litwin (1992), tried to build theoretical or normative application-oriented (Vollman, 1996) and integrative models of change.

Pettigrew developed the view of organisational change as a process determined by politics and culture (Pettigrew, 1979:570–580). He also considered the effects of leadership on change, in particular the concept of transformational leadership. Pettigrew proposed that phenomena related to change should be approached with a clear reference to the outer and inner context of the organisation, change content and processes (Pettigrew, 1987:651).

Burke and Litwin (1992:523–545) built their model (Fig. 2.1) of organisational performance and change on the basis of their own consulting experience, previous theoretical developments in the area of transactional and transformational leadership, and organisational models linked to organisational behaviour, climate and culture. The model proposes 12 key variables influencing organisational change and organisational performance. According to the proposition of open systems theory, variables influence each other bi-directly, but transformational variables have a stronger impact than transactional variables. The model also describes how to create first- and second-order change, which was discussed previously in the literature review.

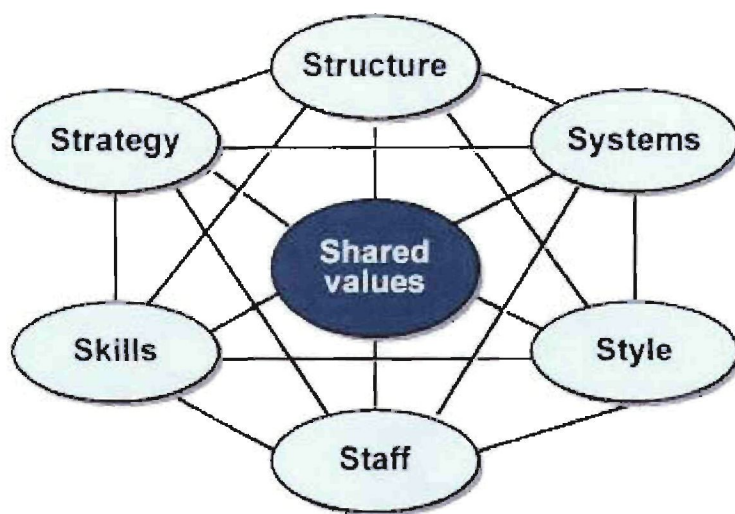
FIGURE 2-1 BURKE-LITWIN MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE AND CHANGE



Burke and Litwin (1992)

Although the model appears to be complex, it can be seen as a systematic extension of the popular McKinsey 7S model (Fig. 2.2) (Peters & Waterman, 2004:11) and its value can be seen particularly in its attempt to explain transactional and transformational components of change holistically and to associate change with individuals and the organisation. The McKinsey model also highlights the importance of the people component in business success.

FIGURE 2-2 MCKINSEY 7S MODEL



Peters and Waterman, 2004:11

Like most other academic authors of normative literature on change management, Vollmann's [(1996) in Filipovic (2004:66)] implicit starting position sides with the contingency theory, since he proposes "a blueprint for successful transformation". However, in this he addresses many concerns shared in the basic theoretical models of change. In his model of integrated strategic transformation, he addresses eight key organisational transformation facets, which are built around the central concept of competencies and capabilities. This concept is integrated with ideas borrowed from the organisational learning perspective, the institutional perspective and in particular the concept of strategic intent.

Denton and Bouwer (2003:2) and Nel and Sacht (2003:1–3) describe the beehive model (Fig. 2.3) of organisational renewal. This is a theoretical model and an analytical tool used to obtain a snapshot of the organisational compliance with the application of either best or poor practices associated with seven individual workplace practices in the contemporary economic climate. Strategy is placed in the middle of the change model, with the other practices clustered around its formulation and implementation practices.

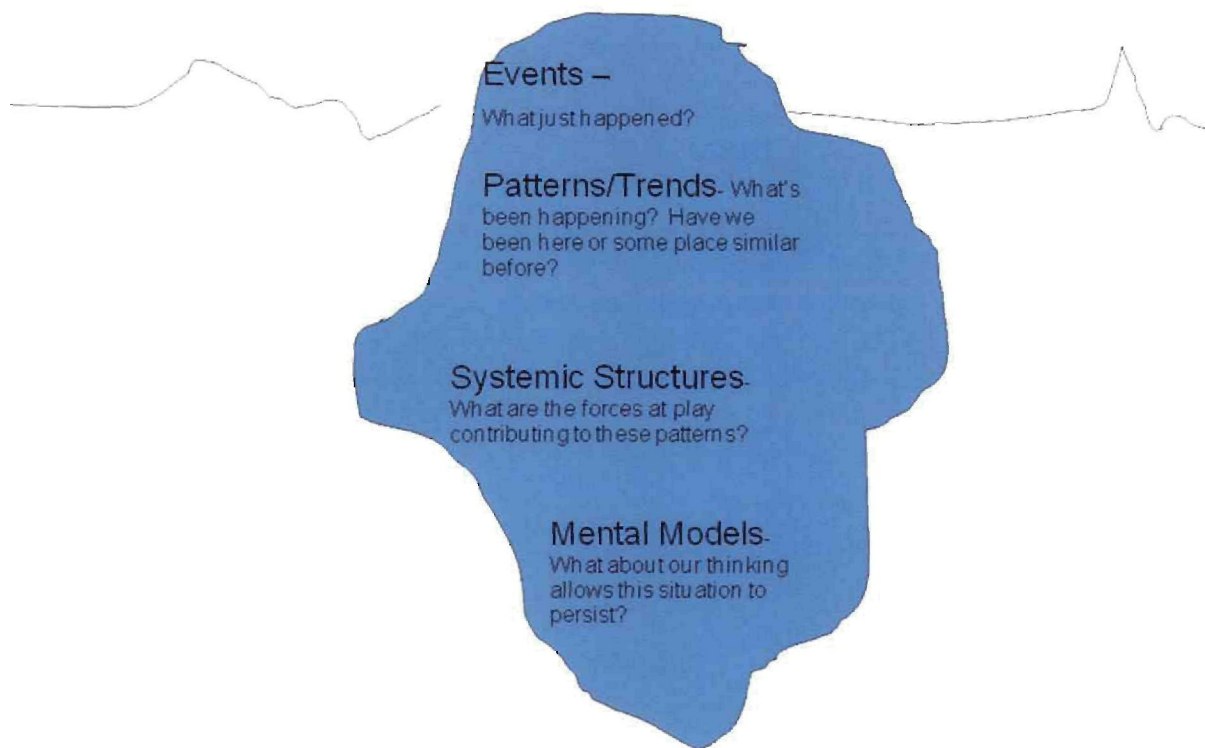
FIGURE 2-3 BEEHIVE MODEL



Nel & Sacht (2003:2)

Literature supporting Denton and Bouwer (2003:2) and Nel and Sacht (2003:2) in their Beehive model, also stated that the change efforts can be measured in the areas of shared vision, strategic link, shared values, leadership and management style, skills and structures and systems. Senge (1990:158) also described the unseen power of underlying beliefs in a system in the metaphor of an iceberg (Fig. 2.4).

FIGURE 2-4 ICEBERG METAPHOR



Senge (1990:158)

The researcher, as many other authors, also believes that all organisational change efforts must address the underlying beliefs and assumptions in order to be effectively sustainable.

2.5 PROCESS-ORIENTED MODELS OF CHANGE

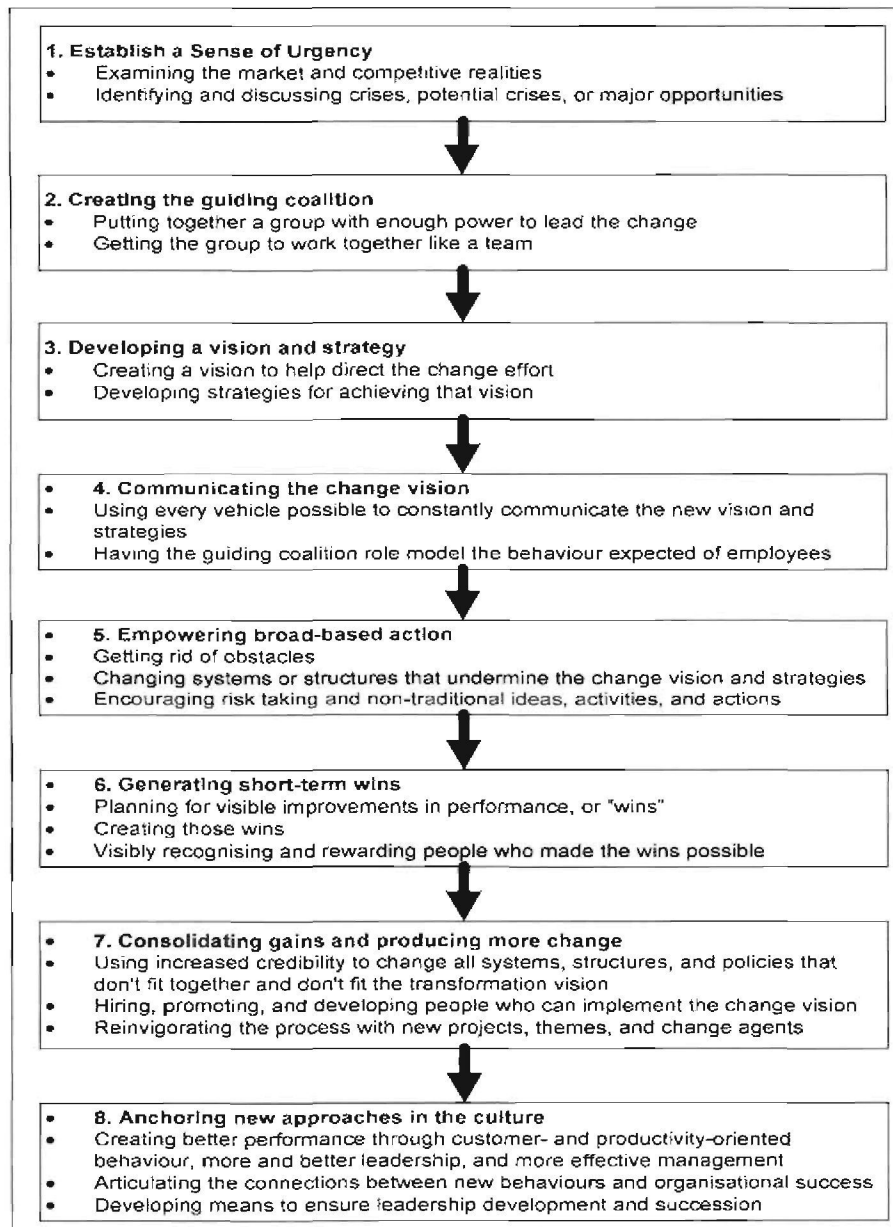
A major stream of research within the field of organisational development deals with change process issues and generally addresses actions taken during an intended change. As mentioned earlier, such actions may be observed at the level of the environment, organisation and individuals. Adherents of the process view of change thus inherently accept the assumption that managerial action can influence change and produce the desired (planned) outcomes (Filipovic, 2004:69). Most of them explicitly acknowledge that change develops in stages. They also accept the idea that barriers to

change (such as inertia) should be identified and dealt with in order for change to be successful (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:677–679). They not only propose actions aimed at achieving successful change at different stages and against different barriers, but also conceptualise common patterns and propose “standard change paths” (Badden-Fuller & Volberda, 1997; Beer, 2001 in Filipovic, 2004:69). Finally some propose the “magic bullet”, the concept that is central for the success of change (be it charismatic leadership, mission or coherence) (Lissack & Roos, 2001:53–71). Lewin’s change management theory, which is based on a model of unfreezing, changing and refreezing, is the theoretical foundation for most researchers of planned change (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:677–679).

The roots of the process view of change lie in conceptualising the change as a sequence of phases (or steps). The researcher identified that the numbers of phases vary from author to author and is typically three to five phases and a few more steps (Filipovic, 2004:70).

Kotter (1990:21) identified eight steps in the change phase model (Fig. 2.5) that should be followed in the exact order in order to ensure sustainability (Kotter, 1996:21; Kotter & Cohen, 2002:7). These steps include the following: establish a sense of urgency, create a coalition, develop a clear vision, share the vision, empower people to clear obstacles, secure short-term wins, consolidate and keep moving and anchor the change.

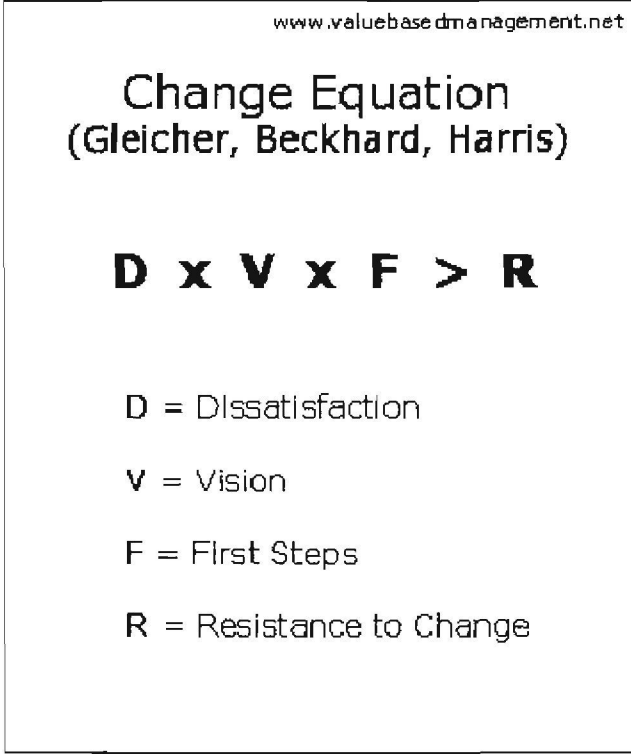
FIGURE 2-5 KOTTER'S EIGHT-PHASE CHANGE MODEL



Kotter (1996:21)

Bechard and Harris in their book *Organizational Transition, Managing Complex Change* on the subject of organisational transition in 1987, proposed the change formula (Fig. 2.6) or the change equation. This tool gives you a quick first impression of the possibilities and conditions to change an organisation. Dissatisfaction, vision and first steps are needed to overcome resistance to change in an organisation.

FIGURE 2-6 BECHARD AND HARRIS'S CHANGE FORMULA



The diagram is enclosed in a rectangular border. At the top right corner, the URL www.valuebasedmanagement.net is written. The title "Change Equation (Gleicher, Beckhard, Harris)" is centered. Below the title, the equation $D \times V \times F > R$ is displayed in large, bold, black letters. Underneath the equation, four definitions are listed: "D = Dissatisfaction", "V = Vision", "F = First Steps", and "R = Resistance to Change".

www.valuebasedmanagement.net

**Change Equation
(Gleicher, Beckhard, Harris)**

$D \times V \times F > R$

D = Dissatisfaction
V = Vision
F = First Steps
R = Resistance to Change

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The systems model of Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:680), namely that of input, transformation and output, does not take the human impact into account to the necessary depth. It is argued that changes in organisations are fundamentally shaped by individual behavioural changes. It is therefore critical to understand the human reaction to change.

The ADKAR model (Fig. 2.7) is a diagnostic tool that has been developed by Prosci (2007:45) to assist managers in supporting their staff through a change process. The model can be used to identify gaps in the change management process. The model can further be used to diagnose employees' resistance, help employees' transition through the change process and create a successful action plan for personal and professional advancement during change and to develop a change management plan for one's employees. The business dimension and the people dimension drive change. Successful change happens when both dimensions of change occur simultaneously (Prosci, 2007:45)

FIGURE 2-7 ADKAR MODEL

A	Awareness of the need for change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management communications • Customer input • Marketplace changes • Ready-access to information
D	Desire to participate and support the change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear of job loss • Discontent with current state • Imminent negative consequence • Enhanced job security • Affiliation and sense of belonging • Career advancement • Acquisition of power or position • Incentive or compensation • Trust and respect for leadership • Hope in future state
K	Knowledge on how to change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training and education • Information access • Examples and role models
A	Ability to implement required skills and behaviors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Practice applying new skills or using new processes and tools • Coaching • Mentoring • Removal of barriers
R	Reinforcement to sustain the change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Incentives and rewards • Compensation changes • Celebrations • Personal recognition

Prosci (2007:45)

It is important to notice that those models proposing the steps of change actually refer to overcoming barriers to change and (directly or indirectly) identifying different barriers in different phases.

The differences between individual authors within the process view of change are not as significant as might appear on the surface. Different terms often denote similar phenomena. It is not surprising then that practitioners often follow some of the more popular models of change, but amend them by borrowing details from other models (Filipovic, 2004:70). Leadership in organisations sometimes makes the mistake of thinking that there is only one easy solution that will solve all organisational problems. They should attempt to understand unconscious patterns and underlying beliefs in the system and with the understanding of systemic archetypes co-create potential interventions.

A central topic in nearly all process-oriented models involves the notion that change targets will resist change. The dominant paradigm of change suggests that inertia and other factors create barriers to change and change agents or leaders have to apply a combination of push and pull to chivvy change targets through the central moving or transition stage of change (Filipovic, 2004:70).

The reasons for barriers are multiple and will be discussed in more detail later. The process view of change has built enough supportive arguments for the claim that understanding barriers to change in a specific situation is important for their successful removal, even though it stops short of proving casual relationships between a certain action and the success of change.

In this section the researcher did in-depth research on the concepts surrounding change, predominantly from an organisational perspective. All the different types of change, the nature of change, different contents, contexts and processes of which change consists and also different models describing organisational change, have been discussed. It is important to understand that the realm of organisational change is wide and complex and that it is quite a popular field of research. For this specific research

though, a focused approach needs to be taken and therefore the researcher will continue the next section by focusing on how individuals experience organisational change efforts.

2.6 EXPERIENCE AND IMPACT OF CHANGE ON THE INDIVIDUAL

Apart from the difficult challenges associated with research on and into change within organisations, we have been influenced by the bulk of the literature, which is concerned with change primarily at an organisational, societal or cultural level. This, in turn has been dominated by the management of change within organisations. One consistent oversight resulting from this focus is that the organisation cannot exist without its employees and that change in or within organisations cannot take place or be dealt with effectively if the individual employee is not engaged in the change initiative – to the extent that he internalises and accepts the change and finally supports efforts to facilitate or manage this change process. This lack of participation and involvement is cited as one of the primary reasons why so many organisational change efforts do not produce the desired results and thus, to all intents and purposes fail.

Closely associated with this oversight is the issue of the individual employee who has to confront and solve the problem of change. Any organisational change initiative will be affected by the frame and context of individual-level change. While organisational change is usually geared to achieving specific objectives by specific times and dates, the impact for individuals is typically much slower, internally focused and does not have a clear time scale attached to it (Holbeche, 2006:71). The process is also different for each person involved in change.

Despite the fact that successful organisational change initiatives and efforts hinge on successful personal change, this remains one of the most neglected areas in organisational change practice (Van Tonder, 2006:8). This interface and interdependence between individual change and organisational change remains essentially undetected, at best understated. While this ignorance is surprising and

probably indicative of denial and/or an extensive bias cultivated over time by an array of factors including education, formal training and organisational experience, members of management remain largely unaware and this will continue to impact adversely on individual and organisational functioning during and after change. This tendency of management to focus on the technical elements and requirements of change and at the same time neglect the equally important human elements in the change process is widely acknowledged (Levine, 1997; Huston, 1992; Steier, 1989; Arendt et al, 1995; Tessler, 1989; New & Singer, 1983 in Bovey & Hede, 2001:372; Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2003:88; Van Tonder, 2006:163).

Managers need to have a good understanding of the role that emotions may play during a period of change (Holbeche, 2006:71). In particular, they need to develop strategies that take account of the emotional environment within their organisation.

2.6.1 Individual change – process and experience

It is unavoidable that individuals will construe change events and processes quite differently. Indeed, the premise that individuals experience change in different ways and that they also differ in their willingness and ability to adapt to change is, contrary to common organisational and managerial practice, widely acknowledged in the literature (Van Tonder, 2006:163). Often people going through change, experience a raft of emotions, usually triggered by the latest announcement or rumour (Holbeche, 2006:71). According to Moran and Brightman (2001:15), when change is announced it is common to feel fear. The fear is based on perceived threats to a person's sense of mastery of what they do. The fear of loss also closes minds to the positive rationale for change and causes people to behave in ways that may derail the change initiative. Change can evoke quite different emotional experiences, which could range from anxiety, despair, resignation and despondency, to hope, anticipation, emancipation, joy and excitement. People may also feel uncertain, angry, bitter, cynical, sceptical, etc. Conversely, some people may be excited and motivated by the change. Some may be inclined to embrace change generally as a liberating experience en route from the mere thought of change.

In order to come to grips with the experience of change at the individual level, the term “personal transition” can also be considered as a framework for viewing individual change. Personal transition, generally speaking, refers to that process through which we come to terms with change (Van Tonder, 2006:164). Organisational change triggers personal transition.

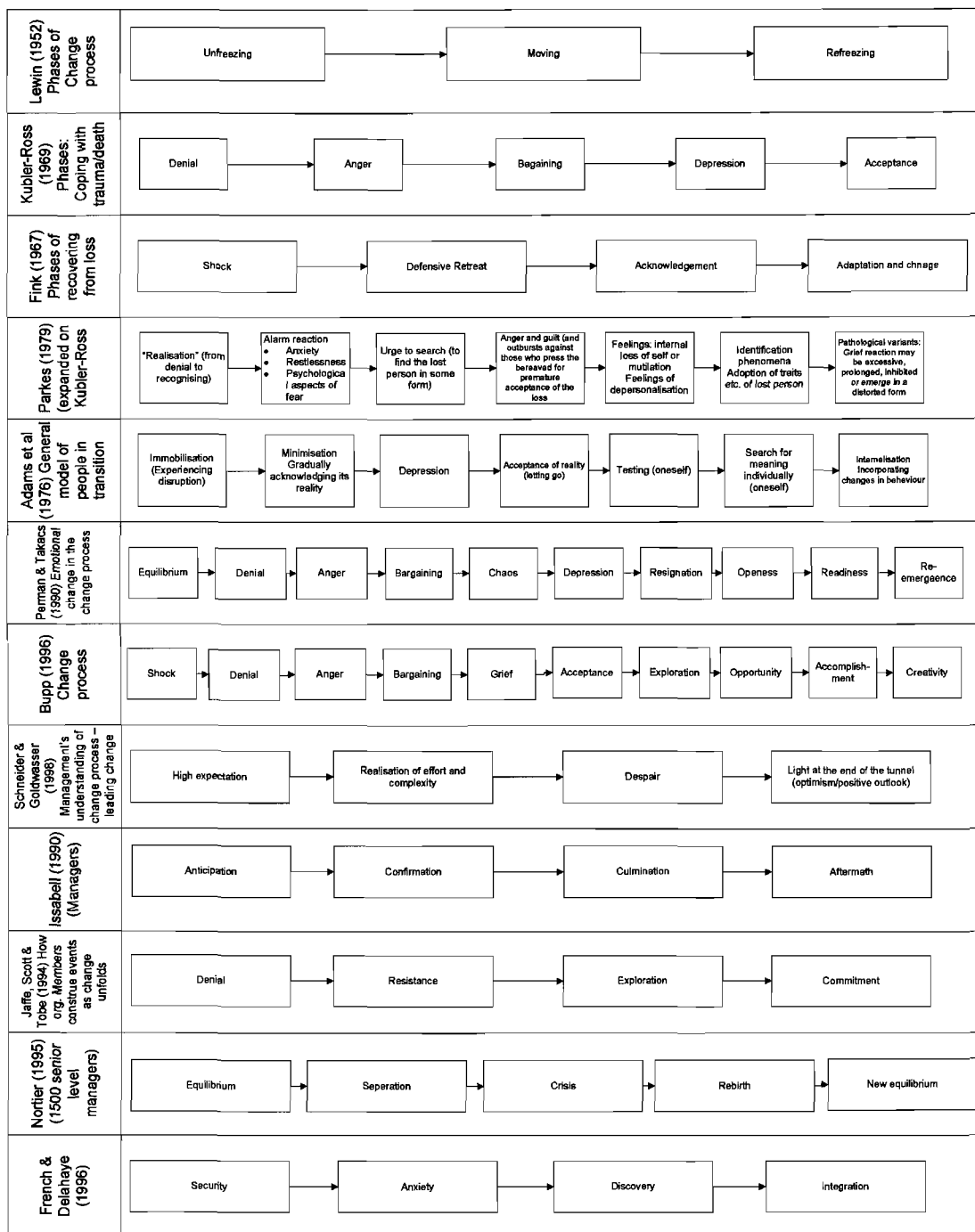
It isn't the changes that do you in it's the transitions. Change is situational: new policy, new boss, new site. Transition is the psychological process people go through to come to terms with the new situation. Change is external, transition is internal.

– William Bridges (1991) in Holbeche (2006:71)

Perceptions on transitions are sometimes formed from how it appears from the outside, but often it feels completely different from the inside – more like an organic development process. The field of study on transition psychology also looks at the deeper psychosocial factors that may impede natural transition processes and how individuals will respond to change (Van Tonder, 2006:163).

Change management is about helping people move through their transitions to a point where they are willing to move on psychologically in a positive way (Holbeche, 2006:72). When turning to the specific transition models that have been developed, it is evident that there are a variety of ways in which this process is segmented into different stages. It is also important to note that the models differ not only in terms of how they construe the stages through which a person moves, but certainly also in terms of the levels at which the transition takes place. For a comparison of some of the popular transition models, refer to Figure 2.8.

FIGURE 2-8 MODELS OF “TRANSITION” (INDIVIDUAL CHANGE)

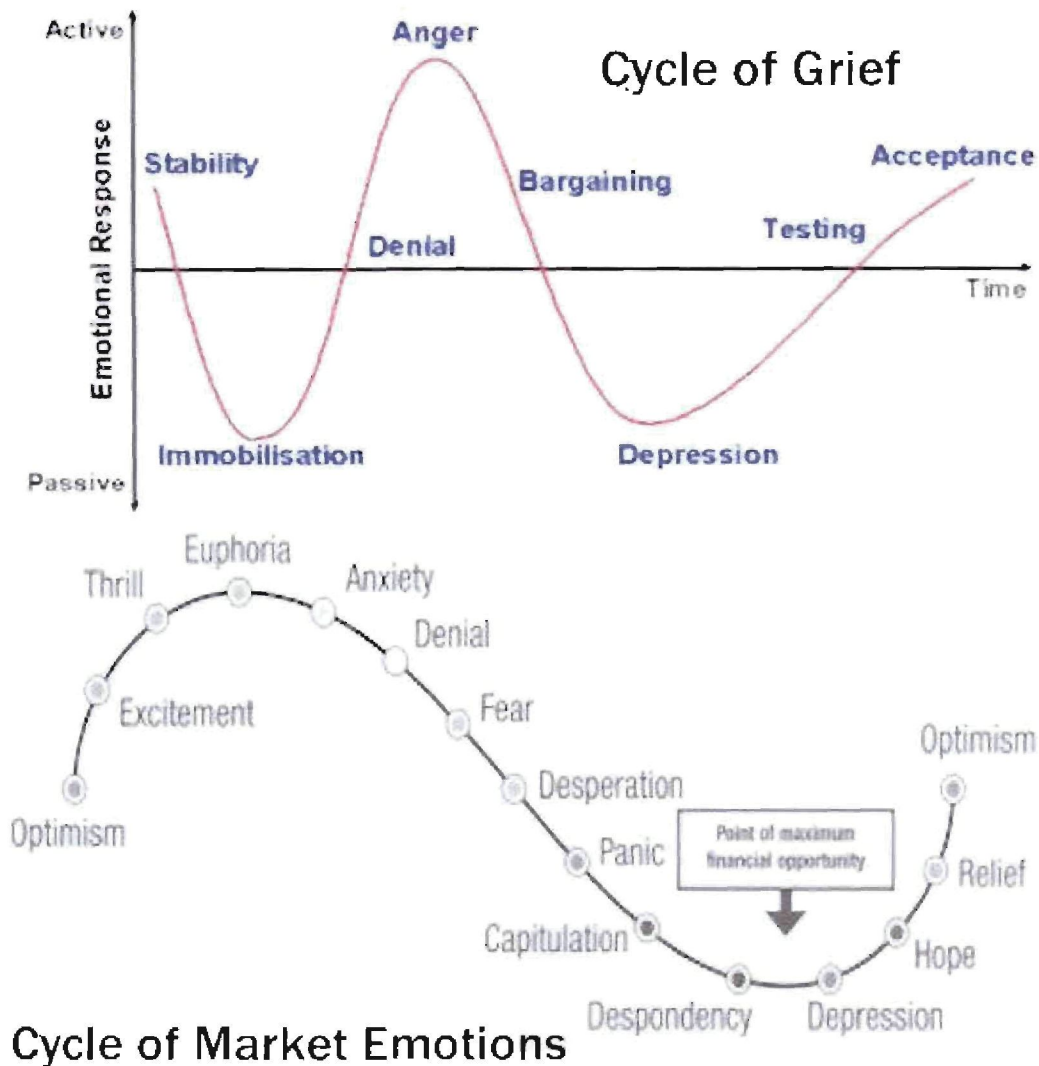


Van Tonder (2006:166)

One of the best-known models for describing the emotional transition process experienced by individuals in times of change is the five-stage model (denial, anger, bargaining, depression, acceptance) developed by Elisabeth Kubler-Ross published in her seminal work *On Death and Dying* in 1969 (Fig. 2.9) (Cameron & Green, 2005:27; Holbeche, 2006:72). This transition curve is considered a natural flow of emotions when change is experienced, though people can get stuck at any point. Individuals experience this process at different rates, places and times. The emotional roller coaster can last for different periods of time. An individual's change levers, such as beliefs, values, behaviour and skills are affected differently by change taking place at personal, professional and organisational levels (Holbeche, 2006:72).

When evaluating all the different models of transition over the decades, one common element seems to be that of human emotions. All change involves human emotions that need to be managed by all participants of the change process. This again supports the rationale for this specific research in the sense that emotions play a fatal role in change and this needs to be managed. The researcher is of the opinion that having a high level of Emotional Intelligence would contribute to more successful management of the emotions and will help individuals to move faster through the transition of change.

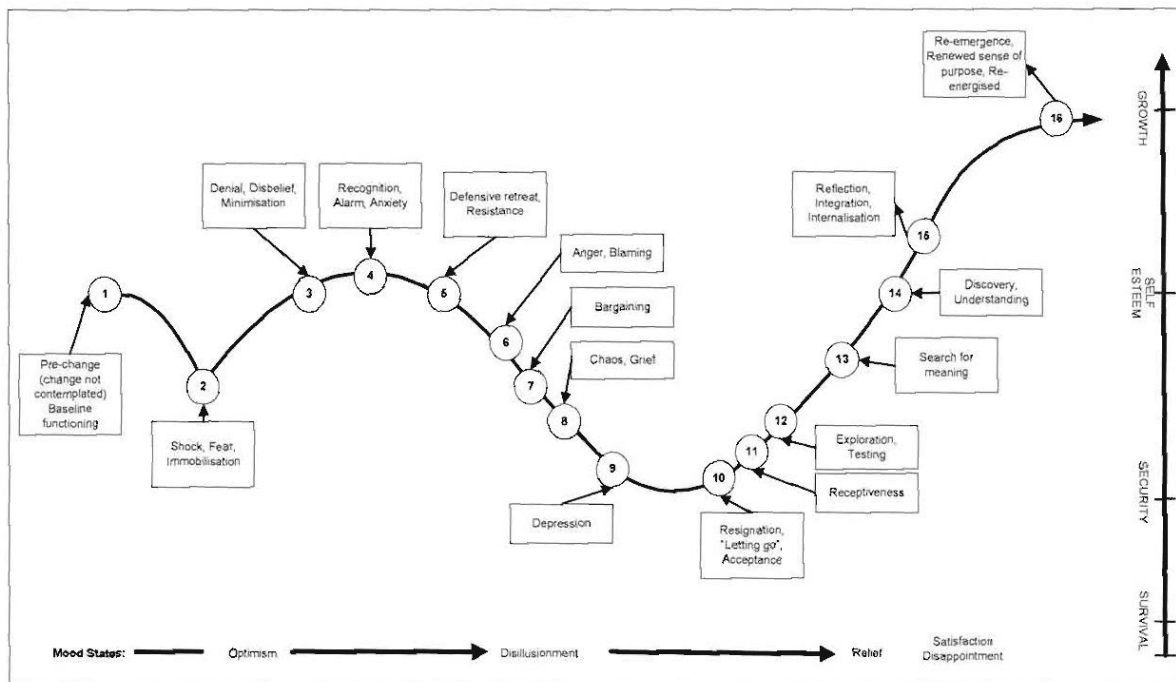
FIGURE 2-9 KUBLER-ROSS'S FIVE-STAGE MODEL



Adapted and Modified from Cameron & Green (2005:27)

Van Tonder (2006:167) offers an integration and consolidation of the multiple perspectives on the personal transition models presented in Figure 2.10. Van Tonder (2006:167) also highlights the notion of parallel dynamics and, indeed, the implied necessity for managers and human resource practitioners to gain a thorough understanding of the individual responses to change.

FIGURE 2-10 INDIVIDUAL CHANGE (“TRANSITION”)



Van Tonder (2006:168)

With reference to Figure 2.10, we observe that the human process of coming to terms with change at an interpersonal level incorporates cognitive and affective change. The personal change or transition process proceeds through an initial shock (2) that is accompanied by a brief experience of fear and a sense of immobilisation, but the individual recovers quickly from the shock by denying or discounting and trivialising the potential change (3). It is as though the prospect of change is rejected out of hand. However, as the preparatory mechanics of the change initiative become tangible, the person recognises that some changes are in the offing (4). Alarmed, the emotional system of the person is activated once again (after the initial brief shock) which prompts anxiety, which generates the energy for a “flight or fight” response. This energy eventually translates into resistance to a greater or lesser extent (5) (the intensity will depend on the perceived severity of the likely impact of the external change at a personal level). Underlying the notion of resistance is the conscious or unconscious belief that the change can be halted or reserved. However, as reality sets in with the

(often pre-conscious) recognition that resistance will not secure this objective, the emotional energy assumes the form of anger and frustration (6), which manifests in blaming behaviour, outbursts and criticism of others. With growing realism, the individual attempts to minimise the anticipated "loss" and the likely impact of the change through rationalisation and bargaining with him or herself (7). There is a sense of chaos characterised by confusion and disorientation, accompanied by emotions such as despair. Grief and depression set in when the final reality dawns and "bargaining" has failed (8).

The darkest stage in the cognitive-affective experience and the response to change (9) is described as the "death valley" of change. Though this stage contains the seeds of regeneration, it is the most traumatic and most dangerous of stages in coming to terms with change and the stage where support is most needed. It is also the point where the massive quantities of emotion that were generated with the recognition that change is real, now finally dissipate (10). Effectively, the emotional slate at this point has been wiped clean and with the build-up of emotional energy now removed, meaningful cognitive work can commence without interruption. In a sense, the descent into depression could be viewed as a protracted cathartic experience and the individual, on its completion, effectively lets go of the past and the immediate past (10). He or she is resigned to the consequences of the change and accepts the situation, which because of the uncontaminated emotional state at this point, translates into receptiveness for new beginnings (11). The "death valley" of change, of course, also signifies the moment where the cognitive schemata, as they pertain to the change process, work and organisation, have finally been relinquished in favour of either a new or substantially altered cognitive schema.

From this point onwards, the process assumes a far more prominent cognitive character, with the person beginning to explore new circumstances and new behaviour (12), testing these for effectiveness and searching for meaning at a deeper level (13). This process, during which the individual discovers new meanings and builds his understanding (14), is an active learning process made possible only by an earlier conscious and decisive "letting go" stage. This final "coming to terms" with the loss(es)

experienced during the process up to this point, is a prerequisite and an enabler for moving on to the next stage in the transition process. Eventually the person enters a period of intensified reflection (15) during which new learnings (new meanings) are integrated and internalised – new behaviour, beliefs and values are made part of the person's permanent make-up. The gains from the change process are, in effect solidified as part of day-to-day functioning and as a consequence, the person emerges re-energised with a renewed sense of purpose in the new context. In a work context, this point would signify the moment when the employee has accepted and committed to a new post, new status and other features that were initially feared, prior to the change.

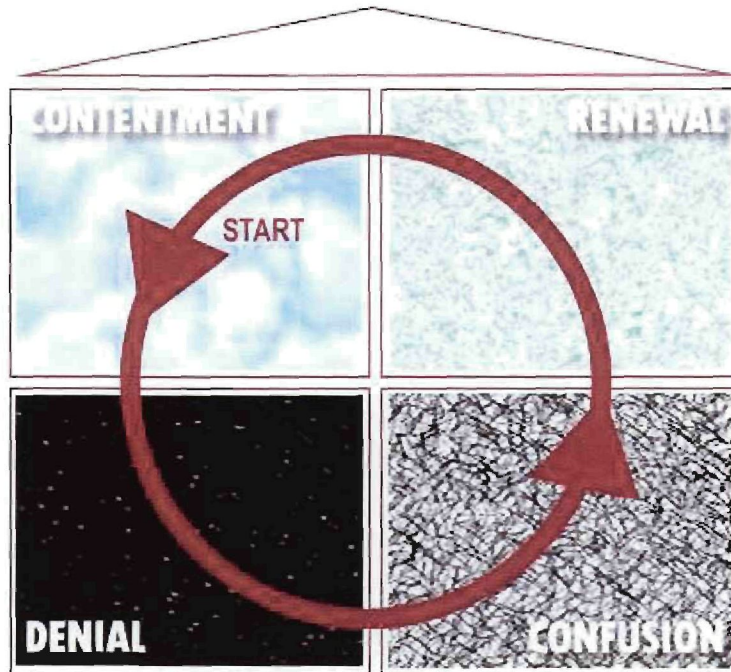
The researcher believes that it is important at this point to mention that transition can take place at both individual and organisational level. For the purpose of this research the researcher will not differentiate between the two, but will rather take a general look at transition from both the organisational as well as the individual perspective.

In a fable about surviving in an ever-changing world, Kotter and Rathgerber (2005:6–125) also shared the story of penguins in a penguin colony in Antarctica, faced with a transformation – their iceberg was melting. The eight steps of Kotter's change process, as previously mentioned, are discussed. Emotions relating to change, uncertainty, individual and organisational transition is discussed.

In 1982 Janssen presented the four-room apartment of change (Fig. 2.11), a model for understanding change as moving through psychological and behavioural states (Hind, 2005:269). In all changes, people move from contentment, which is lost via a period of denial, which is a defence of the old, through confusion, which ends when the insight comes that the old must be "given up". The "giving up" is the turning point that opens up the mind for new possibilities and the move to renewal is made.

FIGURE 2-11 JANSSEN'S FOUR-ROOM APARTMENT MODEL

Janssen's Four Room Apartment Model of Change



http://web.mit.edu/hr/oed/learn/change/art_four_room.html

The analysis of the individual transition process has highlighted the importance of assisting the employee and the manager at both the cognitive and affective level during the experience of change. Change expectance implies an alteration of the employee's schemata, to the point of allowing a more favourable orientation to the change. The institutional neglect of the emotional facets of work and change has in effect contributed to an approach that facilitates resistance to change. The cognitive "furniture" can only be rearranged or replaced by entering the "room" – unfortunately this is only possible through the "door" of emotion (Van Tonder, 2006:192).

People "cope" with change in different ways, as they seek to deal with internal and external demands. Several factors affect people's ability to cope. Harmful factors are when an individual has less perceived control over his or her life; less self-efficacy in

terms of the perceived ability to control a specific, threatening situation and when there is more instability within the working environment. What complicates things further, according to Holbeche (2006:72), is that people experience not single transitions, but multiple waves of change as different elements of change affect them. Ideally they need to adjust to each new transition before moving on, but in the real world this does not usually happen.

Leaders and followers often see change in very different ways. Leaders intend the change to happen and carefully think through the changes they believe will be for the good of the organisation (Holbeche, 2006:73). They initiate change and feel in control of it. For leaders, change is often:

- anticipated
- gradual
- incremental
- paced
- problem solvers
- a conscious decision
- new opportunities

However, other people than those who were involved in the original analysis and decision-making usually implement change. According to Holbeche (2006:73), for the 'followers', change becomes imposed and often as a very different impact. It can seem:

- unexpected
- sudden
- dramatic
- rapid
- to create problems
- imposed
- disruptive

Through the above discussion on individual transition, it is reasonable to assume that with major organisational change, managers/leaders will have experienced their own transitions and be emerging into the experimentation phase, just when other people are hearing the news for the first time and experiencing the lows. It is important for managers/leaders not to become out of touch with people's feelings and to understand that bridging the communication gap in these circumstances can be difficult.

The different phases discussed in the various models are characterised by certain emotions. It is critical for leaders to understand the impact of change on individuals' functioning (their own included). In the modern world where changes are the order of the day, the challenge is to spread transition awareness and management skills to all employees so as to optimise human behaviour

The challenge of leadership in the modern world is to effectively guide the change and transformation of individuals and groups/teams through the change cycle without disrupting job and organisational performance.

2.7 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

2.7.1 Background to resistance to change

It is often said that managing change is not about managing change; it's about managing people (Holbeche, 2006:66). Change does not take place in a vacuum and the effects of change on employees can be considerable (Holbeche, 2006:66).

A great deal has been written about resistance to change in organisations, reflecting the long-standing interest of both academics and practitioners in the nature and the causes of resistance, as well as how to overcome it (Giangreco & Peccei, 2005:1812). According to Sherman and Garland (2007:53) and Chonko, Roberts and Jones (2006:45) organisational studies have examined resistance to change for more than 50 years (Lewin, 1947; Coch & French, 1948; Lawrence, 1954; Adams et al, 2004).

In this section the researcher will not only give an idea of how much has been written on the general concept of resistance to change, but will also indicate the modest attention given to the idea of Emotional Intelligence with regard to playing a role in managing resistance to change. The previous statement supports the rationale for this specific research, as not much attention has been given to the role of Emotional Intelligence when talking about the management of resistance to change.

The term “resistance to change” was analysed by Del Val and Fuentes (2003:149) who found that, on the one hand, resistance is a phenomenon that affects the change process, delaying or slowing down its beginning, obstructing or hindering its implementation, and increasing costs. On the other hand, resistance is any conduct that tries to keep the status quo, that is to say, resistance is equivalent to inertia, as is the persistence to avoid change. So inertia and thus resistance are not negative concepts in general, since change is not inherently beneficial for organisations (Del Val & Fuentes, 2003:149). Even more, resistance could show change managers certain aspects that were not properly considered in the change process.

According to Bovey and Hede (2001:372) resistance is a natural and normal response to change because change often involves going from the known to the unknown. Much truth is to be found in this oversimplified account of “resistance”. This truth is at the root of the exceedingly high failure rate among corporate change programmes, yet remains little recognised. Research by Karn and Highfill in (Chonko, Roberts & Jones, 2006:44) even suggests that change initiatives achieve their goals only 40–60 percent of the time.

Multiple reasons for resistance are cited in the literature. For example, Mabin, Forgeson and Green (2001:170) propose that resistance is caused by factors such as:

- *Individual factors:* personality factors (high need for control, locus of control, need for achievement, etc.); attitudes based on previous experiences of change.
- *Group factors:* group cohesiveness, social norms and participation in decision-making.

- *Organisational factors*: threats presented by the unknown, challenges to the status quo; workload consequences.

Van Tonder (2006:183) argues that the most prominent reasons for resistance relate to the individual employee's experience of a:

- threat to his security, self-interest, established habits and freedom to engage in preferred behaviour
- loss of control, status, routines, traditions, relationships, security and competence
- fear of the unknown and failure, as well as a lack of support, confidence and trust – where lack of support and confidence may suggest an underlying experience of threat and/or fear.

Coetsee (2003:202) proposes that resistance to change is based on individual perceptions, which is a result of one or more factors such as:

- experience;
- information, knowledge, insight;
- emotional maturity and adaptability;
- extent of openness or fixedness, and;
- self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficacy.

The real reasons for resistance, according to Coetsee (2003:202), can be seated primarily in one or a combination of the following:

- the environment (e.g. the existing organisation culture and/or climate);
- the particular system or sub-system (organisation, department, job level); and
- the individual him-/herself (fear, external locus of control, low self-efficacy, fear of failure, etc.).

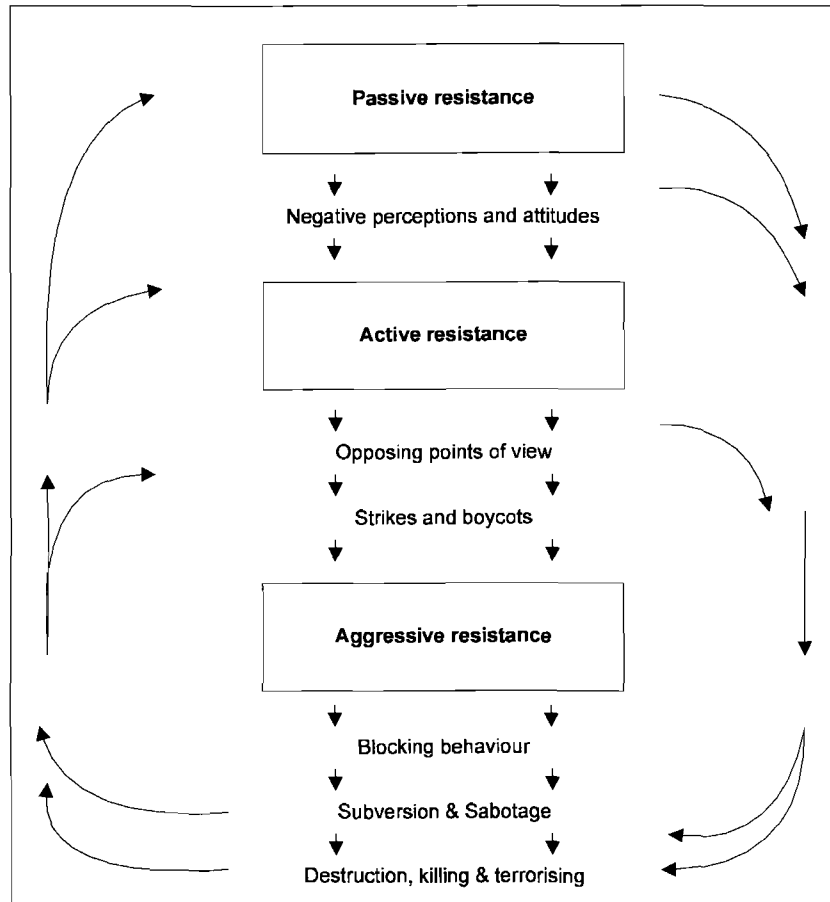
Swanepoel et al (2003:20) identified the fear of the unknown, habits, self-interest, economic insecurity, failure to recognise the need for change, general mistrust, social

disruption and selective perceptions as factors that contribute to resistance to change at an individual level. At an organisational level, they identified structural inertia, cultural inertia, work group inertia, threats to existing power relationships, threats to expertise, threats to resource allocation and previous unsuccessful change efforts as organisational factors in the way of successful change management interventions.

The researcher finds it evident that resistance is likely to be caused not by a single factor, but by multiple factors which reside in the broader context, the organisation as well as in the individual and which only serve to complicate attempts to deal with resistance. Factors causing resistance, such as a fear of the unknown, a loss of control, lack of confidence and so on, are unavoidably mediated by perceptions.

According to Kotter and Schlesinger (1991:68) all people who are affected by change experience some emotional turmoil. Even changes that appear to be “positive” or “rational” involve loss and uncertainty. For a number of different reasons, individuals or groups can react very differently to change. Coetsee (1999:209, 2003:205) articulated a common thread in the change resistance literature – that resistance to change involves a continuum of behaviour ranging from passive resistance to aggressive resistance including sabotage (Fig. 2.12). Not only do individuals experience change in different ways, they also differ in their ability and willingness to adapt to change (Bovey & Hede, 2001:372).

FIGURE 2-12 THE KINDS OF RESISTANCE TO CHANGE



Coetsee (2003:205)

In a review of past empirical research, Piderit (2000:783–794) revealed three different emphases in conceptualisations of resistance as a cognitive state, as an emotional state and as a behaviour. Sherman & Garland (2007:55) supports this view and gave an example of how resistance to change may be preceded by a stage of cognitive unreadiness; cognitive unreadiness to change may trigger resistant behaviour as a self-defence mechanism and resistant behaviour could trigger emotional frustration and aggression. According to Sherman and Garland (2007:55) any conceptualisation of resistance to change, that does not seek to integrate the three states, is incomplete.

Bartunek (1993) in Chonko, Roberts and Jones (2006:45) observed that most discussions of change resistance, however, are from the perspective of the change agent. Any behaviour not in line with the change agent's notions of change is viewed as resistance. Ford, Ford and D'Amelio (2008:362) strongly support this view with current research arguing that the predominant perspective on resistance is decidedly one-sided, in favour of change agents and their sponsors. According to Ford, Ford and D'Amelio (2008:362) studies of change appear to take the perspective, or bias, of those seeking to bring about change, in which it is presumed that change agents are doing the right and proper things while change recipients throw up unreasonable obstacles or barriers intent on "doing in" or "screwing up" the change. Accordingly, change agents are portrayed as undeserving victims of the irrational and dysfunctional responses of change recipients.

The researcher strongly agrees with the abovementioned statements. During the review of literature on resistance to change, the majority of discussions or research tends to be from the view of the change agent. It is as if literature on change and resistance to change, tend to focus on improvements that can be brought about by change agents in order to have a higher success rate during the implementation of change initiatives. Not much has been written on how individuals experience this change and why they tend to resist it.

Ford, Ford and D'Amelio (2008:363) expanded the resistance story in three ways: Firstly, by considering resistance as a self-serving and potentially self-fulfilling label, given by change agents attempting to make sense of change recipients' reactions to change initiatives, rather than a literal description of an objective reality. Secondly, by examining the ways in which change agents contribute to the occurrence of the very reactions they label as resistance through their own actions and indications, such as the breach of agreements and failure to restore trust, which imply that resistance is neither a sudden nor a direct response to a particular instance of change, but rather a function of the quality of the relationship between agents and recipients in which change agents are and have been active participants and contributors. Thirdly, by considering that there are circumstances, which agents call resistance, can be a positive contribution to

change. By assuming that resistance is necessarily bad, change agents have missed its potential contributions of increasing the likelihood of successful implementation, helping build awareness and momentum for change and eliminating unnecessary, impractical or counter-productive elements in the design or conduct of the change process.

2.7.2 Managing resistance to change

Management unquestionably performs a critical role in bringing about change and initiating appropriate change responses to environmental demands. The pivotal role of management in change has been articulated from many different perspectives. As previously mentioned it is obvious that the manager is the primary interface or buffer between environmental change that necessitates adaptation by the organisation and the organisation's employees, who have to be redirected in terms of their focus, output and responsibilities as part of an internal change effort.

Kotter (1995:25) indicates that leadership also has a potentially destructive role in change processes. He argues that nothing could undermine change efforts more than the behaviour of important individuals who are inconsistent, such as managers who refuse to change and make demands that are inconsistent with the overall change effort. Managers are unfortunately, ill equipped to deal with change and its management. The importance and impact of leadership in the process of managing change and resistance to change will be briefly discussed in paragraph 2.9 of the literature study.

According to Schein (1986) most studies of organisational change have shown that employees resist social change more than technical change (though these are not separate in practice) and change programmes that ignore psychological resistance to change are likely to fail, irrespective of the way the desired new attitudes are presented (Alas & Sharifi, 2002:316). It is furthermore suggested that resistance to change should be treated as a normal part of adaptation to change, by creating a climate in which

people will take risks and by facilitating their participation in decision-making processes (Alas & Sharifi, 2002:316).

Some researchers tried to identify steps or processes to be followed in order to overcome this resistance to change. Some of these strategies will be discussed in the following section.

Kotter and Schlesinger (1991:68) present six strategies for facilitating change and overcoming resistance:

- *Education and communication* – One of the most common ways to overcome resistance to change is to educate people about it beforehand. Communication of ideas helps people see the need for and the logic of a change. The education process can involve one-on-one discussions, presentations to groups or memos and reports. An education and communication programme can be ideal when resistance is based on inadequate or inaccurate information and analysis.
- *Participation and involvement* – If the initiators involve the potential resisters in some aspect of the design and implementation of the change, they can often forestall resistance. With a participative change effort, the initiators listen to the people who will be involved with the change and use their advice.
- *Facilitation and support* – Another way in which managers can deal with potential resistance to change is by being supportive. This process might include providing training in new skills, or giving employees time off after a demanding period, or simply listening and providing emotional support. Facilitation and support are most helpful when fear and anxiety lie at the heart of resistance.
- *Negotiation and agreement* – A way to deal with resistance is to offer incentives to active or potential resisters. Negotiation is particularly appropriate when it is clear that someone is going to lose out as the result of a change and yet his or her power to resist is significant.
- *Manipulation and co-option* – In some situations managers also resort to converting attempts to influence others. Manipulation, in this context, normally involves the very selective use of information and the conscious structuring of

events. One common form of manipulation is co-option. Co-opting an individual usually involves giving him or her a desirable role in the design or implementation of the change.

- *Explicit and implicit coercion* – Managers often deal with resistance coercively. Here they essentially force people to accept a change by explicitly or implicitly threatening them (with the loss of jobs, promotion possibilities and so forth) or by actually firing or transferring them.

Building on Kotter and Schlesinger's strategies, Coetsee (2003:204) proposed six steps for managing resistance to change, Table 2.2.

TABLE 2-2 STEPS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Step one	Determine system's readiness and susceptibility to change Readiness and susceptibility are determined by the existence of a culture which accepts change and also by how change was managed in the past.
Step two	Identify sources of resistance Sources can be classified as follows: individual, formal groups or resistance coalitions.
Step three	Determine the nature of resistance Three categories exist: passive, active and aggressive resistance.
Step four	Diagnose reasons for resistance Reasons include phenomena based in the individual or social system or in the environment (culture).
Step five	Select, develop and implement specific resistance management strategies directed at resistance of each source Strategies include: negotiation, co-optation, providing information, training, manipulation, convincing and rewarding and/or the practical use of the aligned-commitment equation.
Step six	Evaluate the success of the resistance management effort If the effort is successful – manage it. If not successful, go back to step one.

Coetsee (2003:204)

Senge (1990:158), on the other hand, suggests not pushing harder to overcome resistance, but discerning the source of resistance. That is, we need to focus on the implicit norms and power relationships within which the norms are embedded. Senge (1990:158) is also strongly associated with the concept of the learning organisation, which is considered a tool for increasing an organisation's ability to adapt to change.

Knowledge of change in and of itself, however, is no guarantee for successful change. Pertinent skills are required in this regard. In general, managers are not skilled to deal with matters of change (and therefore emotion) and as a result, it is often under-managed (Van Tonder, 2005:190). Even in those instances where facilitation and management efforts are approached cautiously, an emotional experience of the change at individual level is unavoidable – regardless of the scope and type of the change experienced and whether the employee is a “driver”, victim or survivor.

Managers at once absorb and initiate change – they both experience and bring on negative consequences and impact of change. They face constant change that borders on chaos and are consequently forced to engage endeavours for which guiding parameters are only established while the change initiative is in progress. The manager is consequently left with the challenging task of dealing with greater levels of uncertainty than before, while the range and scope of “change demands” of course increase pressure on the manager, which contributes to feelings of despair, inadequacy and helplessness.

This brings the researcher to the important topic of Emotional Intelligence, which in fact, is part of the crux of this specific research. The topic of Emotional Intelligence will be explored in more detail in the following sections.

2.8 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Everyone can become angry – that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way – this is not easy.

- Aristotle (in Goleman, 1995:ix)

The researcher believes that the importance of Emotional Intelligence could not be explained more clearly than in the abovementioned words of Aristotle. The importance of managing oneself and your emotions and the influence this will have on managing other people and in effect also resistance to change from employees, will therefore be explored in detail in the following section.

Since the publication of the best-selling book *Emotional Intelligence* by Daniel Goleman (1995), the topic of Emotional Intelligence has witnessed unparalleled interest. But what, exactly, is Emotional Intelligence? As in the case with all constructs, several schools of thought exist which aim to most accurately describe and measure the notion of Emotional Intelligence (Stys & Brown, 2004:1).

At the most general level, Emotional Intelligence refers to the ability to recognise and regulate emotions in ourselves and others (Stys & Brown, 2004:1). Peter Salovey and John Mayer, who originally used the term “emotional intelligence” in published writing, initially defined Emotional Intelligence as:

A form of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions.

– Salovey and Mayer (1990:185)

Later these authors revised their definition of Emotional Intelligence, the current characterisation being the most widely accepted. The updated definition of Emotional Intelligence is:

The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understanding, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth.

– Salovey and Mayer, 1997 in Stys & Brown, 2004:1

Another prominent researcher of the Emotional Intelligence construct is Reuven Bar-On, the originator of the term “Emotion Quotient”. Possessing a slightly different outlook, he defines Emotional Intelligence as being concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands (Bar-On, 2004:13). Bar-On’s definition of Emotional Intelligence is:

Emotional Intelligence is an array of non-cognitive abilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 2004:13).

The researcher supports the definition of Bar-On and will use this definition of Emotional Intelligence as the foundation for this research.

It is clear that there is a distinct difference between the construct of Emotional Intelligence and that of the standard intelligence form of Intelligence Quotient.

Intelligence Quotient (IQ) was developed and used during the initial part of the twentieth century as a measure of intelligence (Stys & Brown, 2004:2). However, the validity of the general academic measure of IQ was soon challenged on the grounds that it did not consider situational factors such as environment or cultural setting when predicting

achievement. Theorists began to hypothesise that perhaps several types of intelligence could coincide within one person.

An influential psychologist in the areas of learning, education and intelligence, Robert Thorndike, proposed that humans possess several types of intelligence, one form being called social intelligence, or the ability to understand and manage men and women to act wisely in human relations (Thorndike, 1920 in Stys & Brown, 2004:2). Even David Wechsler, the originator of the Weschler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) intelligence test, referred to both non-intellectual and intellectual elements in intelligence. The non-intellectual elements are hypothesised to predict one's ability to succeed in life (Wechsler, 1940, in Stys & Brown, 2004:2). Later in the century, Howard Gardner again raised the notion of multiple intelligences. A Harvard-educated developmental psychologist, Gardner proposed a theory of multiple intelligences which dictated that individuals possess aptitudes in several areas, including verbal, mathematical, musical, spatial, movement-oriented and environmental spheres. These intelligences were thought by Gardner to be as important as the type of intelligence typically measured by IQ tests (Gardner 1983, in Stys & Brown, 2004:2).

The concept of Emotional Intelligence adds depth to the understanding of what intelligence or intelligent behaviour is. Broadly speaking, Emotional Intelligence addresses the emotional, personal, social, and survival dimensions of intelligence, vitally important in daily functioning. The less cognitive part of intelligence is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, adapting to and coping with our immediate surroundings. These factors increase our ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands. Emotional Intelligence is tactical and immediate and as such reflects a person's commonsense and ability to get along in the world (Bar-On, 2004:1).

2.8.1 Models of Emotional Intelligence

Early theorists such as Thorndike and Gardner paved the way for the current experts in the field of Emotional Intelligence. Each theoretical paradigm conceptualises Emotional Intelligence from one of two perspectives: ability or mixed model (Stys & Brown, 2004:4). The ability model regards Emotional Intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and thus as a pure intelligence.

Currently, the only ability model of Emotional Intelligence is that proposed by John Mayer and Peter Salovey. In contrast to ability models are mixed models of Emotional Intelligence, which combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and wellbeing (Stys & Brown, 2004:4).

Two mixed models of Emotional Intelligence have been proposed. Reuven Bar-On has put forth a model based within the context of the personality theory, emphasising the co-dependence of the ability aspects of Emotional Intelligence with personality traits and their application to personal wellbeing (Bar-On, 2004:13). In contrast, Daniel Goleman proposed a mixed model in terms of performance, integrating individuals' abilities and personalities and applying their corresponding effects on performance in the workplace (Goleman, 2001, in Stys & Brown, 2004:4).

2.8.2 Salovey and Mayer: An ability model of Emotional Intelligence

Peter Salovey and John Mayer first coined the term "Emotional Intelligence" in 1990 (Salovey & Mayer, 1990:185–211) and have since continued to conduct research on the significance of the construct. Their pure theory of Emotional Intelligence integrates key ideas from the fields of intelligence and emotion. From the intelligence theory comes the idea that intelligence involves the capacity to carry out abstract reasoning. From emotion research comes the notion that emotions are signals that convey regular and discernible meanings about relationships and that a number of basic emotions are

universal. It is proposed that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. They then posit that this ability is seen to manifest in certain adaptive behaviour (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000 in Stys & Brown, 2004:4).

2.8.3 Bar-On: A mixed model of Emotional Intelligence

Reuven Bar-On developed one of the first measures of Emotional Intelligence that used the term “Emotion Quotient” (EQ). Bar-On’s model of Emotional Intelligence relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance itself or success itself and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented (Bar-On, 2004:10). It focuses on an array of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand and express oneself, the ability to be aware of, understand and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong emotions and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of social or personal nature (Bar-On, 2004:13–14).

Bar-On hypothesises that those individuals with higher than average EQ are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in Emotional Intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems.

In general Bar-On considers Emotional Intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person’s general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one’s potential to succeed in life (Bar-On, 2004:10).

In the following section the researcher will take a look at the different models and tests developed over time by different individuals in order to measure the concept of Emotional Intelligence.

2.8.3.1 Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) components and subscales

The researcher will only give a brief description of the different scales and sub-scales comprising the Bar-On EQ-I. A more detailed discussion will follow in Chapter 3, as this specific measurement will be used as part of the empirical study.

The EQ-I consists of a single overall Emotional Intelligence score called “Total EQ”. This “Total EQ” is broken down into the five composite scales: Intra-personal, Inter-personal, Stress Management, Adaptability and General Mood (Bar-On, 2004:15). These five scales are each made up of two to five specific factors, for a total of fifteen competencies. It is these fifteen factors that give the real “meat” (Hughes, Patterson & Terrell, 2005:18). Following are the five scales and fifteen factors:

- *Intra-personal EQ*
 - Self-regard
 - Emotional self-awareness
 - Assertiveness
 - Independence
 - Self-actualisation
- *Interpersonal EQ*
 - Empathy
 - Social responsibility
 - Interpersonal relationships
- *Stress management EQ*
 - Stress tolerance
 - Impulse control
- *Adaptability*
 - Reality testing
 - Flexibility
 - Problem solving
- *General mood*
 - Optimism

- Happiness

2.8.4 Goleman: A mixed model of Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman, a psychologist and science writer who has previously written for the *New York Times* on the brain and behaviour, discovered the work of Salovey and Mayer in the 1990s. Inspired by their findings, he began to conduct his own research on the area and eventually wrote *Emotional Intelligence* in 1995, the landmark book that familiarised both public and private sectors with the idea of Emotional Intelligence. Goleman's model outlines four main Emotional Intelligence constructs. The first, self-awareness, is the ability to read one's emotions and recognise their impact while using gut feelings to guide decision. Self-management, the second construct, involves controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances. The third construct, social awareness, includes the ability to sense, understand and react to others' emotions while comprehending social networks. Finally, relationship management, the fourth construct, entails the ability to inspire, influence and develop others while managing conflict.

The constructs and the competencies which underlie the various constructs, fall in one of four categories: the recognition of emotions in oneself or others and regulation of emotions in oneself or others.

2.8.5 Other models

Several measures of Emotional Intelligence used in scientific research, particularly those sold for the use in industrial and organisational settings, are not based on any of the aforementioned theories of Emotional Intelligence (Stys & Brown, 2004:19). Two of these measures will be discussed briefly.

2.8.5.1 The Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS)

The Levels of Emotional Intelligence Scale is a self-report measure of Emotional Intelligence intended to assess the extent to which people are aware of emotions in both themselves and others. The measure is based on a hierarchical theory of Emotional Intelligence, more specifically of emotional self-awareness, which consists of five sub-levels. The Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale consists of 20 scenarios involving two people and an emotion-eliciting situation (Lane, 1990:124–134).

An independent review of the Levels of Emotional Intelligence Scale concluded that it is only minimally related to Emotional Intelligence and would more accurately be classified as a measure of processing style rather than ability (Ciarrochi, Caputi & Mayer, 2003:1477–1490).

2.8.5.2 The Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT)

The Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test is a 33-item self-report measure of Emotional Intelligence developed by Schutte et al (1998:167–177). Initially based on early writings by Salovey and Mayer, the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test has been criticised for not properly mapping on to the Salovey and Mayer model of Emotional Intelligence and thus measuring a different concept of Emotional Intelligence. This criticism stems from the fact that the original Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test consisted of 62 items, which mapped on to the original model of Emotional Intelligence by Salovey and Mayer. However, factor analysis resulted in a single-factor, 33-item measure, which did not accurately reflect the principles of the model (Petrides & Furnham, 2000:313–320).

2.8.6 Comparing models

Despite the existence of distinctly different models of Emotional Intelligence, there are theoretical and statistical similarities between the various conceptions. On a global level, all of the models aim to understand and measure the elements involved in the

recognition of one's own emotions and the emotions of others (Goleman, 2001 in Stys & Brown, 2004:23).

All models agree that there are certain key components to Emotional Intelligence and there is even some consensus on what those components are. For example, all three main models of Emotional Intelligence implicate the awareness (or perception) of emotions and the management of emotions as being key elements in being an emotionally intelligent individual (Stys & Brown, 2004:23). There is also evidence that different measures of Emotional Intelligence are related and may be measuring similar components.

2.9 LEADERSHIP

The research topic of the role of Emotional Intelligence in managing resistance to change, limits it to focus on the concept of Emotional Intelligence and management thereof. The researcher, however, feels it is necessary to highlight the importance of leadership in the process of leading change and also the importance of Emotional Intelligence for successful leadership. A distinct connection has been made between the concept of transformational leadership and successful management. Literature reveals that the concept of Emotional Intelligence forms a crucial part of transformational leadership.

The following section will therefore take a glance at this topic and will also provide evidence of current research that started to dig into the correlation between Emotional Intelligence and leadership, especially transformational leadership.

Contrasting the comparatively recent emergence of Emotional Intelligence, researchers have been studying leadership and leadership development since the days of Aristotle and Plato (Cavins, 2005:20). Yet according to Cavins (2005:20), even with numerous years of research and countless books on leadership, a clearly defined and universally accepted definition of leadership and leadership theory continues to elude researchers

and practitioners (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998; Rost, 1991; Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990 and Gardener, 1990).

Leadership and effective leadership are still obscure, ambiguous and controversial constructs in the literature. Many researchers have focused on a leader's ability to effectively navigate and successfully lead in the chaotic and turbulent world of modern society (Cavins, 2005:22).

2.9.1 Leadership, change and Emotional Intelligence

Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2003:246) explained that, "... leaders everywhere confront a set of irrevocable, changing realities driven by profound social, political, economic and technological changes. Our world is in the midst of transformational change, calling for new leadership". During this chaotic period, it is most important for organisational leaders to stay attuned to their own emotional reaction to pressures, as well as how those environmental pressures affect their constituents (Cavins, 2005:1). Therefore, current research has focused on the importance of Emotional Intelligence in relation to leadership effectiveness (Goleman et al, 2002; Stein & Book, 2000; Hoggs, 2002 in Cavins, 2005:1).

To embrace the rapid change that exists in society today, studies in the area of leadership effectiveness demonstrate the importance of collaborative, caring, empathetic, people-centred and motivated leadership skills (Higgs, 2002; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2001 in Cavins, 2005:35). Transformational leadership models are considered effective models for change environments, primarily because of the leaders' ability to create and manage strong relationships that hold the organisation together in times of uncertainty (Cavins, 2005:36). When discussing change and the benefits of transformational leadership, Goleman (1998:196) explained that transformational leadership "goes beyond management as usual; such leaders are able to rouse people through sheer power of their own enthusiasm". Goleman went on to explain that effective leaders do not bark out orders or direct their constituents; they inspire. Similarly, Emotional Intelligence has been widely defined as one's ability to identify and

manage one's own emotions, as well as understand and empathise with the emotions of others.

Both theoretical and empirical studies provide evidence for the relationship between a leader's emotional competencies, including self-awareness, emotional expressivity, self-monitoring and empathy and a range of important leadership outcomes (Groves, 2006:567). In short, research suggests that leaders with greater emotional competencies are more likely to display visionary leadership behaviour, which demonstrates impressive effects at the organisational, group and individual levels (Groves, 2006:567). Ashkanasy and Tse in (Groves, 2006:567) describe transformational leadership as the management of emotion and assert that transformational leaders engage followers by conveying an inspiring vision through emotional language and communication. Also suggested is that transformational leaders have an understanding and intuition about followers' needs and values, which lead to greater inter-personal sensitivity and higher quality relationships with followers.

Goleman, in his book *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998:10), acknowledges that the roots of Emotional Intelligence, as he defines it, are in classic management theory. In 1995 Katz argued that the performance of an effective administrator depends on three sets of fundamental skills – technical skill, conceptual skill and human skill, or “the way the individual perceives (and recognises the perceptions of) his superiors, equals and subordinates in the way he behaves subsequently” (Leban, Zulauf, 2004:557).

Goleman (1998:315) made connections between Emotional Intelligence and leadership practices in which he boldly claimed that highly emotional intelligent leaders and work teams contribute significantly to the “bottom line”. Also noted in Groves (2006:567), several aspects of Emotional Intelligence are critical for transformational leaders who score highly on visionary leadership. Overall, many leadership scholars agree that the potency of visionary leadership behaviour depends heavily on one's ability to exercise emotional competencies (Groves, 2006:567).

In addition to theoretical contributions, several empirical studies provide support for the relationships among emotional competencies and leadership effectiveness. Sosik (2001:490) found that self-awareness, a key aspect of many contemporary models of Emotional Intelligence predicted charismatic leadership and managerial performance.

Dulewicz and Higgs (1999) and Alimo-Metcalfe (1999) also formulated a proposition that there is a relationship between Emotional Intelligence and transformational leadership (in Leban & Zulauf, 2004:557). Their comparison is in Table 2. 3.

TABLE 2-3 LINKAGE BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Emotional Intelligence factors (Dulewicz & Higgs)	Transformational leadership factors (Alimo-Metcalfe)
Self-awareness	Individual consideration
Emotional resilience	Decisive, achieving, determined
Motivation	Involves others in values
Interpersonal sensitivity	Networks
Influence	Change management
Decisiveness	Accessible
Conscientiousness and integrity	Intellectual versatility (integrity/openness)

Leban & Zulauf (2004:557)

Across all of the empirical research linking Emotional Intelligence competencies and visionary leadership to date, the most robust finding is that effective visionary leaders have the ability to powerfully communicate a compelling vision that inspires followers (Groves, 2006:568). Research suggests that such leaders rely upon various non-verbal, emotional communication skills to powerfully articulate their vision for the organisation and followers' respective roles in the future state. The effectiveness of visionary leadership behaviour is largely dependent upon the non-verbal, emotional communication skills that deliver the message (Groves, 2006:568).

Emotional Intelligence combines the cognitive system, which orients us to what makes sense to the emotional system and further leads us to what matters. This enables leaders to provide the leadership necessary to successfully operate in an ever-changing business environment. Positive emotional leadership is a necessity in times of chaos and change because constituents closely examine and emulate or “mirror” their leaders’ behaviour and actions (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002, in Cavins, 2005:36).

In the light of the rapid world changes, a leader’s ability to facilitate and encourage change is a hot topic. Being accurately aware of emotions and the meaning thereof, provides Emotionally Intelligent managers with a solid base of understanding of themselves and of others. Along with understanding and interpreting emotions, it is equally important for leaders to understand the impact of emotions on individuals. It is important for leaders to acknowledge that most people are resistant to change; however, the emotionally intelligent leaders identify, empathise with and acknowledge resistance and then communicate the need for change and clarify a road map towards successful implementation. Building effective interpersonal relationships is the foundation of the emotionally intelligent leader.

2.10 CONCLUSION OF LITERATURE STUDY

Chapter 2 represents the literature study that was done for understanding the need for investigation on the important topic of Emotional Intelligence in business, especially in dealing with the concept of resistance to change.

The concept of change was studied in more detail in terms of the background and multiple definitions thereof. It became clear during research that the concept of change in organisations has been widely studied by various researchers and is a common thought in literature. This was evident through all the different models of change mentioned in the literature.

The term “resistance to change”, however, has not been studied to the depth the researcher thought it would be. This notion supports the motivation for this research.

The topic of Emotional Intelligence was studied in detail and it became evident that there is a definite connection between Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change owing to the emotions individuals experience during change initiatives. Emotional Intelligence comes into play when these emotions need to be managed. This could either be done by the individual or by a manager who needs to manage the emotions of other.

The knowledge gained from the literature study will be applied during the empirical study as discussed in chapter 3 and the conclusions and recommendations in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 3. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH STUDY

3.1 INTRODUCTION TO EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The following chapter will build on the findings of the literature study in chapter 2. The researcher will begin the chapter by giving some background information on Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd, the organisation where the empirical research for this dissertation was done. The research process followed will be described, providing detail on the methods and questionnaires used during the research. The research results and interpretations will also be discussed in order to come to the necessary research conclusions in chapter 4.

3.2 BACKGROUND OF LEFATSHE TECHNOLOGIES (PTY) LTD

Lefatshe Technologies is a South African, black-owned company providing best-of-breed I.T. solutions for the Southern African market through partnerships with the world's leading software companies. Backed by experienced and highly qualified technical resources, Lefatshe aims to deliver focused solutions and services to its client base. It counts many government departments and blue-chip companies among its clients and partners.

Lefatshe Technologies brings together dynamic I.T. professionals who share a common vision. In August 2005, Lefatshe merged 50 years of combined experience in the information communication and technology (ICT) sector to form Lefatshe Technologies, today recognised as a formidable player in the South African market.

Lefatshe's vision is to be a leading South African technology company by ensuring security through partnership.

Lefatshe's strategic intent is to provide ICT security solutions and consulting services to assist their partners with shareholder demands regarding corporate governance and government legislation.

Lefatshe's mission is commitment to excellence to ensure that they create sustainable partnerships with South African institutions and companies as well as with their technology partners.

The experience Lefatshe has gained working with their security partners within the largest South African organisations enables them to effectively address their clients' needs, culminating in a transfer of skills – an essential factor in ensuring the effectiveness of any solution. Security through partnership involves the maximum leverage of all Lefatshe's experience:

- An ongoing commitment to their technology partners to maintain their position.
- Ensuring that their SME partners share their commitment to technological excellence and promotion of I.T. skills within the previously disadvantaged community.
- Building on their experience to ensure that Lefatshe and its partners play a strategic role in the ICT sector.

Lefatshe's philosophy is focused around providing solutions through partnership. This approach is a two-tiered relationship model. The first level focuses on the relationship with their customers, while the second level centres on the relationship with their vendor ecosystem.

Lefatshe is the catalyst in this model. They believe that their philosophy creates the platform for service and technical excellence, based on sharing a set of common values to create a positive environment and deliver technology solutions to the public and private sectors.

This approach always revolves around three key aspects: people, processes and technology. Lefatshe is a resource-based company and their competitive edge is driven by a commitment to hire, train and retain highly skilled employees.

Lefatshe Technologies is expanding at a rapid pace, acquiring deals such as the rights to market, distribute and implement the powerful municipal software management suite from CIPAL – a Belgian-based software company that has specialised in the development of software specific to municipalities and local government agencies for 30 years.

In July 2008 leading global networking company 3Com launched a new channel to take to market its high-end H3C networking technology and has appointed Lefatshe Technologies as its exclusive H3C Advanced Solutions partner in South Africa.

Lefatshe's whole business philosophy makes for constant change and as identified in the literature study in chapter 2, the human element that exists within all organisations will therefore also, unsurprisingly, account for resistance to change

3.3 THE RESEARCH PROCESS

The research process will be grouped in three stages consisting of:

Stage 1 – Research planning and design including:

- Defining the research question(s)
- Refining the research question(s)
- Designing the research strategy
- Designing data collection
- Sampling the design.

Stage 2 – Data gathering, including:

- Data collection and preparation.

Stage 3 – Analysis, interpretation and reporting, which includes:

- The research proposal
- Revision of the design instrument
- Analysis of data and interpretation
- Reporting on the research
- Conclusions.
-

3.4 RESEARCH PLANNING AND DESIGN

3.4.1 Research questions

In chapter 2 the researcher highlighted the importance of the concept of Emotional Intelligence as an important factor in the management and experience of resistance to change.

In order to determine to what extent the level of Emotional Intelligence of an individual plays a role in the management of resistance to change, an empirical study was undertaken.

The researcher believes that it is very important that the input-attributes of the questionnaires be related to the objectives of the study that has been proposed by the research study. Therefore the researcher decided to make use of existing, thoroughly researched questionnaires in order to measure the psychological construct of Emotional Intelligence and also the levels of resistance to change within the research.

The main objective of the research was to find evidence that supports the researcher's hypothesis that managers who can manage and make sense of their own and their subordinates' emotions during organisational change, contribute more to the process of

change and are less likely to resist change and also that employees with high levels of Emotional Intelligence are less likely to resist change.

3.4.2 Research objectives

The primary objective of finding evidence that the level of Emotional Intelligence plays a role in managing resistance to change, will be realised by meeting the following secondary objectives:

- Finding a correlation between Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change.
- Confirmation that managers with a high Emotional Intelligence are able to better manage themselves and their subordinates during change efforts, which will also result in less resistance to the change effort by themselves as well as by their subordinates.
- An indication that individuals with high Emotional Intelligence contribute more to organisational change and are less likely to resist change efforts.

3.4.3 Research design

Research design consists of the strategy for a study and the plan by which the strategy is to be carried out. It specifies the methods and procedures for the collection, measurement and analysis of data.

The research design is the blueprint for fulfilling an objective and answering questions and for this research study the process will be as follows: (Cooper & Schindler, 2001:13; Page & Meyer, 2000:41):

- Translating the research question into research variables
- Doing a literature research, using published articles, books and periodicals on the research subject

- Choosing an appropriate sampling and data collection method
- Doing a mail survey.

The initial Bar-On EQi questionnaires were sent to the target group via e-mails. The questionnaires measuring resistance to change were distributed through personal contact. All employees of Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd were invited to participate in the research. Jopie van Rooyen and Associates, psychometric test providers in South Africa, administered the survey responses.

3.5 SAMPLING AND DATA COLLECTION

3.5.1 Statistical techniques

In order to conduct a statistical analysis of the results of the questionnaire one must first develop an understanding of the theory of statistical techniques. This section details the techniques used for this research.

3.5.2 Statistical background

Generally statistics has three accepted meanings, namely:

It is a collection of quantitative data pertaining to any subject or group, especially when the data is systematically gathered and collated.

It is the science that deals with the collection, tabulation, analysis, interpretation and presentation of quantitative data.

It is an important tool in transforming masses of raw data into meaningful, useful and usable information for decision-making (Wisniewski, 2002:91; Wegner, 2003:2).

Struwig and Stead (2001:158) state that there are two major components of statistics:

Descriptive statistics, which condense large volumes of data into a few summary measures by describing and analysing a subject or group to determine some measure of an average and some measure of variability around the average.

Inferential or inductive statistics, which endeavour to determine from a limited amount of data (sample) an important conclusion about a much larger amount of data (universe or population).

3.5.3 Statistical definitions

The statistical terminology mentioned in the study can be defined as follows:

Population: Levine and Krehbiel (2005:2) define a population as that part that relates to the entire data set that is of interest.

Sample: Sampling can be defined as a selection of only a part of the research population (Levine & Krehbiel, 2005:2).

Sample mean: There are two measures of average (Levine & Krehbiel, 2005:253):

The arithmetic mean, which is a sum of the total values divided by the number of values measured.

The median, which is the middle value of an ordered set of all the values recorded.

Standard deviation: The standard deviation of a sample is a measure that reflects how the numerical data is dispersed (Levine & Krehbiel, 2005:115). For the purpose of this study it will be used to indicate the level of agreement between the responses on any particular question. A standard deviation of 1 or less indicates a high level of agreement and a value higher than 1 indicates disagreement of responses.

3.5.4 Statistical application

The measure of variability around the average value used in this study is that of *standard deviation* (Levine & Krebhiel, 2005:115). Due to the nature of this research, the researcher will make use of *descriptive statistics* to describe the basic features of the data and then apply *inferential or inductive statistics* to make judgements of the probability that an observed difference between groups is a dependable one or one that might have happened by chance in this study.

3.5.5 Sampling design

Sampling design entails the identification of a target population and selecting a sample. The best sample designs ensure that the sampled data represents the research population efficiently and reliably.

The size of the population usually makes it impractical and uneconomical to involve all members of the population in a research project. Due to the size of Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd, the research population is not too big and the entire organisation will therefore be used as the research sample. The potential population for this research study was 90.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION DESIGN

The questionnaires will be distributed through e-mail and personal contact. The return of the questionnaires will be followed up via e-mail, telephone calls and personal contact to ensure a high return rate. All questionnaires will be treated confidentially to ensure that facts are not distorted.

The results will be statistically analysed, using an appropriate statistical methodology. The analysed results will be used to draw conclusions. and recommendations will be made.

3.6.1 Data gathering

3.6.1.1 Target population

The empirical study was aimed at all employees of Lefatshe Technologies (Pty) Ltd. 80% of all employees are situated in Lefatshe's Bryanston offices, while the rest are situated on the clients' sites. The nature of business is the same for all employees.

90 respondents were identified for the sample. An effective sample size (e) of 45 was deemed satisfactory for the purpose of this mini-dissertation.

3.6.2 Preparation and structuring of questionnaire

For research objectives to be met, the questions used in the questionnaires should be related to the issues under investigation. It was therefore necessary to conduct a literature study in chapter 2 to become familiar with the issues relating to the concepts of change, resistance to change and Emotional Intelligence.

Due to the psychological nature of the research, the researcher decided to make use of a thoroughly researched and well-developed existing questionnaire, i.e. Bar-On emotional quotient inventory, in order to achieve an accurate measure of Emotional Intelligence.

For the second part of the research, the resistance to change questionnaire developed by Shaul Oreg in 2003 was used (Oreg, 2003:680–693; Oreg et al, 2008:935–944). This questionnaire was only distributed to the respondents who completed the Bar-On EQi questionnaire.

3.7 BAR-ON EMOTIONAL QUOTIENT INVENTORY (BAR-ON EQI)

The Bar-On EQi consists of 13 items on a 5-point Likert-scale that measures emotional and social intelligence traits for ages 16 and over. Bar-On (2004:14) defined Emotional Intelligence as “an array of personal, emotional and social competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”. The EQi measures five general sub-scales associated with Emotional Intelligence, which consists of 15 components as shown in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3-1 BAR-ON EMOTIONAL QUOTIENT INVENTORY COMPONENTS AND SUB-SCALES

Subscales	Components
Intrapersonal	1. Emotional self-awareness 2. Assertiveness 3. Self-regard 4. Self-actualisation 5. Independence 15. Optimism
Interpersonal	6. Empathy 7. Interpersonal relationship 8. Social responsibility
Adaptability	9. Problem solving 10. Reality testing 11. Flexibility
Stress management	12. Stress tolerance 13. Impulse control
General mood	14. Happiness 15. Optimism

Cavins (2005:13)

3.7.1 Bar-On EQi - Subscales:

3.7.1.1 Intrapersonal subscales

Self-regard

“The ability to respect and accept oneself as basically good” (Bar-On, 2004:15). “This sub-scale relates to a person’s ability to feel fulfilled and satisfied with oneself, regardless of perceived strengths and weaknesses. Self-regard relates greatly to a person’s level of self-assuredness, self-esteem and self-respect” (Bar-On, 2004:15).

Emotional self-awareness

“The ability to recognize one’s feelings” (Bar-On, 2004:15). “Emotional self-awareness is a person’s ability to (a) be aware of his or her feelings and emotions, (b) differentiate between them, (c) identify what one feels and why and (d) to be aware of what caused the feelings or emotions” (Bar-On, 2004:15).

Assertiveness

“The ability to express feelings, beliefs, and thoughts and defend one’s rights in a non-destructive manner” (Bar-On, 2004:15). “There are three main components of assertiveness: (1) the ability to express feelings, (2) the ability to openly express thoughts and beliefs and (c) the ability to support and stand up for personal rights. Assertiveness is the balance between shyness and overbearing, or the ability to express beliefs without being aggressive or insulting” (Bar-On, 2004:15).

Independence

“The ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one’s thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency” (Bar-On, 2004:16). “Independent people are self-reliant planners and decision makers, who are able to work autonomously without overly relying on the opinion, protection and support of others” (Bar-On, 2004:16).

Self-actualisation

“The ability to realise one’s potential capabilities” (Bar-On, 2004:16). “Involving oneself in pursuits that lead to a rich, meaningful and full life. Self-actualisation is one’s ability to strive toward continual improvement of one’s abilities, capabilities and talents” (Bar-On, 2004:16).

3.7.1.2 *Interpersonal sub-scales*

Empathy

“The ability to be aware of, to understand, and to appreciate the feelings of others” (Bar-On, 2004:16). “Empathy is a person’s ability to be on the same wavelength with people and diagnose and truly understand how and why they feel the way they do” (Bar-On, 2004:16).

Social responsibility

“The ability to demonstrate oneself as a cooperative, contributing, and constructive member of one’s social group” (Bar-On, 2004:16). Social responsibility relates to taking responsibility for doing good things for and with people. The ability to accept people in one’s group and “use their talents for the good of the collective” (Bar-On, 2004:16).

Interpersonal relationships

“The ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterized by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection.” One’s ability to establish and maintain positive and satisfying relationships with others (Bar-On, 2004:16).

3.7.1.3 *The adaptability sub-scales*

Reality testing

“Ability to assess the correspondence between what is experienced and what objectively exists” (Bar-On, 2004: 17). Reality testing is one’s ability to gather objective evidence about a current situation, accurately assess the evidence and determine ways to cope with the situation” (Bar-On, 2004:17).

Flexibility

“The ability to adjust one’s emotions, thoughts and behaviour to changing situations and conditions” (Bar-On, 2004:17). Flexibility refers to one’s “overall ability to adapt to unfamiliar, unpredictable and dynamic circumstances” (Bar-On, 2004:17).

Problem solving

“The ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions” (Bar-On, 2004:17). “Problem solving relates to one’s ability to confront problems rather than avoid them” (Bar-On, 2004:17).

3.7.1.4 *The stress management sub-scales*

Stress tolerance

“The ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without ‘falling apart’ by actively and positively coping with stress” (Bar-On, 2004:17). “Stress tolerance is having the capacity to choose how you react to stress, maintain a level of optimism that stress won’t last and to feel that one can control or influence the stressful situation” (Bar-On, 2004:17).

Impulse control

“The ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive or temptation to act” (Bar-On, 2004:18).

“Impulse control is the capacity to accept one’s aggressive impulses, maintain composure and control aggressive and irresponsible behaviour” (Bar-On, 2004:18).

3.7.1.5 *The general mood sub-scale*

Optimism

“The ability to look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity” (Bar-On, 2004:18). “Optimism is one’s ability to approach life in a hopeful and positive manner” (Bar-On, 2004:18).

Happiness

“Ability to feel satisfied with one’s life, to enjoy oneself and others and to have fun” (Bar-On, 2004:18). “Happiness relates to one’s ability to feel generally cheerful and enthusiastic about life” (Bar-On, 2004:18).

3.8 SHAUL OREG’S RESISTANCE TO CHANGE QUESTIONNAIRE

In 2003 Shaul Oreg published a questionnaire measuring individual resistance to change in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Oreg, 2003:680–693). The resistance to change scale was designed to tap an individual’s tendency to resist or avoid making changes to devalue change generally and to find change aversive across diverse contexts and types of change (Oreg, 2003:680). The resistance to change scale was not tailored to correspond to any specific type of change, but rather to predict resistant

behaviour across a variety of settings and to demonstrate its value in explaining resistances above and beyond any contextual causes.

The resistance to change questionnaire was designed to directly assess the dispositional component that directly contributes to people's reaction to change (Oreg, 2003:690). The trait of dispositional resistance to change and its measurement scale has been developed through a series of studies in which the scale's structural, construct, concurrent and predictive validities were demonstrated (Oreg, 2008:936). According to Oreg (2008:936) those who are dispositionally resistant to change are less likely to voluntarily initiate changes and more likely to form negative attitudes toward the changes they encounter.

The trait comprises four dimensions (Oreg, 2003:690):

Routine seeking

Routine seeking involves the extent to which one enjoys and seeks out stable and routine environments.

Emotional reaction:

Emotional reaction reflects the extent to which individuals feel stressed and uncomfortable in response to imposed change.

Short-term focus

Short-term focus involves the degree to which individuals are preoccupied with the short-term inconveniences versus the potential long-term benefits of the change.

Cognitive rigidity

Cognitive rigidity represents a form of stubbornness and an unwillingness to consider alternative ideas and perspectives.

Although different dimensions become salient in different contexts, the composite resistance to change score has been shown to predict individuals' reactions to change in a variety of contexts under both voluntary and imposed conditions.

The starting point for the development of the scale was a review of the literature on resistance to change, with particular attention to sources of resistance that appeared to derive from an individual's personality (Oreg, 2003:280). Six such sources were identified:

- Reluctance to lose control
- Cognitive rigidity
- Lack of psychological resilience
- Intolerance to the adjustment period involved in change
- Preference for low levels of stimulation and novelty
- Reluctance to give up old habits.

For each of the sources of resistance mentioned above, 4 - 10 items were generated. In addition, four additional items were written to tap an individual's general attitude toward change, yielding an initial pool of 44 items (Oreg, 2003:681). Five independent reviewers of the scale-development process examined the item pool to identify ambiguous wording, double-barrelled items and redundant items. This resulted in 6 items being discarded, 2 being rephrased and 2 new items being added, reducing the pool to 44"

As a result six items were discarded, two were rephrased and two new items were generated, reducing the pool to forty-four. These were formatted as 6-point Likert scales, which ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*).

The results of six further studies indicated a four-facet structure to the disposition:

- Routine seeking
- Emotional reaction to imposed change

- Short-term focus
- Cognitive rigidity

The structure was established in the first study and was validated on two additional, independent samples. Further studies established convergent and discriminated validities and provided evidence for the scale's concurrent and predictive validities. In all seven studies, resistance to change and its sub-scales achieved satisfactory reliabilities (Oreg, 2003:690).

Oreg's resistance to change questionnaire finally consists of a 17-item scale, which ranges from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) (Oreg, 2003:680).

On a practical level, according to Oreg (2003:691) assessing the dispositional aspect of resistance to change with the resistance to change scale would be far more economical than using a broad range of measures, such as risk aversion, tolerance for ambiguity, and self-esteem that tap into different aspects of resistance to change.

3.9 RESPONSE TO QUESTIONNAIRE

The Bar-On EQi questionnaire was distributed to all of Lefatshe's employees, including managers. 90 Questionnaires were sent out and 51 responses (57%) were received by the cut-off date. Despite several telephone calls, e-mails and personal reminders, the outstanding questionnaires were not returned by the cut-off date.

The resistance to change questionnaire was distributed to all the respondents of the Bar-On EQi questionnaires. Of the 51 questionnaires sent out, 44 responses (86%) were received by the cut-off date.

The response rates were seen as valid for the purposes of this research.

3.9.1 Descriptive statistics

In the following section the descriptive statistics of the research data will be used to describe the basic features of the data used in the study. It will provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures and will therefore form the basis of the quantitative analysis of the research data.

The researcher will furthermore make use of inferential statistics of the sample data in order to try and reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data.

3.9.2 Geographical dispersion of respondents

Figure 3.1 indicates that the majority of the respondents were male (60,8%). The responses consisting of females made up 39,2% of the sample. In Figure 3.2 the different job categories of respondents are indicated. It is evident that the majority of the respondents were regular employees (70,6%) who did not fulfil a managerial position. 11,8% of the respondents were consultants and therefore not part of the permanent working staff of Lefatshe Technologies Pty Ltd. Senior employees formed 7,8% of the respondents and only 3,9% of the respondents represented managers. For the purposes of this research senior employees will also be regarded as managers and consultants will be treated as part of the regular employees.

FIGURE 3-1 GRAPHICAL PRESENTATION OF RESPONDENTS' GENDER

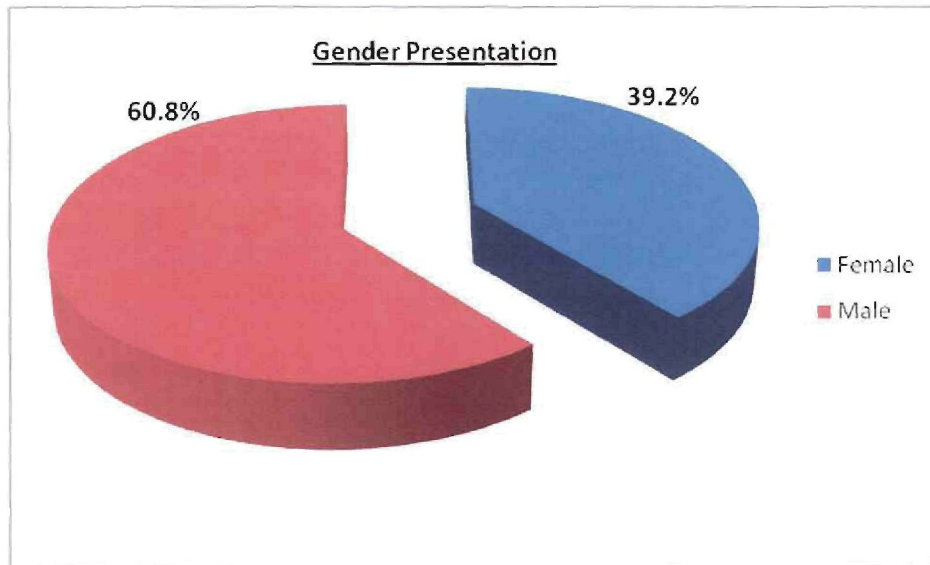


FIGURE 3-2 GRAPHICAL PRESENTATION OF RESPONDENTS' JOB CATEGORIES

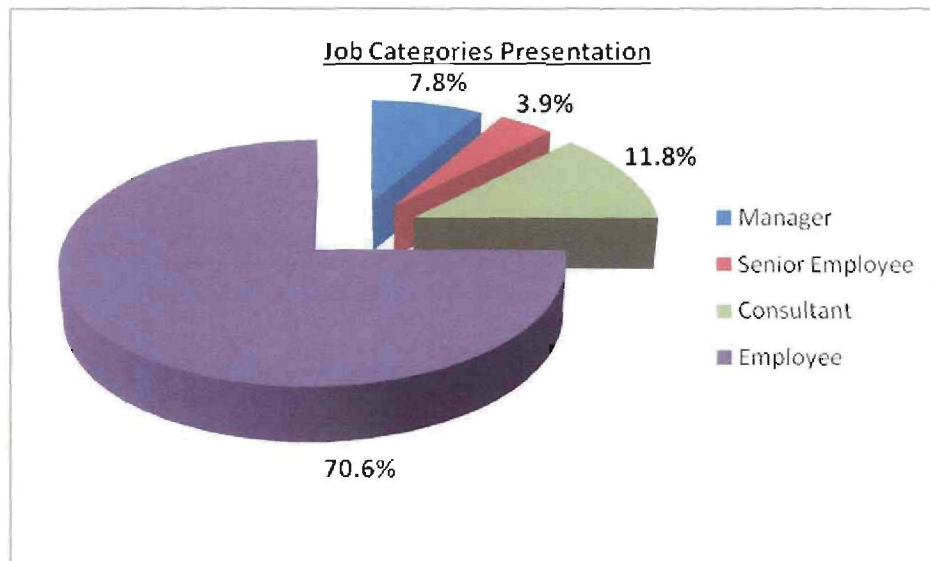
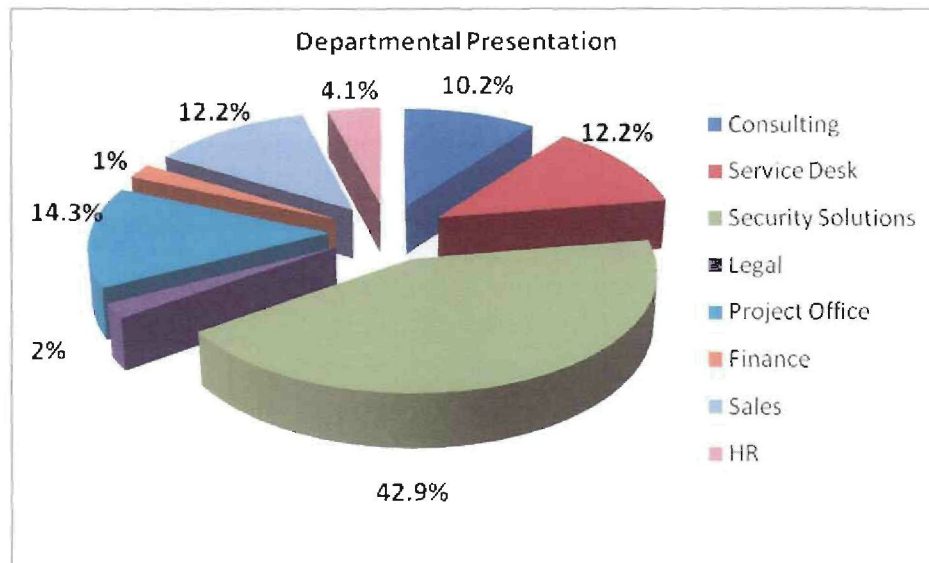


Figure 3.3 indicates the dispersion of the respondents per business unit within Lefatshe Technologies Pty Ltd. The majority of respondents were representative of the security solutions department (42,9%) as well as the project office (14,3%) and the service desk (12,2%) respectively. It is assumed that the higher response rates from these business

units were driven by personal contact owing to the researcher's personal involvement within these business units.

FIGURE 3-3 GRAPHICAL PRESENTATION OF RESPONDENTS' DEPARTMENTS



3.9.3 Inferential statistics

In the following section the researcher will make use of inferential statistics from the sample data in order to try and reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data. The inferential statistics will be used to make judgements about the probability that an observed difference between groups is a dependable one and not one that might have happened by chance. Thus the researcher uses inferential statistics to make inferences from the data to more general conditions.

3.10 DATA ANALYSIS

3.10.1 Statistical processing of data

Statistical Package processed the data received from the completed questionnaires for the Social Sciences (SPSS) founded by Norman Nie and Hadlai Hull and first released

in 1968. SPSS is among the most widely used programmes for statistical analysis in social science.

3.10.2 Analysis of data

As seen in Table 3.2 all the items of both the Bar-On EQi and the resistance to change questionnaires were first considered separately in a descriptive way. Means for the evaluation part of the Bar-On EQi ranged from $\bar{x} = 96,24$ (reality testing, concerned with the ability to assess the correspondence between what is experienced and what objectively exists) to $\bar{x} = 102,37$ (impulse control, concerned with the ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive or temptation to act). Standard deviations ranged from 14,614 (stress tolerance, concerned with the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without “falling apart” by actively and positively coping with stress) to 20,107 (self-regard concerned with the ability to respect and accept oneself as basically good).

Means for the resistance to change factors ranged from $\bar{x} = 3,5795$ (cognitive rigidity, concerned with one’s level of stubbornness and unwillingness to consider alternative ideas and perspectives) to $\bar{x} = 2,3295$ (short-term focus, concerned with the degree to which individuals are preoccupied with the short-term inconveniences versus the potential long-term benefits of the change).

Standard deviations ranged from 0,88317 (emotional reaction concerned with the extent to which individuals feel stressed and uncomfortable in response to imposed change) to 0,62846 (total resistance to change).

TABLE 3-2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – BAR-ON EQI AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Descriptive statistics									
EQI	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. error	Std. error
Total EQ	51	53	133	98,59	19,253	-0,207	0,333	-0,556	0,656
Intrapersonal EQ	51	44	129	97,20	20,107	-0,688	0,333	-0,164	0,656
Self-regard	51	56	125	99,08	18,368	-0,853	0,333	-0,083	0,656
Emotional self-awareness	51	64	129	99,47	16,273	-0,367	0,333	-0,369	0,656
Assertiveness	51	52	125	95,16	18,278	-0,354	0,333	-0,644	0,656
Independence	51	50	125	98,92	17,579	-0,718	0,333	0,035	0,656
Self-actualisation	51	54	123	97,78	17,458	-0,836	0,333	0,029	0,656
Interpersonal EQ	51	60	135	100,88	17,412	-0,271	0,333	-0,365	0,656
Empathy	51	61	127	98,06	17,097	-0,318	0,333	-0,619	0,656
Social responsibility	51	57	129	102,22	17,841	-0,833	0,333	0,008	0,656
Interpersonal relationship	51	71	130	101,57	15,204	-0,192	0,333	-0,717	0,656
Stress management EQ	51	75	134	102,02	14,669	0,121	0,333	-0,649	0,656
Stress tolerance	51	60	128	100,29	14,614	-0,617	0,333	0,425	0,656
Impulse control	51	65	129	102,37	16,769	-0,389	0,333	-0,519	0,656
Adaptability EQ	51	46	133	98,92	18,298	-0,333	0,333	0,209	0,656
Reality testing	51	53	130	96,24	15,801	0,089	0,333	0,100	0,656
Flexibility	51	48	133	102,24	18,577	-0,633	0,333	0,181	0,656
Problem solving	51	50	126	98,98	16,712	-0,836	0,333	0,743	0,656
General mood EQ	51	49	127	99,25	17,996	-0,479	0,333	-0,106	0,656
Optimism	51	54	129	98,53	17,269	-0,390	0,333	-0,021	0,656
Happiness	51	43	124	99,76	17,431	-0,902	0,333	0,781	0,656
Resistance to Change									
Routine seeking	44	1,20	4,20	2,4818	0,78274	, 204	0,357	-0,768	0,702
Emotional reaction	44	1,00	5,00	2,8977	0,88317	-0,072	0,357	-0,408	0,702
Short-term focus	44	1,00	4,00	2,3295	0,79930	0,193	0,357	-0,813	0,702
Cognitive rigidity	44	2,00	5,00	3,5795	0,84181	-0,220	0,357	-0,998	0,702
Resistance to Change	44	1,59	4,12	2,8021	0,62846	0,030	0,357	-0,651	0,702

3.11 INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The research results were furthermore interpreted in order to make the necessary conclusions and recommendations.

3.11.1 Reliability

As part of the analysis of the research data, numerous statistical analyses were conducted to obtain information on the reliability. This information was important since it demonstrates the accuracy, dependability and quality of the tests as a whole and the results one would expect to receive from using it.

Reliability is concerned with how consistently it measures what it is supposed to measure. It indicates the extent to which individual differences in test scores are attributable to “true” differences in the characteristics under investigation. The basic type of reliability test, internal consistency, was carried out for this particular research.

The following section provides detailed information on the research pertaining to the reliability of the Bar-On EQi and the resistance to change questionnaires.

3.11.2 Internal consistency – Bar-On EQi

Internal reliability (or consistency) refers to the degree to which all the items of a particular scale measures the same construct. This procedure estimates reliability from a single administration of the inventory and measures the consistency of the content of the individual scale being examined. The internal consistency of the EQi was examined by using Cronbach’s Alpha.

Table 3.3 presents the internal consistency coefficients and general scale statistics for the EQi. The average Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients were high for all the subscales, ranging from a “low” of 0,743 (stress tolerance) to a high of 0,956 (interpersonal EQ) with an overall average internal consistency coefficient of 0,844. These results indicate

very good reliability especially considering that all internal consistency procedures tend to underestimate the actual reliability (Bar-On, 2004:87).

TABLE 3-3 BAR-ON EQI INTERNAL CONSISTENCY STATISTICS

Bar-On EQi	Scale statistics				
	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Variance	Std. deviation	Number items
Total EQ	0,974	470,08	3416,714	58,453	117
Intrapersonal EQ	0,956	155,00	592,320	24,338	39
Self-regard	0,933	36,65	58,033	7,618	9
Emotional self-awareness	0,807	30,33	30,427	5,516	8
Assertiveness	0,834	25,88	29,386	5,421	7
Independence	0,810	28,20	19,561	4,423	7
Self-actualisation	0,822	37,98	32,540	5,704	9
Interpersonal EQ	0,900	103,49	155,855	12,484	25
Empathy	0,765	32,37	21,478	4,634	8
Social responsibility	0,834	38,78	27,293	5,224	9
Interpersonal relationship	0,815	44,80	37,361	6,112	11
Stress management EQ	0,842	70,25	95,954	9,796	18
Stress tolerance	0,743	35,33	25,027	5,003	9
Impulse control	0,841	34,92	44,154	6,645	9
Adaptability EQ	0,914	102,96	217,518	14,749	26
Reality testing	0,753	39,00	33,480	5,786	10
Flexibility	0,848	31,27	35,243	5,937	8
Problem solving	0,835	32,69	23,620	4,860	8
General mood EQ	0,884	70,73	88,243	9,394	17
Optimism	0,794	33,02	20,860	4,567	8
Happiness	0,828	37,71	31,972	5,654	9

3.11.3 Internal consistency – resistance to change

The internal consistency of the resistance to change was also examined by using Cronbach's Alpha.

Table 3.4 presents the internal consistency coefficients and general scale statistics for the resistance to change questionnaire. The average Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were high for all the sub-scales, ranging from a "low" of 0,689 (cognitive rigidity) to a high of 0,867 (total resistance to change) with an overall average internal consistency coefficient of 0,776. These results also indicate very good reliability.

TABLE 3-4 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE: INTERNAL CONSISTENCY STATISTICS

Scale statistics					
Resistance to change	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Variance	Std. deviation	Number items
Routine seeking	0,737	12,41	15,317	3,914	5
Emotional reaction	0,781	11,59	12,480	3,533	4
Short-term focus	0,804	9,32	10,222	3,197	4
Cognitive rigidity	0,689	14,32	11,338	3,367	4
Total resistance to change	0,867	47,64	114,144	10,684	17

3.12 CORRELATIONS

3.12.1 Correlation Bar-On EQi

In statistics correlation (often measured as a correlation coefficient) indicates the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two random variables. In essence correlation is a measure of how things change together. In general statistical usage,

correlation or co-relation refers to the departure of two variables from independence. In this broad sense there are several coefficients measuring the degree of correlation, adapted to the nature of the data. The best known is the Pearson product-momentum correlation coefficient, which is obtained by dividing the covariance of the two variables by the product of their standard deviations. Table 3.5 presents an indication of the correlation of all the scales of the Bar-On EQi questionnaire.

As indicated by Table 3.5 the majority of factors correlate significantly at the 0,01 level and therefore indicate how thoroughly the questionnaire has been researched. The correlations explain that every single factor of the Bar-On EQi correlates with one another and contributes to making up the total Emotional Intelligence score of an individual.

TABLE 3-5 CORRELATIONS – BAR-ON EQI

		Correlations																				
		Total EQ	Intrapersonal EQ	Self Regard	Emotional Self Awareness	Assertiveness	Independence	Self Actualisation	Interpersonal EQ	Empathy	Social Responsibility	Interpersonal Relationship	Stress Management EQ	Stress Tolerance	Impulse Control	Adaptability EQ	Reality Testing	Flexibility	Problem Solving	General Mood EQ	Optimism	Happiness
Total EQ	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.928**	.829**	.825**	.781**	.740**	.790**	.751**	.612**	.560**	.748**	.745**	.821**	.422**	.919**	.798**	.814**	.750**	.873**	.835**	.765**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Intrapersonal EQ	Pearson Correlation	.928**	1.000	.918**	.804**	.860**	.862**	.862**	.566**	.432**	.339**	.640**	.573**	.781**	.206	.818**	.745**	.701**	.655**	.787**	.753**	.688**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.015	.000	.000	.000	.147	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Self Regard	Pearson Correlation	.829**	.918**	1.000	.657**	.713**	.741**	.815**	.468**	.333	.241	.570**	.501**	.715**	.150	.711**	.641**	.624**	.557**	.762**	.703**	.686**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.017	.089	.000	.000	.000	.295	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Emotional Self Awareness	Pearson Correlation	.825**	.804**	.657**	1.000	.645**	.594**	.542**	.735**	.598**	.504**	.766**	.495**	.607**	.241	.709**	.640**	.721**	.436**	.713**	.670**	.624**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.088	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Assertiveness	Pearson Correlation	.781**	.860**	.713**	.645**	1.000	.739**	.659**	.424**	.343	.228	.495**	.510**	.697**	.173	.689**	.609**	.531**	.643**	.632**	.657**	.513**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.002	.014	.107	.000	.000	.000	.226	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Independence	Pearson Correlation	.740**	.862**	.741**	.594**	.739**	1.000	.697**	.401**	.314	.236	.470**	.421**	.655**	.088	.670**	.651**	.537**	.542**	.541**	.564**	.436**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.004	.025	.096	.001	.002	.000	.538	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Self Actualisation	Pearson Correlation	.790**	.862**	.815**	.542**	.659**	.697**	1.000	.373**	.233	.221	.431**	.519**	.693**	.196	.697**	.636**	.526**	.647**	.697**	.624**	.650**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.007	.100	.119	.002	.000	.168	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Interpersonal EQ	Pearson Correlation	.751**	.566**	.468**	.735**	.424**	.401**	.373**	1.000	.902**	.868**	.891**	.490**	.533**	.295	.596**	.467**	.600**	.456**	.720**	.674**	.637**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.000	.002	.004	.007	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.035	.000	.001	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Empathy	Pearson Correlation	.612**	.432**	.333	.598**	.343	.314	.233	.902**	1.000	.813**	.715**	.366**	.427**	.203	.478**	.395**	.479**	.352**	.589**	.589**	.495**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.017	.000	.014	.025	.100	.000		.000	.000	.008	.002	.152	.000	.004	.000	.011	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Social Responsibility	Pearson Correlation	.560**	.339**	.241	.504**	.228	.236	.221	.366**	.813**	1.000	.583**	.394**	.405**	.258	.441**	.323**	.411**	.413**	.549**	.545**	.460**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.015	.089	.000	.107	.096	.119	.000	.000		.000	.004	.003	.067	.001	.021	.003	.003	.000	.000	.001
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Interpersonal Relationship	Pearson Correlation	.748**	.640**	.570**	.766**	.495**	.470**	.431**	.891**	.715**	.583**	1.000	.478**	.525**	.278	.584**	.471**	.635**	.362**	.716**	.604**	.685**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.002	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.048	.000	.000	.000	.009	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Stress Management EQ	Pearson Correlation	.745**	.573**	.501**	.495**	.510**	.421**	.519**	.490**	.366**	.394**	.478**	1.000	.719**	.845**	.719**	.631**	.606**	.614**	.574**	.570**	.487**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.008	.004	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Stress Tolerance	Pearson Correlation	.821**	.781**	.715**	.607**	.697**	.655**	.693**	.533**	.427**	.405**	.525**	.719**	1.000	.239	.716**	.669**	.531**	.643**	.754**	.809**	.583**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.003	.000	.000		.091	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Impulse Control	Pearson Correlation	.422**	.206	.150	.241	.173	.088	.196	.295**	.203	.258	.278	.845**	.239	1.000	.468**	.382**	.456**	.359**	.228	.179	.239
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.147	.295	.088	.226	.538	.168	.035	.152	.067	.048	.000	.091		.001	.006	.001	.008	.107	.209	.091
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Adaptability EQ	Pearson Correlation	.919**	.818**	.711**	.709**	.689**	.670**	.697**	.596**	.479**	.441**	.584**	.719**	.716**	.466**	1.000	.892**	.881**	.798**	.716**	.730**	.596**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.001		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Reality Testing	Pearson Correlation	.798**	.745**	.641**	.640**	.609**	.651**	.636**	.467**	.395**	.323**	.471**	.631**	.669**	.382**	.892**	1.000	.693**	.596**	.558**	.605**	.438**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.004	.021	.000	.000	.000	.006	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Flexibility	Pearson Correlation	.814**	.701**	.624**	.721**	.531**	.537**	.526**	.600**	.479**	.411**	.635**	.606**	.531**	.456**	.881**	.693**	1.000	.525**	.655**	.577**	.617**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Problem Solving	Pearson Correlation	.750**	.655**	.557**	.436**	.643**	.542**	.647**	.456**	.352**	.413**	.362**	.614**	.643**	.369**	.798**	.596**	.525**	1.000	.620**	.709**	.455**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.001	.011	.003	.009	.000	.000	.008	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.001
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
General Mood EQ	Pearson Correlation	.873**	.787**	.762**	.713**	.632**	.541**	.697**	.720**	.589**	.549**	.716**	.574**	.754**	.228	.716**	.558**	.655**	.620**	1.000	.886**	.925**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.107	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Optimism	Pearson Correlation	.835**	.753**	.703**	.670**	.657**																

3.12.2 Correlation – resistance to change

Table 3.6 represents the correlation of the factors making up the resistance to change questionnaire. It is interesting to note that all the factors correlate significantly with each other and also with total resistance to change, except for cognitive rigidity. Cognitive rigidity only has a significant correlation with the total resistance to change with a correlation of 0,565, which is hardly significant.

The researcher believes that this finding is very interesting and noteworthy. As was made evident in chapter two, individuals experience change on an emotional level. The fact that there is no significant correlation between cognition and resistance to change proves the findings in chapter two and is evidence of the premise that individuals experience change on an emotional level.

TABLE 3-6 CORRELATIONS – RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Correlations		Routine seeking	Emotional reaction	Short-term focus	Cognitive rigidity	Resistance change
Routine seeking	Pearson Correlation	1,000	0,610**	0,593**	0,189	0,805**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,218	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Emotional reaction	Pearson Correlation	0,610**	1,000	0,669**	0,207	0,819**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,000	0,178	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Short-term focus	Pearson Correlation	0,593**	0,669**	1,000	0,375*	0,856**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000		0,012	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Cognitive rigidity	Pearson Correlation	0,189	0,207	0,375*	1,000	0,565**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,218	0,178	0,012		0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Resistance to change	Pearson Correlation	0,805**	0,819**	0,856**	0,565**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	
	N	44	44	44	44	44
** . Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed).						
* . Correlation is significant at the 0,05 level (2-tailed).						

Table 3.7 represents the correlations of the resistance to change factors for managers. As shown in Table 3.7, managers' routine seeking factor has no significant correlation with total resistance to change. It is interesting to note that emotional reaction as a factor contributing to total resistance has a significant negative correlation with total resistance (-0,457). This indicates that managers with high levels of Emotional Intelligence have a lower contribution of emotional reaction to total resistance to change. This is important as it implies that managers tend to be more open to change.

TABLE 3-7 CORRELATIONS – RESISTANCE TO CHANGE OF MANAGERS

Correlations						
		Routine seeking	Emotional reaction	Short-term focus	Cognitive rigidity	Mean total
Routine seeking	Pearson Correlation	-0,380	-0,449*	0,480*	-0,152	-0,252
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,067	0,028	0,018	0,478	0,234
	N	24	24	24	24	24
Emotional reaction	Pearson Correlation	-0,336	-0,604**	0,601**	-0,355	-0,457*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,108	0,002	0,002	0,089	0,025
	N	24	24	24	24	24
Short-term focus	Pearson Correlation	-0,293	-0,438*	0,448*	-0,215	-0,298
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,165	0,032	0,028	0,313	0,158
	N	24	24	24	24	24
Cognitive rigidity	Pearson Correlation	-0,117	-0,307	0,292	-0,226	-0,268
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,586	0,145	0,167	0,288	0,206
	N	24	24	24	24	24
Mean total	Pearson Correlation	-0,367	-0,584**	0,591**	-0,307	-0,413*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,078	0,003	0,002	0,144	0,045
	N	24	24	24	24	24
*. Correlation is significant at the 0,05 level (2-tailed).						
**. Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed).						

3.12.3 Correlation - Bar-On EQi and resistance to change

As was previously mentioned, in statistics correlation indicates the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two random variables and in essence correlation is thus the measure of how things change together. Table 3.8 represents the correlation between all Emotional Intelligence factors and all factors making up resistance to change.

In the following sections the correlations of all Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change factors will be analysed and discussed.

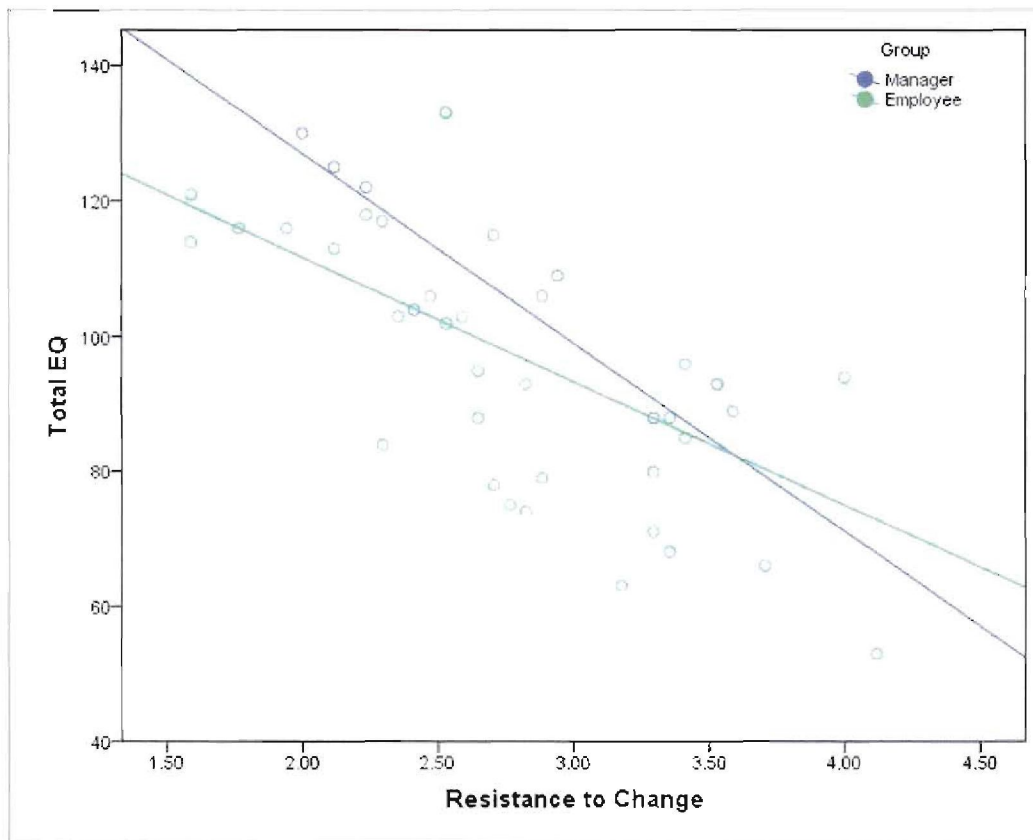
3.13 TOTAL EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The correlation of total resistance to change and total Emotional Intelligence was analysed to examine the ability of Emotional Intelligence to measure success in managing personal resistance to change. The findings revealed that the Bar-On EQi scale correlates negatively with total resistance to change, which implies that the higher the level of Emotional Intelligence, the lower the level of resistance to change will be.

In Figure 3.4 below it is evident that there is a negative correlation between all Emotional Intelligence scales and sub-scales and all factors making up total resistance to change. A *negative* or *inverse* relationship implies that high values on one variable are associated with low values on the other and therefore total resistance to change has a significant negative correlation of -0,627 with total Emotional Intelligence.

This specific finding, also graphically shown in Figure 3.4 below, provides evidence that support the main objective of the researcher's hypothesis that managers who can manage and make sense of their own and their subordinate's emotions during organisational change, contribute more to the process of change and are less likely to resist change. Therefore, employees with high levels of Emotional Intelligence are also less likely to resist change.

FIGURE 3-4 CORRELATION BETWEEN TOTAL EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TOTAL RESISTANCE TO CHANGE FOR MANAGERS AND EMPLOYEES



The correlation of total Emotional Intelligence was further analysed with all the factors making up total resistance to change. These factors include routine seeking (-0,507), emotional reaction (-0,604), short-term focus (-0,547) and cognitive rigidity (-0,247). It is interesting to note that cognitive rigidity does not have a significant negative correlation with total Emotional Intelligence and was also identified in Table 3.7 with the internal correlation of resistance to change factors. The researcher believes that this finding also supports the findings in the literature study in chapter 2, which states that change is experienced on an emotional level and not on a cognitive level.

The low correlation between cognitive rigidity and Emotional Intelligence indicates that individuals could be stubborn or unwilling to change, which leads to a resistance to change, but that when their stubbornness is on a cognitive level their Emotional Intelligence levels have no impact on being less resistant to change.

3.13.1 Intrapersonal EQ

The correlation of intrapersonal EQ and the resistance to change factors were analysed. The significant negative correlation between intrapersonal EQ and emotional reaction (-0,564) indicates that individuals with high levels of Emotional Intelligence are able to feel good about themselves and positive about what they are doing in their lives. The other correlations were routine seeking (-0,489), short-term focus (-0,526), cognitive rigidity (-0,123) and total resistance to change (-0,562).

3.13.2 Self-regard

The self-regard sub-scale had a significantly negative correlation with emotional reaction (-0,520). This indicates that the higher an individual's ability is to respect and accept themselves as basically good, the lower their emotional reaction to change and therefore the more open they would be to change. The other correlations between self-regard and resistance to change were routine seeking (-0,441), short-term focus (-0,518), cognitive rigidity (-0,030) and total resistance to change (-0,498). Again cognitive rigidity had almost no correlation with Emotional Intelligence.

3.13.3 Emotional self-awareness

The emotional self-awareness sub-scale of Emotional Intelligence had one of the most significant negative correlations with resistance to change (-0,581). This finding indicates that individuals with the ability to be aware of their own feelings and emotions, who are able to differentiate between them, who know what they are feeling and why and also what caused those feelings are less likely to resist change. This finding directly supports the researcher's hypothesis that individuals who can manage and make sense of their own and other's emotions are less likely to resist change. It also indirectly supports the idea that managers with a high Emotional Intelligence will better manage resistance to change, since they are well able to manage their own emotions during change.

The other correlations included routine seeking (-0,457), emotional reaction (-0,463) short-term focus (-0,505) and cognitive rigidity (-0,346).

3.13.4 Assertiveness

An interesting finding is the significant negative correlation between assertiveness and emotional reaction (-0,493). This finding indicates that individuals with the ability to express their feelings, beliefs and thoughts will have a lower emotional reaction to change. The other correlations include routine seeking (-0,297), short-term focus (-0,355), cognitive rigidity (-0,118) and total resistance to change (-0,415).

3.13.5 Independence

The analyses indicated that individuals with high levels of independence, who have the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in their thinking and actions, tend to have a long-term focus. These individuals will therefore better understand the rationale of change efforts and see it as part of getting closer to their long-term plans. Other correlations include routine seeking (-0,386), emotional reaction (-0,447), cognitive rigidity (0,007) and total resistance to change (-0,429).

3.13.6 Self-actualisation

Another interesting finding was that individuals with high levels of self-actualisation, thus individuals who become involved in pursuits that lead to a meaningful, rich and full life tend to have a very low emotional reaction to change (-0,503). This finding indicates that individuals with high levels of self-actualisation will be less resistant to change as they could anticipate that the change could lead to a more meaningful life. The other correlations include routine seeking (-0,484), short-term focus (-0,386), cognitive rigidity (-0,030) and total resistance to change (-0,468).

3.13.7 Interpersonal EQ

Correlations between the interpersonal EQ sub-scale and the resistance factors include routine seeking (-0,334), emotional reaction (-0,389), short-term focus (-0,288), cognitive rigidity (-0,378) and total resistance to change (-0,456). The most significant finding was that of the negative correlation between interpersonal EQ and total resistance to change. This finding indicates that individuals whose relationship skills involve the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships

that are characterised by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection, are less likely to resist change. This indicates that individuals with high interpersonal EQ will participate more during change as they perceive the change to give them an opportunity to give and receive warmth and affection and convey intimacy to other human beings during the change effort.

3.13.8 Empathy

The empathy sub-scale had a significant negative correlation with total resistance to change (-0,395). This gave the impression that individuals with the ability to be aware of, to understand and to appreciate the feelings of others, will be less likely to resist change. This finding also supports the researcher's hypothesis that managers who can understand their own and others' emotions are less likely to resist change. Managers with higher levels of empathy will therefore be better able to manage resistance to change.

Other correlations include routine seeking (-0,276), emotional reaction (-0,373), short-term focus (-0,227) and cognitive rigidity (-0,325). It is interesting to note that cognitive rigidity had a relatively significant negative correlation with empathy. This also indicates that individuals with high levels of empathy will be less stubborn or unwilling to change.

3.13.9 Social responsibility

The Emotional Intelligence of social responsibility did not have any real significant correlation with the resistance to change factors. The correlations were routine seeking (-0,185), emotional reaction (-0,208), short-term focus (-0,102), cognitive rigidity (-0,301) and total resistance to change (-0,262).

This finding indicates that an individual's ability to reveal himself as a cooperative, contributing and constructive member of a social group does not have any significant influence on the level of resistance to change. The fact that cognitive rigidity had the highest correlation with social responsibility, gives the impression that those individuals with high levels of social responsibility, thus acting in a responsible manner even though they might not benefit personally, would be less likely to resist

change on a cognitive basis. The analysis does, however, indicate that most individuals will only be less resistant to change if they would benefit personally from the change.

3.13.10 Interpersonal relationship

Correlations between the interpersonal relationship subscale and the resistance factors include routine seeking (-0,384), emotional reaction (-0,420), short-term focus (-0,372), cognitive rigidity (-0,362) and total resistance to change (-0,505). The most significant finding was that of the negative correlation between interpersonal relationship and total resistance to change.

This finding indicates that individuals whose relationship skills involve the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterised by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection, are less likely to resist change.

This further indicates that individuals with high interpersonal relationships will participate more during change since they perceive the change to have an impact on everybody else and not only on himself or herself. Individuals will thus be less resistant to change if the change involves other individuals as well.

The researcher comes to the conclusion that individuals will be less scared of the impact that the change would have on them if it were going to have the same impact on other people as well. This finding is also very evident in everyday life, as most people would prefer to see other people with them on a sinking ship, rather than be left facing it alone.

3.13.11 Stress management

The analyses of the data indicated that the level of an individual's stress management has a significant negative correlation with their total resistance to change (-0,552). Individuals who can manage stress well are therefore less resistant to change since they perceive themselves to be able to handle the possible stress that might accompany the change.

Other correlations include routine seeking (-0,399), emotional reaction (-0,538), short-term focus (-0,460) and cognitive rigidity (-0,285). It is evident that stress management has a very big impact on an individual's level of resistance to change.

3.13.12 Stress tolerance

The subscale of stress tolerance had a significant negative correlation with the emotional reaction to change factor (-0,504). Individuals with the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without "falling apart", by actively and positively coping with stress, are less likely to be resistant to change. Other correlations also include routine seeking (-0,477), short-term focus (-0,370), cognitive rigidity (-0,144) and total resistance to change (-0,497).

3.13.13 Impulse control

The impulse control subscale had a moderately significant negative correlation with total resistance to change (-0,388). The other correlations include routine seeking (-0,185), emotional reaction (-0,351), short-term focus (-0,364) and cognitive rigidity (-0,300). The analyses indicate that there is no real significant correlation between an individual's ability to resist or delay an impulse and their level of resistance to change.

3.13.14 Adaptability EQ

One of the most significant findings was that of the negative correlation between the adaptability subscale of Emotional Intelligence and total resistance to change (-0,640). This finding indicates that individuals who are more adaptable are less likely to resist change since they perceive themselves to be able to adapt easily to whatever the change might cause. Other correlations further indicate that individuals who are more adaptable are less likely to resist change because of a change in routine (-0,516), are less likely to experience change in an emotional way (-0,623) and prefer to have a long-term perspective (-0,607).

3.13.15 Reality testing

The subscale of reality testing had a significant negative correlation with the emotional reaction factor of resistance to change (-0,590). This gives the indication that individuals with high levels of reality testing have the ability to assess the correspondence between what is experienced and what objectively exists. They also have a low level of resistance to change in an emotional reaction. They tend to understand the reality and the necessity of the change and are therefore open to change.

Other correlations include routine seeking (-0,437), short-term focus (-0,557), cognitive rigidity (-0,093) and total resistance to change (-0,551). The analyses indicate that the ability to understand the reality of a situation will result in lower levels of resistance to change. These findings endorse the literature findings in chapter 2, indicating that individuals need to understand the need for change in order to effectively take part in the change.

3.13.16 Flexibility

Another significant finding was the correlation between flexibility and the total resistance to change (-0,640). Individuals with the ability to adjust their emotions, thoughts and behaviour to changing situations and conditions are less likely to resist change efforts.

Other correlations include routine seeking (-0,508), emotional reaction (-0,547), short-term focus (-0,595) and cognitive rigidity (-0,103). These negative correlations indicate that individuals with high levels of flexibility are less likely to experience resistance in all the factors, making up total resistance to change. Flexibility therefore, plays a vital role in the experience of resistance to change.

3.13.17 Problem solving

The problem-solving subscale showed a significant relationship with emotional reaction (-0,495). This finding indicates that individuals with the ability to identify and define problems, as well as generate and implement potentially effective solutions,

are less likely to experience an emotional reaction to change effort. These individuals understand that solutions to problems most often involve change and are open to the change, as they understand the need thereof.

3.13.18 General mood

General mood has a significant negative correlation with total resistance to change (-0,482). This finding indicates that an individual's personality and general outlook on life has an impact on their measure of resistance toward change. Other correlations include routine seeking (-0,354), emotional reaction (-0,471), short-term focus (-0,363) and cognitive rigidity (-0,279).

3.13.19 Optimism

The Emotional Intelligence subscale of optimism showed a significant negative correlation with an individual's emotional reaction toward change (-0,526). Individuals with the ability to look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity, are less likely to resist change. Other correlations include routine seeking (-0,372), short-term focus (-0,350), cognitive rigidity (-0,205) and total resistance to change (-0,480).

3.13.20 Happiness

The last subscale of Emotional Intelligence, happiness, has to do with one's ability to feel satisfied with one's life, enjoy oneself and others and to have fun. This had a moderate significant negative correlation with total resistance to change (-0,411). The other correlations were not significant and included routine seeking (-0,282), emotional reaction (-0,360), short-term focus (-0,325) and cognitive rigidity (-0,289).

Table 3.8 below provides the evidence of discussion and interpretations made in the entire section above, the most valuable finding being the significant negative correlation between Total Emotional Intelligence and Total Resistance to Change (-0.627).

TABLE 3-8 CORRELATIONS – BAR-ON EQI AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Correlations		Routine seeking	Emotional reaction	Short-term focus	Cognitive rigidity	Resistance to change
Total EQ	Pearson Correlation	-0,507*	-0,604**	-0,547*	-0,247	-0,627*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,105	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Intrapersonal EQ	Pearson Correlation	-0,489*	-0,564**	-0,526*	-0,123	-0,562*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,001	0,000	0,000	0,428	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Self-regard	Pearson Correlation	-0,441**	-0,520**	-0,518*	-0,030	-0,498*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,003	0,000	0,000	0,848	0,001
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Emotional self-awareness	Pearson Correlation	-0,457**	-0,463**	-0,505**	-0,346*	-0,581**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,002	0,002	0,000	0,021	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Assertiveness	Pearson Correlation	-0,297	-0,493**	-0,355*	-0,118	-0,415**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,050	0,001	0,018	0,445	0,005
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Independence	Pearson Correlation	-0,386**	-0,447**	-0,476**	0,007	-0,429*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,010	0,002	0,001	0,962	0,004
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Self-actualisation	Pearson Correlation	-0,484**	-0,503**	-0,386**	-0,030	-0,468**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,001	0,001	0,010	0,847	0,001
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Interpersonal EQ	Pearson Correlation	-0,334*	-0,389*	-0,288	-0,378*	-0,456*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,027	0,009	0,058	0,011	0,002
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Empathy	Pearson Correlation	-0,276	-0,373*	-0,227	-0,325*	-0,395*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,070	0,013	0,138	0,031	0,008
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Social responsibility	Pearson Correlation	-0,185	-0,208	-0,102	-0,301*	-0,262
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,229	0,176	0,511	0,047	0,086
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Interpersonal relationship	Pearson Correlation	-0,384**	-0,420**	-0,372**	-0,362*	-0,505**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,010	0,004	0,013	0,016	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Stress management EQ	Pearson Correlation	-0,399**	-0,538**	-0,460**	-0,285	-0,552**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,007	0,000	0,002	0,061	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Stress tolerance	Pearson Correlation	-0,477**	-0,504**	-0,370*	-0,144	-0,497**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,001	0,000	0,014	0,352	0,001
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Impulse control	Pearson Correlation	-0,185	-0,351*	-0,364*	-0,300*	-0,388*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,229	0,019	0,015	0,048	0,009
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Adaptability EQ	Pearson Correlation	-0,516**	-0,623**	-0,607**	-0,202	-0,640**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,189	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Reality testing	Pearson Correlation	-0,437**	-0,590**	-0,557**	-0,093	-0,551**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,003	0,000	0,000	0,550	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Flexibility	Pearson Correlation	-0,508**	-0,547**	-0,595**	-0,302	-0,640**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,046	0,000
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Problem solving	Pearson Correlation	-0,392**	-0,495**	-0,424**	-0,103	-0,467**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,009	0,001	0,004	0,506	0,001
	N	44	44	44	44	44
General mood EQ	Pearson Correlation	-0,354*	-0,471**	-0,363*	-0,279	-0,482**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,018	0,001	0,015	,067	0,001
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Optimism	Pearson Correlation	-0,372*	-0,526**	-0,350*	-0,205	-0,480**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,013	0,000	0,020	,181	0,001
	N	44	44	44	44	44
Happiness	Pearson Correlation	-0,282	-0,360*	-0,325*	-0,289	-0,411**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,064	0,016	0,031	,057	0,006
	N	44	44	44	44	44

** . Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0,05 level (2-tailed).

3.14 GENERAL LINEAR MODEL

The general linear model underlies most of the statistical analyses that are used in applied and social research. The following section will give more detail of the difference in statistics between the scores of managers and regular employees.

3.14.1 General linear model – Bar-On EQi

In Table 3.9 the general linear model statistics are shown for both managers and employees for the Bar-On EQi questionnaire. As indicated by Table 3.9, the difference between total Emotional Intelligence scores of managers (mean = 113) and other employees (mean = 96,67) is quite significant. This finding gives some perspective on the reality of Emotional Intelligence levels of different job levels in practice. The researcher is of the opinion that this finding gives an indication that in order to be in a management position one's level of Emotional Intelligence should be high.

The difference between the scores of the EQi subscales of managers and employees averaged an approximate 10 points difference. The Emotional Intelligence subscale of self-actualisation differed quite significantly between managers (mean = 108,83) and employees (mean = 96,31). The researcher is of the opinion that this finding makes absolute sense as self-actualisation concerns the ability to realise one's potential capacities. Employees not in management positions could believe that they haven't yet done or achieved the things that brought meaning to their lives and that they should still come to the point of total satisfaction. Managers, on the other hand, could possibly feel that they achieved a lot up to this point in their lives and that they are involved in things that bring meaning to their lives.

Stress management EQ as a subscale differed significantly between the mean score of 118,83 for managers and 99,89 for employees. This also reflects reality, as managers in practice should be able to handle stress much more effectively than regular employees.

The mean score of managers' impulse control subscale was 119,33. This was substantially higher than the mean score of 100,11 for other employees. This finding, according to the researcher, is self-explanatory as managers should be able to resist or delay their impulses or drives and temptations to act in a significantly different way to other employees.

The adaptability EQ subscale indicated that managers are more adaptable to new circumstances with a mean score of 114,50, much higher than the mean score of 96,84 for other employees.

The analyses indicated that managers have a better ability to access the correspondence between what is experienced and what objectively exists. The reality testing subscales mean scores were 111,83 for managers and 94,16 respectively. It is evident that managers are able to keep things in the right perspective while other employees tend to fantasize and daydream a bit more about things.

The last significant difference in the mean scores between managers and other employees was on the subscale of Problem Solving. The mean score for managers was 113,17 and 97,09 for employees. The researcher also believes that this is true in reality, as managers are in management positions where it is required of them to solve problems, while normal employees are often in the position of only doing what managers tell them to do and not tend to try and solve problems on their own.

TABLE 3-9 GENERAL LINEAR MODEL STATISTICS – BAR-ON EQI

Between-subjects factors											
		Value Label		N							
Group											
	1	Manager		6							
	4	Employee		45							
Descriptive Statistics											
						Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	N		
Total EQ						Manager	113,00	15,723	6		
						Employee	96,67	19,001	45		
						Total	98,59	19,253	51		
		Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	N			Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Intrapersonal EQ	Manager	108,33	15,845	6	Stress management EQ	Manager	118,00	4,561	6		
	Employee	95,71	20,291	45		Employee	99,89	14,237	45		
	Total	97,20	20,107	51		Total	102,02	14,669	51		
Self-regard	Manager	109,67	9,352	6	Stress tolerance	Manager	110,67	6,055	6		
	Employee	97,67	18,872	45		Employee	98,91	14,896	45		
	Total	99,08	18,368	51		Total	100,29	14,614	51		
Emotional stability	Manager	102,83	19,692	6	Impulse control	Manager	119,33	8,959	6		
	Employee	99,02	15,972	45		Employee	100,11	16,308	45		
	Total	99,47	16,273	51		Total	102,37	16,769	51		
Assertiveness	Manager	102,67	15,883	6	Adaptability EQ	Manager	114,50	19,326	6		
	Employee	94,16	18,501	45		Employee	96,84	17,336	45		
	Total	95,16	18,278	51		Total	98,92	18,298	51		
Independence	Manager	109,00	19,256	6	Reality testing	Manager	111,83	17,960	6		
	Employee	97,58	17,127	45		Employee	94,16	14,472	45		
	Total	98,92	17,579	51		Total	96,24	15,801	51		
Self-actualisation	Manager	108,83	9,496	6	Flexibility	Manager	111,50	22,889	6		
	Employee	96,31	17,811	45		Employee	101,00	17,871	45		
	Total	97,78	17,458	51		Total	102,24	18,577	51		
Interpersonal EQ	Manager	108,67	16,195	6	Problem solving	Manager	113,17	10,147	6		
	Employee	99,84	17,475	45		Employee	97,09	16,571	45		
	Total	100,88	17,412	51		Total	98,98	16,712	51		
Empathy	Manager	105,17	14,675	6	General mood EQ	Manager	106,83	13,747	6		
	Employee	97,11	17,317	45		Employee	98,24	18,376	45		
	Total	98,06	17,097	51		Total	99,25	17,996	51		
Social responsibility	Manager	111,17	11,923	6	Optimism	Manager	104,83	15,741	6		
	Employee	101,02	18,253	45		Employee	97,69	17,452	45		
	Total	102,22	17,841	51		Total	98,53	17,269	51		
Interpersonal relationship	Manager	106,50	14,321	6	Happiness	Manager	107,00	9,592	6		
	Employee	100,91	15,350	45		Employee	98,80	18,075	45		
	Total	101,57	15,204	51		Total	99,76	17,431	51		

3.14.2 General linear model – resistance to change

In Table 3.10 the general linear model statistics are shown for both managers and employees for the resistance to change questionnaire. As shown in Table 3.10 the difference between the total resistance to change for managers (mean = 2,5) and other employees (mean = 2,8498) is not very significant. The analysis indicated that employees are generally more resistant to change than managers. The data indicated that normal employees are more inclined to prefer routine (mean = 2,5316), where managers are not bound by routine too much (mean = 2,1667).

It was also evident that normal employees experience a higher emotional reaction to change (mean = 2,9803) than managers (mean = 2,3750). This finding thus explains that normal employees will be more resistant to change than managers and will experience their resistance to change on a more emotional level.

The last significant finding indicated that normal employees are more likely to have a short-term focus (mean = 2,375) than managers (mean = 2,0417). This also explains why managers tend to resist change in a lesser manner. Managers, as previously proven by the high correlation between managers' reality testing and the level of Emotional Intelligence, tend to be able to see the bigger picture more objectively than regular employees and will therefore be more open to change than regular employees.

TABLE 3-10 GENERAL LINEAR MODEL STATISTICS – RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Between-subjects factors				
		Value	Lab	N
Group	1	Manager		6
	4	Employee		38
Descriptive statistics				
	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Routine seeking	Manager	2,1667	0,87101	6
	Employee	2,5316	0,76868	38
	Total	2,4818	0,78274	44
Emotional reaction	Manager	2,3750	0,51841	6
	Employee	2,9803	0,90491	38
	Total	2,8977	0,88317	44
Short-term focus	Manager	2,0417	0,76513	6
	Employee	2,3750	0,80486	38
	Total	2,3295	0,79930	44
Cognitive rigidity	Manager	3,5000	0,97468	6
	Employee	3,5921	0,83306	38
	Total	3,5795	0,84181	44
Resistance to change	Manager	2,5000	0,50977	6
	Employee	2,8498	0,63777	38
	Total	2,8021	0,62846	44

3.15 SUMMARY OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

This chapter started with an overview of the research process, including the methods for preparing a questionnaire and for gathering and analysing data for the empirical study.

Two questionnaires were used for gathering data. The first was the Bar-On EQi questionnaire, measuring individual levels of Emotional Intelligence and the second,

Shaul Oreg's Resistance to Change questionnaire, which was only distributed to respondents of the Bar-On EQi questionnaire.

All of the responses were statistically analysed and interpreted on both individual and collective level. The results of the empirical study were presented in tabular as well as graphical form and interpreted in short discussions.

Conclusions from this study and recommendations to address identified gaps will be discussed in chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter, conclusions will be made relating to the objectives of the study. Initially the conclusions reached from the empirical study will be discussed, whereafter recommendations for future research will be made. These recommendations will be based on the following:

- The knowledge of experts and researchers as discussed in the literature study (Chapter 2).
- Results gained from the empirical investigation (Chapter 3).
- The chapter will conclude the research study with a brief summary.

4.2 CONCLUSIONS BASED ON EMPIRICAL STUDY

Voorstel: The researcher identified the need for research to be done on the importance of Emotional Intelligence as a factor for dealing with and managing Change and Resistance to Change after an extensive study of literature, of which a summary is presented in Chapter 2.

The impact of Emotional Intelligence during change has not been tested previously. The literature study furthermore revealed that the majority of research on change and resistance to change tends to be the view of the change agent. Not much has been written on how individuals experience change and why individuals tend to resist it.

The literature reviewed enabled the researcher to identify the important role played by emotions during any process of change and recognised the importance of the

concept of Emotional Intelligence as a factor for dealing with change as well as resistance to change. The researcher has therefore attempted to expand on the sparse theoretical work done on this specific topic, examining the importance of Emotional Intelligence in assisting individuals to deal with change and to manage resistance to change.

As mentioned in the previous chapters, the researcher is of the opinion that individuals with high Emotional Intelligence will be more likely to be adaptable in their emotional reactions to discrepancies signalling the need for change, since those people are more adaptable and responsive to their emotions and moods with better knowledge and understanding of the feelings they are experiencing. Through the empirical research, the researcher therefore attempted to find a correlation between the concept of Emotional Intelligence and individual resistance to change in order to find evidence for this belief. It comes as no surprise that valid evidence was found, presented in Table 3.8 and also graphically shown in Figure 16 in chapter 3, to support the researcher's belief, supporting the primary objective of this research study and serving as the foundation for all conclusions drawn from it.

4.2.1 Research objectives

The primary objectives of this study were to find evidence that managers who can manage and make sense of their own and their subordinates' emotions during organisational change, contribute more to the process of change and are less likely to resist change. Also, that those employees with higher levels of Emotional Intelligence are less likely to resist change. These primary objectives consist of three secondary objectives: firstly, finding correlations between Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change; secondly, confirming that managers with a high Emotional Intelligence are able to better manage themselves and their subordinates during change efforts which will result in less resistance to the change effort by themselves and their subordinates; and thirdly, indicating that individuals with high Emotional Intelligence levels contribute more to organisational change and are less likely to resist change.

The empirical study revealed that there was a significant negative correlation between the level of Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change (-0,627) and this was graphically presented in Figure 3.4 in chapter 3.

This was a truly remarkable finding as it fulfilled the first secondary objective of the research and therefore contributed to the researcher's main objective for this particular research study in the sense that the finding revealed that individuals with high Emotional Intelligence would have lower levels of resistance to change. The abovementioned finding also presented evidence that supported the last secondary objective namely that individuals who could manage and make sense of their own and others' emotions would be less likely to resist change.

The primary objective was further indirectly achieved through the evidence discussed in paragraph 3.14.1 in chapter 3, indicating that managers' levels of Emotional Intelligence were relatively higher than those of regular employees, supporting the secondary objective. This result gave the indication that managers at Lefatshe tend to be more in touch with their feelings than regular employees, feeling good about themselves and being fairly successful in realising their potential. They tend to be good at understanding the way others feel and relating to other people. The results indicated that managers are above average at managing stress and furthermore tend to be more realistic, assertive and fairly successful in solving problems.

As indicated by the research in chapter 3 enough evidence, including the correlation between Total Emotional Intelligence and Total Resistance to Change in Figure 3.4, higher Emotional Intelligence levels in Table 3.9 and lower resistance to change (Table 3.10) levels of managers was presented, indicating that the Emotional Intelligence of managers contributes to their managing themselves successfully and being less resistant to change. However, no real evidence supported the idea that they would excel at managing their subordinates' resistance. The empirical research therefore failed in specifically measuring the management of the employees' resistance to change since the response rate of managers was not high enough and could therefore not be analysed in a departmental way, correlating the managers' level of Emotional Intelligence with their subordinates' levels of resistance.

Earlier in the study the researcher identified that leaders and followers often see change in very different ways. Leaders foresee the change that is going to happen and carefully think through the change they believe would be for the good of the organisation. Leaders tend to experience change in an anticipated way, gradually paced and also as new opportunities, whereas followers, on the other hand, experience change as disruptive, unexpected and something that will create problems.

The above-mentioned was supported by a number of empirical findings, starting with the evidence that managers had a higher mean score of Emotional Intelligence than regular employees (mean = 113) and also showed less resistance to change (mean = 2,5). The main reason why managers tended to be less resistant to change is because of the fact that they had significantly higher scores on some critical subscales of Emotional Intelligence, contributing directly to the level of resistance to change. These subscales included self-actualisation, stress management, adaptability, reality testing and problem solving. This finding provides further evidence to support the idea that managers with high Emotional Intelligence are well able to manage themselves during change and will also be less resistant to change.

The idea that change is experienced differently by managers to regular employees, is supported by the finding that regular employees have a slightly higher mean score on levels of resistance to change (mean = 2,8) than managers and therefore tend to be more resistant to change. The main reason for the abovementioned is the fact that regular employees have a short-term focus and tend to have a higher emotional reaction to change.

The researcher will discuss the conclusion with regard to the difference in individual experience of change and resistance to change in more detail in the following section.

4.2.2 Resistance to change on the individual level

In the literature study in chapter 2 the researcher formed the opinion that managers need to have a good understanding of the role played by emotions during a period of

change. The researcher clearly identified that individual transition goes hand in hand with a whole cycle of emotions, compared to the process of individual grievances as graphically shown in Figure 2.3 in chapter 2. The researcher further identified the changes that take place on an individual level and are experienced differently by every single person in his own time. Individuals will therefore also differ in their response to change and more specifically in their resistance, which was also identified to be a normal reaction to change.

The empirical research provided the researcher with evidence supporting the above-mentioned discussion. The researcher is furthermore of the opinion that this was one of the most significant findings of the research study. During the empirical study it became evident that there was no correlation between the cognitive rigidity subscale and the other factors making up total resistance to change. It was therefore evident that individuals experience change on an emotional level more than on a cognitive level.

During the literature study in chapter 2 the researcher identified many authors suggesting ways of overcoming resistance to change. The majority of these suggestions included the employees' involvement and participation and establishing an understanding of the need for change. Researchers argued that, in order for individuals to overcome their emotional reactions and resistance to change, they need to understand the bigger picture and the reason for the change. The researcher supports this idea whole-heartedly, based on the discussion in the section above, indicating that managers approach and experience change in a different way to regular employees because of their understanding of the bigger picture and also because of the fact that regular employees tend to resist change and experience it in a more emotional way.

The data presented in the empirical research revealed that cognitive rigidity contributes significantly to the total level of resistance of an individual. This supports the researcher's findings in the literature study that managers need to help employees in understanding the reasons for change and to involve them more during the process of change in order to help them overcome their cognitive stubbornness and unwillingness to change. The researcher also came to the conclusion in

paragraph 3.12.2 in chapter 3 that when an individual's resistance to change is on a cognitive level, the level of Emotional Intelligence will have no impact on helping the individual to be less resistant to change. From this finding the researcher comes to the conclusion that when individual's experience resistance to change on a cognitive level, it is the manager's responsibility to help them understand the reason for the change in order to manage that resistance to change. The manager's level of Emotional Intelligence will then also play a vital role in how effectively the manager will manage the resistance experienced by the individual on a cognitive level.

Due to the fact that there was no significant difference between the total levels of resistance to change of managers and regular employees, the conclusions made in the literature study show that resistance to change is experienced on an individual level. It does not matter whether one is in a managerial position or reporting to someone else, the resistance to change will take place on an individual and an emotional level.

The research did indicate that managers tend to have lower emotional reactions to change than regular employees due to the fact that their Emotional Intelligence levels were higher and they therefore manage their emotions better. This finding supports the secondary objective that managers with high Emotional Intelligence will be better able to manage their own emotions during change efforts.

4.3 STUDY EVALUATION

4.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study ***“to find evidence that supports the researcher's hypothesis that managers who can manage and make sense of their own and their subordinates' emotions during organisational change contribute more to the process of change and are less likely to resist change”*** was achieved through the research evidence providing a significantly high negative correlation between the Emotional Intelligence and the level of resistance of managers, described in more detail in chapter 3 and section 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 above.

4.3.2 Secondary objectives

The first objective, finding a correlation between Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change, was achieved through the finding that all Emotional Intelligence scales and subscales and all factors making up resistance to change had negative correlations. The fact that the data represented negative correlations indicates that the objective has been met, since it shows that higher Emotional Intelligence correlates with lower resistance to change. This finding is also presented in Table 3.8 in chapter 3.

The second objective, namely to confirm that managers with a high Emotional Intelligence are better able to manage themselves and their subordinates during change efforts which will also result in less resistance to the change effort by themselves and their subordinates, was achieved through the evidence that managers had high Emotional Intelligence scores and low levels of resistance. The research indicated that managers are better able to manage their own emotions as a result of their higher Emotional Intelligence levels, yet failed to provide real evidence supporting the idea that managers would manage their subordinates' resistance better.

The third objective attempted to find an indication that individuals with high Emotional Intelligence contribute more to organisational change and are less likely to resist change efforts. The last part of the objective has been met through the research indicating that resistance to change takes place on an individual level and due to the correlation between resistance to change and Emotional Intelligence, it is indicated that it doesn't matter whether individuals are in managerial positions or not, they are less likely to resist change when they have a high level of Emotional Intelligence. The first part of the objective was indirectly proven in the research by the conclusion that individuals with high levels of Emotional Intelligence will have a lower emotional reaction to change, will tend to think cognitively about the change effort and are more open toward change. The researcher is therefore of the opinion that those individuals will then also contribute more towards the change effort since they understand the bigger picture and the need for the change.

Although the majority of the research objectives have been met through the research study, the researcher realises that the research had some shortcomings and will address these as recommendations to be used for further research that needs to be done on this topic.

4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

With the objective of overcoming the shortcomings of this research study the researcher proposes the following:

The researcher identified that the biggest shortcoming of this research study was two-fold. Firstly, the response rate of the managers was too small to draw remarkable conclusions, specifically focusing on the managers' Emotional Intelligence and its role in the management of resistance to change. The second part was that the researcher found it difficult to find correlations, specifically between the Emotional Intelligence of managers and the influence thereof on the resistance to change of their subordinates. The researcher proposes that further studies should be undertaken, focusing specifically on managers and their particular subordinates. This will give an indication as to whether a specific manager's Emotional Intelligence level contributes to the resistance of particular employees managed by him and on his management style.

The researcher decided to do the research study within one organisation with only 90 employees. Although the response rate was sufficient for the purpose of this specific research, the sample size was quite small. The research results did not provide significant differences in correlations, nor presented significant findings within the data. The researcher is of the opinion that a bigger sample will give more specific findings, highlighting particular aspects of Emotional Intelligence that correlate with specific factors of resistance to change. The researcher therefore suggests that future research needs to expand to a bigger population, stretching across organisational and industrial boundaries.

One specific finding within the research study was that cognitive rigidity did not correlate significantly with the other factors making up the total resistance to change,

including routine seeking, emotional reaction and short-term focus. The researcher proposes that future research could investigate the possibility of including other factors in the research that also correlate to Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change.

The researcher proposes that future studies could take the research topic further by looking at the role played by Emotional Intelligence in the management of resistance to change by employees of a different race or gender.

The researcher briefly touched on the topic of the importance of leadership in the process of leading change in chapter 2. A distinct connection was identified between the concept of transformational leadership and successful management. The literature further revealed that the concept of Emotional Intelligence forms a crucial part of transformational leadership. This specific research study did not focus on leadership or even more specifically transformational leadership. The researcher therefore finishes the suggestions for future research off by identifying the need for in-depth research on specifically the role Emotional Intelligence of transformational leaders play and the impact it has on the way they manage and deal with resistance to change from individuals.

4.5 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to conclude the empirical study as described in chapter 3. Based on the conclusions made from the literature study in chapter 2 and the empirical analysis and interpretation of the research in chapter 3, the researcher provided evidence to support all of the research objectives.

This final chapter started with a discussion on the conclusions drawn by the researcher from the empirical study in chapter 3. The major conclusion was that the researcher identified a correlation existing between Emotional Intelligence and resistance to change. This finding served as the foundation of the research study and the rest of the conclusions made.

The researcher then discussed the correlations and relationships identified through the statistical analysis in chapter 3 and how it provided evidence to support the primary and secondary research objectives of the research study.

The researcher came to the conclusion that all of the primary and secondary research objectives have been met, either directly or indirectly, through the statistical data presented in chapter 3, and therefore concluded the purpose of this research study.

The researcher has identified some shortcomings and presented some suggestions to address these, thereby concluding the chapter with a section on suggestions and recommendations for future research in the field of study.

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