‘The Times they are a-changin’: Emotional Responses to the Temporal Dimensions of Organisational Change

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Abstract

The temporal dimensions of organisational change can elicit emotional responses among employees. Employees often struggle to cope with changes that are too fast or too slow, when faced with frequent change initiatives and when changes are poorly timed. We report on a qualitative study which reveals that most of the emotional responses to time-related aspects of organisational change were negative. A key factor relating to both the direction and intensity of employee emotions stemmed from whether employees perceive that they had sufficient control over the organisational change in general and the temporal aspects of that change in particular.

Key words
Organisational change, time, emotions

Organisational change can be an emotion-charged experience. According to Bridges (1995, 2003) and Schneider and Goldwasser (1998) it is not so much the nature of the change as the transition or process which is the problem for most people. In this paper, we focus on one set of temporal dimensions that underlie any change process: the speed, frequency and timing of organisational change. We seek to explore the temporal dynamics of various types of organisational change at the personal level, and, in particular, the affective responses that they evoke.

Special issues of time and its organisational aspects have been published in The Academy of Management Review, The Academy of Management Journal and the journal of Organizational Change Management, (for overviews see Goodman, Lawrence, Ancona and Tushman 2001, Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron 2001, and Carr and Hancock 2006) but have paid little attention to linkages between time and emotion. This mirrors the relative lack of attention that has been given in research (and practice) to emotions in the broader aspects of organisational experience (Fineman 2003; Domagalski 1999; Fisher & Ashkanasy 1999) and particularly in the study of organisational change (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996; Carr 1999; Jordan 2005; Kiefer 2005; Matheny & Smollan 2005).

Emotions have been defined as ‘intrapersonal states such as feelings, states of arousal, or activation of certain motor skills’ (Frijda, 2000: 61) and as ‘organized and highly structured reaction[s] to an event that is relevant to the needs, goals or survival of an organism’ (Watson & Clark...
(1994: 89). The cognitive appraisal theory of emotion (Lazarus 1991; Scherer 1999) identifies two stages of emotional reactions to an event: primary appraisal occurs when a person evaluates a situation (such as an organisational change) as positive or negative for one’s wellbeing while secondary appraisal involves a contemplation of coping mechanisms. Emotions can be invoked during change as people anticipate or experience positive and negative outcomes and processes and can range ‘from fear to envy, from rivalry to anger, from enthusiasm to cynicism, or from energetic enjoyment to apathy’ (French 2001: 480). These emotional reactions can help or hinder the implementation of organisational change (Bovey & Hede 2001; Smollan 2006) and therefore need close attention. How people manage their emotional reactions to change depends partly on individual variables such as personality (Oreg 2003; Wanberg & Banas 2000) and emotional intelligence – the ability to understand and regulate one’s emotions (Mayer & Salovey 1997; Jordan 2005), and partly on organisational factors, such as permitted emotional expression (Bryant & Wolfram Cox 2006; Bolton 2005).

Change-related emotions can arise specifically due to aspects of time. Our contribution to the literature on change and its temporal dimensions lies in underscoring the emotional features and presenting insights from a qualitative study that focuses on a wider number of variables than existing literature provides.

**TEMPORAL ELEMENTS OF CHANGE**

Clark (1990: 143) maintains that the prevailing and inaccurate notion in organisation sciences is that time is ‘objective, absolute, homogeneous, linear, evenly-flowing, measurable, readily divisible and independent of events’ and that in reality individuals and departments often construct the notion of time in different ways, including when change should take place. Distinguishing between conventional quantitative or *clock time* from qualitative or *inner time*, Huy (2001: 602) suggests that the latter is extremely important since ‘subjective temporal experiences represent potential sources of psychological stress’, as people grapple with the implications of the change. He emphasises that
different types of change leadership are necessary for different types of change to run smoothly and that issues of time are a critical aspect of the experience of change.

In this paper, we do not address the reactions that arise over a period of time of organisational change (e.g. Elrod & Tippett 2000). We do not look at how people cycle through emotions over time and how these might be tied to phases of change (e.g. Isabella 1990). Rather, we are interested in the emotion elicited by the temporal dimensions of organisational change. Specifically, we focus on how the speed, frequency and timing of organisational change can elicit emotions.

Speed, frequency and timing relate to different aspects of the temporality of change. That said, these three aspects of temporality may have different meanings for different people. Moreover, working from theoretical and practical perspectives these temporal dimensions of change interact (Huy 2001; Pettigrew et al 2001; Ancona, Okhuysen & Perlow 2001) such that distinguishing one from the other two can be problematic. For example, Huy (2001: 605) wrote of ‘the density of events per unit of time’. This seemingly clear characterization of temporality includes aspects of speed, frequency, and timing of change. Speed, frequency and timing of change also overlap with other common characterizations of change temporality. For example, speed and pace are synonyms, but as some literature on strategic change indicates (Gersick 1994; Eisenhardt & Brown 1998), pacing can refer to speed, timing or frequency. Similarly, a delay in a planned change could be seen an aspect of speed, timing, frequency or all three. We hope this paper adds a degree of clarity among these contested aspects of temporality, but it is beyond this scope of this paper to resolve the interaction and overlap. Instead, we sought mention of speed, frequency and timing of change and related terms from the literature and used this as a starting point for our investigation.

**Speed of Change**

Cameron (2006: 317) suggests that ‘not only is change ubiquitous and unpredictable, but almost everyone also assumes that its velocity will increase exponentially’, and Bridges (2003: 102) is convinced that ‘the hardest thing to deal with is not the pace of change but changes in the acceleration of that pace.’ The period of time that elapses from knowledge of an organisational change to implementation can be perceived as too long, too short or acceptable, by various change actors
(leaders, managers and recipients). Huy (2001) considers the type of change to be relevant to the speed at which it is managed. For example he suggests a cultural change needs to be managed slowly. ‘To build trust [change leaders] typically move at a patient pace and do not rush their targets into submission’ (Huy, 2001: 610), whereas changing structure or processes can be managed more quickly.

Those who believe that the time for implementation is too short experience anxiety as they do not think that there is enough time for themselves, or others, to either perform the tasks that are necessary, or to psychologically adapt to the change (Blount & Janicik 2001; Huy 2001; Meyer & Stensaker 2006). A number of empirical studies bear this out. Participants in a factory study conducted by Wolfram Cox (1997) commented that changes were introduced too quickly and without adequate consultation or training. Almost half of the nurses surveyed by Ball (2006) indicated that the pace of change had been too fast. In another study of nurses there were a number of complaints that the speed of technological change was stressful (Andrews, Manthorpe & Watson 2005). Riolli and Savicki (2006) reported that a rapid change in an information system led to burnout, which includes emotional exhaustion (Maslach & Jackson 1981), particularly when employees perceived procedural injustice, but there was no direct evidence that it was the speed of change which led to the burnout. Those who believe the period between phases is too long dislike the uncertainty or simply want a quicker implementation of the change and the resolution of an issue. Many writers refer to the uncertainty, ambiguity and anxiety that often accompany change (e.g. Carr 1999; French 2001). For example, in downsizing many employees prefer to hear of possible negative outcomes as soon as possible rather than bear the agony of waiting (Paterson & Hartel 2002; Armstrong-Stassen 1998).

**Frequency of Change**

People dealing with a series of changes, or multiple changes at the same time, often struggle to cope with the time and energy required. Wolfram Cox (1997) conducted research in a company that in a period of 18 months underwent changes in team structures, pay, shifts, jobs and staffing levels, and while she found a wide number of negative emotions, she did not report on the combined impact of these multiple changes. Woodward and Hendry’s (2004) study of change in the financial services industry in London revealed changes in many aspects of employment, including structure, technology,
staffing levels and targets, and highlighted the need for emotion-focused and problem-focused coping skills (Folkman & Lazarus 1988) to deal with multiple changes. Connell and Waring (2002) conducted three longitudinal case studies of a succession of change initiatives, and reported increased employee cynicism that change leads to negative outcomes of greater workload, restructuring, redeployment and redundancy. Kiefer’s (2005) study of ongoing change confirmed that it produced mainly negative emotions but that these were mediated by perceptions of personal status and security, working conditions and organisational trust.

Burnout is a term associated with prolonged stress and has both environmental causes (including work overload and perceptions of injustice) and personality antecedents (Halbesleben & Buckley 2004; Riolli & Savicki 2006). Originally conceived by Maslach and Jackson (1981: 99) as an outcome of individuals who do ‘people-work’ the symptoms of burnout are emotional exhaustion (based on a build up of ‘feelings of anger, embarrassment, fear or despair’), depersonalisation and a sense of reduced personal accomplishment. For the purposes of our study it is important to distinguish between the burnout as a result of the outcomes or processes of one organisational change from the exhaustion that comes from coping with ongoing or consecutive change. For example, Huy (2001) commented on the emotional exhaustion of managers who experienced eight years of restructuring at GE. Greenglass and Burke’s (2002) research into burnout pointed to the ripple effects of hospital restructuring as nurses had to deal with multiple factors and reduced resources.

However, it is not only negative emotions that can lead to change burnout. Prolonged excitement, accompanied by work overload, can also lead to burnout as people struggle to maintain high levels of emotionally-charged effort. The original Holmes-Rahe scale of recent life changes has been broadened by Rahe, Veach, Tolles and Murakami (2000) to measure the stress levels in people who have experienced a number of consecutive or overlapping life changes (including those that are work-related), and which are both positive and negative. People who have a high total score will face considerable challenges in coping with multiple changes.

**Timing of Change**
Three concepts need to be addressed here. The first relates to the point in time that an organisation or manager introduces a change, or implements a phase of it. Requiring staff to consider or implement a change at a busy time of the month or year is likely to meet with some form of resistance, if they experience the anxiety or anger of impending overload or perceived injustice. For example, increasing executive pay soon after a downsizing will produce anger in certain stakeholders (Ward 2006).

The second is concerned with the impacts of a change on an employee’s personal work schedule. Blount and Janicik (2001) propose that a schedule change will produce negative responses if it is unexpected, the length of the delay is unknown and the employee has dispositional impatience. Conversely, a delay in a schedule change will be welcomed by those who either disapprove of the change or the timing of it. Huy (2001: 608) advises that ‘when upsetting inner time, change agents have to ensure the presence of a minimum level of psychological comfort to avoid harming those they seek to change and to improve their receptivity to new but potentially threatening ideas.’

The third concept of timing relates to the sequencing of the phases of change and this relates to both when change is introduced and how fast the process is supposed to be (Huy 2001). When several changes need to be managed the sequencing of the changes needs to be carefully thought out (Pettigrew et al. 2001) so that employees are able to adapt to the changes on cognitive, affective and behavioural levels.

The temporal aspects of organisational change thus have the capacity to trigger both positive and negative emotions yet the extant literature has presented neither a comprehensive view of how this occurs nor sufficient empirical evidence. We therefore sought to extend the literature by interviewing people on the temporal dynamics of organisational change.

**METHODS**

A social constructionist approach was taken to the collection and analysis of data. Social constructionists seek to reveal the lived experience of those studied rather than create an objectified record of their experience (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). This paradigm assumes that knowledge is developed through interaction among social identities and it has been used to explore the experience of emotions (e.g. Callahan & McCollum 2002; Barsade, Brief & Spataro 2003) and organisational
People make sense of organisational change (e.g. Ford, Ford & McNamara 2002; Bryant & Wolfram Cox 2006) by weaving together cognitive and affective experiences and through multiple discourses (Gergen & Thatchenkerry 2004). Time itself has been considered to be a socially constructed phenomenon (Clark 1990; Pettigrew et al. 2001; Wolfram Cox 1997) in terms of wider aspects of nationality, ethnicity and religion, and also of specific organisational cultures (Ancona et al. 2001). People experience organisational change events in very subjective ways (Huy 2001) and though various identity-based lenses (Ford et al. 2002). It is the respondents’ unique emotional reactions to the temporal dimensions of different types of change that we sought to uncover.

Between March 2006 and April 2007 24 people from a variety of industries, organisations, functional departments and hierarchical levels were interviewed in Auckland in a wider project on emotions and organisational change. They were unknown to the researchers and were sourced through consultants who were requested to provide potential interviewees who had had some experience of organisational change. There were 13 males and 11 females, 16 European, three Asian, two Maori and three of Pacific Island background, and they ranged in age from the 30s to the 50s. Eight were in human resource roles and 17 were in management positions, some with considerable experience in managing change. From an analysis of the transcripts we identified a number of respondents who in general were change leaders, change managers or change recipients, but who may have had varying roles in different aspects of the change. In a semi-structured interview, participants were asked to describe organisational change(s) they had experienced. The interview explored a range of issues regarding the cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects of different types of organisational change, restructuring being the most frequently reported. Specific questions addressed the temporal issues of speed, frequency and timing of change, and in particular, the emotional reactions of the 24 interviewees to these aspects. Those in management positions were also asked to comment on the emotions they noted in other staff.

The analysis of the transcripts went through various levels of construction. As Schwandt (1998: 22) puts it: ‘To prepare an interpretation is itself to construct a reading of these meanings; it is to offer the inquirer’s construction of the constructions of the actors one studies.’ One of the authors conducted the interviews and listened to the tapes, while the other two read the transcripts. A series of
meetings was then held for authors to discuss and integrate individual constructions of the transcripts. We coded the responses in terms of the three temporal dimensions and added categories for positive and negative emotions, perceived degrees of influence over the change (high, low, and low but with expectations of more influence), high and low intensity and positive and negative outcomes for self and others. We then discussed the main themes that we saw emerging from the interviews.

**DISCUSSION**

Our most fundamental finding, the temporal aspects of organisational change, was reported as being associated with emotions by most of the participants, with more negative than positive emotional responses. Our discussion is presented on two levels, the first relating specifically to the affective reactions to the three temporal elements of change and the second identifying the other factors that appear to be related to the emotional responses to the temporality of change.

**Speed of Change**

With regard to the speed of change, respondents fell into three categories: those who thought the change was too fast, those who believed it was too slow and those who thought that the pace was acceptable. Change was considered to be too quick when it gave those affected too little time to either do the work that was required, or to adjust to the change on a psychological level. O, who was a change recipient, felt at the end of a change that it was ‘freefall’ and that she was powerless to do anything about it. B, a junior human resources officer, was ‘absolutely furious’ that a senior manager suddenly announced a major redundancy plan to the media well ahead of the agreed schedule. Suddenly announced schedule changes have been identified by Blount and Janicik (2001) as irritating when they disrupted established rhythms or inconvenienced people. Change was also considered too quick when it denied respondents the opportunity to contribute to change decisions, views that were also found in Wolfram Cox’s (1997) study. A, a senior manager, felt ‘disenfranchised’ that in a restructuring process a division he had built up over many years was ‘gone in the blink of an eye’. D, a professional, was shocked and angry when told that her division was being closed and that she was to be made redundant with immediate effect. Similarly, V, a non-manager, was surprised to be called into
a staff meeting to hear that his job was to be disestablished. He contacted various external stakeholders to inform them of developments and was stunned when he was suspended the next day, and dismissed within two months, over the issue of communication with external stakeholders.

Change was considered too slow by change leaders and managers who experienced frustration that the plan was taking too long to be implemented, and that it was taking too long for others to ‘get the picture’. W termed it the ‘marathon effect’ (the same metaphor used by Bridges 2003: 65) - the frontrunners in large marathons are well down the road while others are still standing at the start. People who anticipate bad news such as in a redundancy want finality and, if need be, to start the process of job hunting immediately. One change manager suggested that ‘delay causes pain’, another that ‘uncertainty can demoralise people’ (French 2001). One manager, who was privy to certain information about a change, felt guilty that he could not reveal it to those who would be affected by it, and when he did confide in his some of his colleagues he experienced some anxiety that this could reach the ears of his fellow executives and be deemed a breach of confidence. A few managers commented that some of their staff believed change was too fast and some believed it was too slow, and that perceptions depended on the context of the change or the personalities of the staff. The negative orientation to speed of change was well conveyed by D, who said “I cannot work out in my own mind, having gone through it, whether it’s better to have it done quickly or consulted with and done slowly. I mean both are bad.”

**Frequency of Change**

Several participants had experienced a number of changes over a period of time. W maintained one of his pressures was managing three change initiatives at the same time. R, who played a role in leading a series of organisational changes that included structure, job competencies, performance management, training and remuneration, referred to the pressure of having ‘so many balls in the air and juggling the priorities and switching instantly from one to the next’. Interestingly, she compared the ‘shock and horror’ of some of the challenges to the positive emotions of inspiration and excitement. The scale developed by Rahe et al. (2000) found that an accumulation of both positive and negative life changes can lead to stress. S, however, felt excitement in the management of regular change but did not
experience negative emotions. It is mostly negative emotions, however, that surface in ongoing change, which Kiefer (2005) indicates arise from poorer working conditions, uncertainty over one’s status and future, and the low levels of perceived fairness and support, all of which were mentioned by our participants. Change weariness was reported by a number of respondents in Connell and Waring’s (2002) research and by Huy (2001) in his analysis of GE. F referred to his organisation as ‘change weary’ and ‘punch drunk’ from a history of changes but did not admit to negative emotions of his own. Similarly, N, who was brought in at senior level to oversee a major change, commented:

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

Timing of Change

Only a few participants identified timing of the change, or a phase of it, as an issue either for themselves or others. In managing redundancies a factor that played some role was the timing of the announcement of those who were to be laid off. G, a senior manager, believed that it was unfair to lay off people by closing a branch just before Christmas and the delay in doing so meant that head office managers were put under extra pressure to balance costs and revenues over a longer period than desirable. C, also a senior manager, reflected that the timing of a relocation and retrenchment of staff done just before Christmas undermined people’s enjoyment of the holiday season but enabled them to save money and plan for the future. Another manager, E, reported that the change was completed just before Christmas but resulted in very few layoffs. A retail assistant, U, found that the timing was good because although a merger had been completed just before Christmas little change would take place at the operational level where she worked and because all staff were able to process the change before a very busy period. That there would be no redundancies had been announced at the outset.

J reported that change-related family issues created an unfavourable coincidence with organisational change and added to his own stress levels in managing change on two fronts. There is little literature on how work-life issues are affected by organisational change, and while Bacharach,
Bamberger and Sonnenstuhl’s (1996) study of airline crew painted a picture of the impact of organisational change in that industry on family life, it was not related to the timing of change.

Other Contributing Factors

While respondents were able to relate emotional reactions to change to issues of time there appeared to be patterns to their responses. Firstly, when people perceived they had control over the change - including the temporal aspects - they appeared to have fewer negative emotional reactions than those who had less control. While attempts have been made to distinguish between leaders, managers and recipients of change (Higgs & Rowland, 2000; Caldwell 2003), in practice it is not always easy to classify roles. For example, a person may lead one aspect of the change (a restructuring), implement another (new job descriptions) and be affected by others (an office move), and have varying degrees of control over each aspect. Several of our interviewees were managers but did not perceive themselves as having sufficient influence over change outcomes or processes, including their temporal features.

Ashforth (2001) asserts that lack of control over transitions is more traumatic if it negatively affects one’s concept of identity and if this impact is long in duration. Dirks et al. (1996) maintain that self-initiated change allows a person to maintain control whereas imposed change threatens a person’s sense of control. Internal locus of control is a dispositional construct that suggests that people believe they can significantly influence their lives (Wanberg & Banas 2000; Oreg 2003). They are likely to experience negative emotions in circumstances when they cannot exert influence. A number of managers we interviewed reflected that while they had had considerable experience in organisational change, and were therefore adept in handling the challenges of ongoing change, they did admit that they were a lot more comfortable when they were in control of events. Several change managers and recipients felt that they should have been consulted more on the change. A’s ‘disenfranchisement’ in a structural change was not only due to receiving a less influential and satisfying position but also by a fast process that left no room for anything other than token consultation. Conversely, various change leaders reported frustration over insufficient control of slow change processes. M, who referred to the series of changes in his organisation as a roller coaster, was a senior manager in a restructuring process and was involved in some decisions but not others: ‘A week later I literally got told it had all changed.
so I got very much the feeling that things were being done to me as opposed to being involved in the change.’ As temporality of change is an aspect of the change process, this response reinforces the view that people who perceive low procedural justice in organisational change experience negative emotions (Brotheridge 2003; Kiefer 2005; Riolli & Savicki 2006; Paterson & Hartel 2002; Matheny & Smollan 2005). Riolli and Savicki’s (2006) survey of a rapid change showed different levels of burnout and strain of staff in two units, one involving far less consultation than the other. Management style, rather than the speed of change, appeared to be the overriding factor.

The intensity of the emotional reaction in many cases also seemed to be related to the perceived but unrealised expectation of more control. B was furious over the sudden diversion from an agreed schedule, partly because she had to work overnight on internal communications but mostly because of the lack of consultation. R’s ‘shock and horror’ seemed to be derived from a feeling that in managing multiple changes something would spin out of control.

Other factors that may have influenced the emotional reactions to change include the outcomes for respondents or others, the respondent’s emotional intelligence (EI), and the respondents’ general emotional response to the change. Firstly, emotional reactions – and their intensity – were sometimes linked to the outcomes for respondents or others. Managers were very aware of how the temporal aspects of change impacted on their staff and were able to label specific emotions.

Secondly, this sensitivity led us to think that EI and disposition may play a role in the experience of organisational change and its temporal dimensions. EI is widely considered as the ability to understand and manage one’s own emotions and those of others (Mayer & Salovey 1997; Ashkanasy & Daus 2005; Jordan 2005; McEnrue & Groves 2006) but has been given minimal attention in studies of organisational change (Huy 1999; Jordan 2005; Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006). EI was evident in many of our respondents. Not only were they keenly aware of their own emotions but also demonstrated considerable empathy for the impact of change on others. Some noted the emotions derived specifically from the speed, frequency and timing of changes. While contentious arguments have been put forward that EI is also a personality construct and not just an ability (Goleman 1995; Perez, Petrides & Furnham 2005; Tett, Fox & Wang 2005) many studies of personality and organisational change have produced evidence that emotional responses to change are
at least partially dispositional (e.g. Wanous, Reichers & Austin 2000; Connell & Waring 2002) but there has been very little research focus on elements of time (Greenglass & Burke 2002; Oreg 2003). Our respondents mostly believed that they were generally open to change but did not relate this to its temporal aspects.

Finally, the interaction and overlap between the temporal aspects of change found in the literature was mirrored by our participants. Just over half the participants reported on more than one of the three aspects but many spoke in terms of one temporal aspect even when cued to speak about others. It is conceivable that these participants used an overall cognitive evaluation of the change and/or its temporal elements as a heuristic, resulting in less precise reports of affective responses.

**CONCLUSION AND DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

Aspects of time during organisational change have the potential to elicit emotional reactions, most of them negative, and which are more likely to arise where people lack control over the change in general, and time issues in particular. Elements of speed, frequency and timing seldom occur simultaneously for individuals but may interact to exacerbate negative evaluations and responses. It is conceivable that some people may not resist the actual change itself, rather some temporal aspect of it. We have added to the scant literature on emotional reactions to this aspect of change by producing some evidence of what emotions were evoked in various organisational change situations.

The impact of perceived influence over the temporal and affective dimensions of change is a fruitful area for future research. It is necessary to separate the loss of control after a change (Bryant & Wolfram Cox 2006), from the loss of control about the change process, and its temporal aspects. Further research could explore how control over the latter impacts on emotion, and its intensity, and under what circumstances. The role of disposition needs more exploration. To what extent do personality factors affect people’s reactions to the emotions of time-related changes? Locus of control is a dispositional concept and has been used to research organisational change (Wanberg & Banas 2000; Oreg 2003) but specific application to time-related change has seldom been addressed. Instruments are available to measure personality variables in organisational change and can explore time-related relevant issues like impatience, frustration, anxiety over uncertainty, cynicism and
burnout. For example, the questionnaire developed by Wanous et al. (2000) contains a measure of the amount of previous organisational change, Greenglass and Burke (2006) reported on cynicism as a variable in frequent change and Oreg (2003) measured responses to schedule changes. Interviews by Wolfram Cox (1997) and Connell and Waring (2002) have provided some insight into cynicism and change weariness. Clearly more quantitative and qualitative data on personality and temporal aspects of change are necessary.

A number of our participants could clearly identify and label their emotional reactions to change, and its temporal dimensions, while others struggled to do so. Some leaders and managers of change showed considerable awareness of the emotional reactions others had to change. Further research into how emotional intelligence and emotion management assist in the design, implementation and experience of the temporal aspects organisational change would be productive. Research into organisational change therefore has many promising times ahead.

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