What Lies Beneath Organisational Behaviour:

The Role of Hidden and Unconscious Processes at Work

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Abstract

There is much controversy about the value that psychoanalytic theory can add to the study of organisational behaviour, which goes beyond the rational and technological explanations offered by orthodox management perspectives. A key tenet of psychoanalytic theory is that mental processes that are "hidden" and operate at an "unconscious" level can impact employee behaviour, outside of their awareness (Kets de Vries, 2009). (In this thesis such processes are referred to as "below-the-surface" motivation.) Given the value of this knowledge to organisational leaders, it is surprising that so little is known about the potential impact of "below-the-surface" motivation on employee attitude, engagement and performance. This four-study thesis investigates the role of "below-the-surface" motivation in employees' "propensity to resist change", "avoid conflict" and "show less commitment to the organisation", which are implicit processes referred to in this thesis as "below-the-surface" motivation. It does so firstly by describing the researcher's positioning and philosophical approach, and the theoretical and practical objectives of the thesis. The researcher was guided by the belief that organisations exist as concrete entities, which prompt employees to react to them in psychological ways (Durkheim, 1895). Having adopted a combination of positivist and post-positivist approaches, the process of "operationalising" was used in an attempt to measure "below-the-surface" motivation in a standardised way (Arnaud, 2012). Opportunity sampling was used to select participants from three public-sector organisations in the UK and the Middle East region. Study 1 reviewed two psychoanalytic-informed coaching methods and found evidence of their usefulness for improving self-awareness of implicit processes, and for working/consulting at a "below-the-surface" level. Study 2 examined the relationships between employees' use of "immature psychological defence mechanisms" and their propensity to resist organisational change, finding evidence that employees' level of "core self-evaluation" played a mediating role in this. Study 3 found evidence to suggest that adopting a systems-psychodynamic coaching approach was useful for helping leaders from the Middle East region to develop awareness of their conflict

avoidance behaviour. Study 4 applied Winnicott's (1952) "good-enough" care theory and found evidence to suggest that it could further understanding of the relationship between employees' perception of organisational support (POS) and affective commitment (AC) in the context of organisational change. The thesis concludes with a reflective account of the overall findings, which suggest that "below-the-surface" motivation can impact employee behaviour in the workplace.

The implications of these findings for the occupational psychology community are that psychoanalysis can offer an alternative and critical perspective of organisational behaviour, which has wide explanatory power. Reflective and reflexive statements are offered throughout to highlight some of the challenges that the researcher encountered during this doctoral journey. For example, despite the philosophical choices made, due to the researcher's involvement in the process, at first it was a struggle to "step back" from defending the theory, attending to the limitations, partialities and flaws in the evidence base. The underlying reasons for the researcher's appeal for positivist and post-positivist approaches are also reflected on. Recommendations are made for the design and delivery of development interventions to raise awareness of "below-the-surface" motivation within organisations, and suggestions made around possible areas of future investigations. The thesis adds nuance to our understanding of organisational behaviour, and it evaluates the value and contribution of psychoanalytic thinking to the practice of occupational psychology.

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CHAPTER ONE (1)

Prologue

"Only through accepting and exploring the hidden undercurrents that affect human behaviour can we begin to understand organisational life" (Kets de Vries, 2014, p. 3).

1.0   Introduction and rationale

In this chapter, I state the scientist-practitioner objectives for my thesis. For example, I highlight my rationale for selecting the psychoanalytic perspective as a means to offer an alternative explanation for understanding organisational behaviours. Specifically, I discuss the extent to which this perspective can be used to help organisations and practitioners to develop a more profound understanding of organisational behaviour and functioning by taking into account the role of unconscious motivations, which in this thesis are referred to as "below-the-surface" motivations. I then discuss how this knowledge might be used to inform occupational psychology practice; for example, Hodgkinson (2006) suggests that the scientist-practitioner model is the unique selling point (USP) of the occupational psychology profession. In addition to this, I reflect on my personal and professional objectives and consider the potential benefits of this research for the collaborating organisations; I also give justification for claiming the original contribution that my research makes to occupational psychology research. Lastly, a reflexive account is presented to enable the reader to gain a deeper understanding of the reasons for my interest in the application of psychoanalysis to management, and I anticipate my awareness of the impact of my positioning on my research approach.

1.1   Professional background and current situation

As an occupational psychologist, researcher and senior lecturer in HRM, I understand and am aware of the attributions people give to the factors that influence organisational behaviour, how this is understood and explained in mainstream management literature, and how this is managed in

practice. Traditionally, organisational behaviours are usually explained from a rational-technical perspective (Contu, Driver & Jones, 2010); I know this through my academic readings and practice. However, having studied psychoanalysis up to master's level and worked as a residential social worker and in-house psychoanalytic therapist in a service for vulnerable children and adults experiencing psychological challenges, I am aware of the explanatory power of psychoanalysis (Fotaki, Long & Schwartz, 2012). However, there is no guarantee that applying psychoanalysis to business will command the same level of respect as that found in clinical settings, although a niche group of researchers (e.g. Kets de Vries, 1991; Hirschhorn, 1990; Long, 2006; Carr, 2002) have highlighted the potential impact of hidden and unconscious motives on employees' behaviours.

While this niche group of systems-psychodynamic researchers are contributing towards growing a promising body of research – developed well over 60 years ago – concerned with the application of psychoanalysis to workplace behaviours, only a sparse number of their findings have made their way into mainstream management literature. This is bound to have impacted practice too. Apart from wanting to understand the reason for this gap, I also developed an interest in filling it. I wanted to know more about what value psychoanalysis can, as is claimed, add to management practice and organisational behaviour theory. However, I was also aware that this "gap", specifically an understanding of "below-the-surface" motivations, might not appeal to management because, for example, their education and training did not provide the knowledge or skills to approach this (Arnaud, 2012). Furthermore, psychoanalysis has been heavily criticised ever since its conception (Carr, 2002).

Alternatively, those who are more familiar with psychoanalysis and accept that in a clinical setting psychoanalysis can have an effect and make a difference to patients might be sceptical about making any association between it and management owing to these therapeutic origins and the objectives of (a) bringing the "unconscious mind" into consciousness and (b) helping individuals to unravel, experience and understand deep-rooted feelings in order to resolve them (Milton, 2011). Therapeutic objectives are quite different to those of management, which some argue is more

concerned with productivity and tangible outcomes (Hollway, 2011). Considering the various roles I play at work – coupled with my experience of practising psychoanalysis in both clinical and corporate settings and my position as a doctoral researcher – I reasoned that I was in a good position to start an original enquiry into the role of psychoanalysis in explaining some of the "hidden" and unconscious motives thought to impact organisational behaviour, and that this would be a worthwhile contribution to make.

Arguably, I have also developed a greater awareness of how my personal stance, such as my cultural heritage, understanding of the historical landscape of the participants in the study, and perhaps the contextual nature of race, class and gender, can impact my positioning as a researcher. For example, I was born into a working-class family home and raised along with my three elder siblings and a younger one. My parents are of Caribbean heritage and have a strong work ethic. Being the first in my family to study at university was exciting, and it was challenging. The challenging part of this was not completely academic, although I admit that this doctoral journey has been the biggest yet; I have always enjoyed learning both knowledge and skills. The main challenge concerned having to manage my focus and sacrifice spending time with my extended family unit, as they did not truly understand the intensity of doctoral-level study. Furthermore, psychoanalysis was not novel to me – I first studied it at undergraduate level. I attribute my current research interests to this early exposure to psychoanalysis, where I was informed about the possibility that some behavioural motivators were hidden, as it were "below-the-surface", which intrigued me. My experiences gained through working as a psychoanalytically informed occupational psychologist has raised my awareness of some of the tensions between two theoretically opposed disciplines and some of the struggles I have faced trying to merge them in my practice.

1.2   Theoretical objectives for the thesis

This thesis recognises that tensions exist between the three disciplines of psychoanalysis, organisational behaviour and occupational psychology, and it discusses the challenges presented for this research.

Occupational psychology is regarded as the "application of the science of psychology to work" (British Psychological Society – BPS, 2005, p. 4). As a discipline, its primary aim is to enhance the effectiveness of organisations and to develop the performance, motivation and well-being of people in the workplace (BPS, 2015). Organisational behaviour studies the way people interact within groups in an attempt to create more efficient business organisations (Hollway, 2011). The central idea behind organisational behaviour is that a scientific approach can be applied to the management of workers (Hollway, 2011). However, in a similar way to occupational psychology, organisational behaviour theories are used to drive human resource practice. Psychoanalytic theory, though mainly used in clinical settings, is based on the assumption that human behaviour is influenced by hidden and unconscious factors that operate outside of an individual's awareness (Kets de Vries, 2009). However, whereas many would argue that occupational psychology and organisational behaviour are scientific disciplines, psychoanalysis is not viewed in this way. Rather, owing to the limited evidence available to support its theories, particularly in relation to concepts such as the "unconscious", many of its claims have been contested and rejected. Nonetheless, some adherents of the psychoanalytic approach claim that it can bring a new sense of meaning to the irrational, symbolic and emotional dimensions of organisational behaviour (Hollway, 2011). This thesis explores this idea.

Thus, the view of the organisation presented in the four studies is not at a superficial level, unlike that which dominates orthodox business and management literature (Hollway, 2011); rather, the view presented here is at a deeper level. Viewed as a constraining force, participating organisations are examined to identify their impact on those who work within their boundaries,

through the lens of psychoanalytic theory. As "below-the-surface" motivations are difficult to identify, because their effects cannot be measured physically or directly, this thesis relies on the process of "operationalising" to ensure that such motivations can be measured in a standardised way (Arnaud, 2012). After all, the purpose of each of these investigations is to test the applicability of psychoanalytic theory and assess the extent to which "below-the-surface" motivations can inform practice and develop laws to explain their impact on organisational behaviour.

Arguably, psychoanalytic and systems-psychodynamic approaches offer a "third alternative" to management theory and organisational behaviour, respectively (Arnaud, 2012). Scholarly interest in this area and contributions made to its knowledge/literature base has increased over the years (Armstrong, 2005; Carr, 2002; Hoedemaekers & Keegan, 2010). A possible reason for this could be that empirical studies in neuroscience and cognitive psychology indicate that up to 80% of our behaviour is influenced by unconscious motives (Clarke, 2008), which partially supports some of the initial claims of psychoanalysis. Furthermore, this indicates that psychoanalytic theories have something unique to offer to organisations – an insight into the role of hidden and unconscious motivators and the impact they have on conscious organisational experiences (Carr, 2002; Arnaud, 2012; McLeod, 2007; Diamond & Allcorn, 2003; Czander, 1993; Hirschhorn, 1988; Kets de Vries, 2006; Menzies, 1999; Obholzer, 1990). The objective, therefore, was to contribute research that serves to balance the dominant view in management literature that organisational behaviours are impacted by rational-technical factors alone as this creates the impression that organisational behaviour is only conscious, mechanistic, uncomplicated and easy to understand. For example, the thesis argues that, although some sources of motivation are organisationally silent (i.e. they cannot be directly observed), psychoanalytic theory can be used to highlight the potential impact of these on behaviour (Arnaud, 2012). However, the extent to which the "below-the-surface" motivation concept can be examined in terms of identifying its effect, if any, on organisational behaviour depends on the philosophy underpinning the research

approach.

1.3   Philosophy: ontology and epistemology

It is necessary to start this section with definitions of the two concepts in order to be able to clarify the philosophical position taken by this research. To substantiate the research approach of this thesis, the first step is dedicated to the discussion of the scientific positioning. This is important, as the foundations for scientist-practitioners' work are their ontological and epistemological positions (Royer, 2013). Ontology is the reality of the nature of existence (Crotty, 1998; Jennings, 2010; Lancaster, 2005). Ontology represents the conceptual approach to research that supports the paradigmatic assumptions (Lancaster, 2005). Epistemology refers to the philosophical study or theory of knowledge and the organisation of knowledge into theory (Daymon & Holloway, 2011; Lancaster, 2005). Epistemology takes into consideration from where knowledge is derived, the scope of knowledge, and general bias associated with the research (Crotty, 1998). According to Marsh and Furlong (2002), these stances "shape the approach to theory and the methods" (p. 17) utilised; a researcher's ontological and epistemological positioning is grounded deeply in their beliefs about the world (Morgan, 1983). This idea is supported by Campbell (2002), who posits that "all scientists are epistemological constructivists and relativists", in the sense that both the ontological worlds and the world of ideology, values, and researcher positioning impact the construction of scientific knowledge (p. 29). However, Marsh and Furlong (2002) argue that this view gives the impression that a researcher's choice of positioning is fixed: it makes it sound as though, once a researcher chooses a position, they cannot change it, which implies that positions are "like skin to a sweater: they cannot be put on and taken off whenever the researcher sees fit" (Marsh and Furlong, 2002, p. 17). However, this view has been challenged on various levels, which will be discussed below.

This research is influenced by what Bryman and Bell (2015) refer to as "social ontology", which is concerned with the nature of social entities. Thus, the central question asked here is

whether objective entities have a reality that is external to social actors, or whether they are socially constructed. I justified taking an objectivist approach on the premise that organisations are "real" and can therefore be discussed as a tangible object. For example, according to Morgan (1993), an organisation is "real" in the sense that it comprises rules and regulations, standardised procedures, and divisions of labour, and it has a hierarchy; arguably these features existed prior to the individuals' interaction with it. Moreover, the organisation represents a social order in that it exerts pressure on individuals to conform (Bryman & Bell, 2015). According to Argyris (1960), organisations that do not permit their employees to define their own goals and exercise control over their own work can find this leads to employee disturbance, frustration and anxiety, which might spur defensive reactions. Durkheim's (1895) notion of "social facts" expresses a similar view on how concepts within society such as "social class" can influence organisational behaviour. In fact, Durkheim goes so far as to say that social facts are to a social scientist what gravity is to a natural scientist. The epistemology associated with social ontology is therefore positivism, as it regards human behaviour as passive, controlled and determined by the external environment, including that of the organisation (Hanson, 1958; Morgan & Morrison, 2000). Nonetheless, the view that organisations are "objective" is not shared by all. Chia (2000) argues that "organisations" do not have a straightforward and unproblematic existence that is independent of the researcher, as will be discussed shortly. Westwood and Linstead (2001) support Chia's view in their claim that organisations are not "out there" in the world, which serves to challenge the ontological status of organisations. For example, Holten (2005) questions whether the world observed by a researcher actually exists independent of a subject's individual perception (ontological realism).

Although positivism has been under attack in both the natural and social sciences for most of the 20th century (Delanty, 1997), it appealed to me for various reasons. Firstly, generally speaking, although today it is less common for researchers to adopt a positivist and post-positivist approach for business and social science research, Vreede (1995) and Pfeffier (1995) observe that in both organisational science and management research, particularly after the 1970s, the positivist

tradition has taken a firm hold. However, evidence is limited to substantiate such claims. Rather, some have argued that knowledge concerned with people at work is not objective or true in any sense, because knowledge cannot be separated from its effects (Hollway, 1991). Put differently, some question whether it is possible for researchers to maintain an objective stance without influencing what is seen (Heisenberg, 1958). Morgan (1983) supports this view by questioning whether it is possible for researchers to stand outside the research process and evaluate it in an absolute way. Furthermore, Morgan (1983) is of the belief that researchers should be more concerned with exploring "research diversity" than the neutral evaluation of research. Despite my appeal to positivism and post-positivism, I envisaged that taking a moderate objective stance (Burrell & Morgan, 1979) would be justified in view of the thesis objectives. However, I expected that the "objectivity" element would be a main challenge in light of the phenomenon being studied, which is discussed below.

The issue of "objectivity" is an important issue for my research, considering that "below-the-surface" motivations cannot be measured directly, which means that I will have to play a part to decipher this information. However, as Hanson (1958) argues, there are hidden patterns underlying organisational behaviours, which have been unexplored due to positivists' reduction of phenomena to that which is observable. In view of this, I adopted the view of modern positivists such as Braithwaite (1953), who posit that what is observable also includes what is measurable or possible to register through some kind of instrument. Operationalism is one approach taken to achieve this, although many (e.g. Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009) have questioned whether it is possible to reduce facts to measurable phenomena. The "below-the-surface" motivations I was examining could therefore be operationalised and a survey could be used to assess these motivations; or the theoretical and conceptual descriptions could be used as a set of principles to identify, generalise and test theories and inferences of human behaviour that suggest this impact (Carson, 2001; Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). However, there are tensions associated with measuring this type of phenomenon in this way because they are subjective and, owing to them being "hidden", many claim that people

are unaware of them operating. Thus, many have questioned both the validity and reliability of using a survey to identify these motivations (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009).

Besides the above, I reasoned that the issue of objectivity could be assumed in terms of my role as researcher in the collaborating organisations, where I was classified as an "external" consultant/researcher; in most cases I entered the organisation without prior knowledge about the organisation or the people within it, which, according to Crotty (1998), is reasonable. Thus, as a scientist-practitioner, I would aim to capture and present a "truth" of organisational behaviours, from the perspective that the researcher is standing outside and looking into the organisation (Hammersley, 2000). Taking this approach would enable me to present insight into "theories-in-practice". However, the idea of researchers being able to conduct research in a value-free and objective manner without influencing what is observed is questionable (Heisenberg, 1958). Besides this, Bourdieu (1999) argues that science is embedded in, and conditioned by, an underlying collective unconscious, which is why Steier (1994) argues that researchers should recognise and examine how they influence that which is observed.

Although a realist approach was adopted for the empirical study presented in Chapter 3, as it attempted to identify structures that exist within society in search for a grand theory to explain society (Bryman & Bell, 2011), Chapters 2, 4 and 5 are governed by a moderate objective position (Morgan, 1983), as it is recognised that it is impossible to find "truth" about "below-the-surface" motivations owing to the imperfect sensory and intellectual capabilities of humans (Letourneau & Allen, 1993). Thus, the decision was taken to adopt a combination of positivist and post-positivist approaches. The post-positivist approach facilitates the understanding of reality as closely as possible, developing warranted assertions of reality (Letourneau & Allen, 1993). Reality is thus considered to be shaped by the values and beliefs that drive the lived experience, and reality is also regarded as complex; therefore no research can offer an absolute truth of what is "real" and how it was created (Maxwell, 2013). This can be influenced by all stakeholders involved in the research process: researcher and participants. The investigations presented in Chapters 2, 4 and 5 recognise

that the interactions the researcher has with participants determine the level of engagement and understanding the researcher is able to draw from the context. This can be seen as a strength in the research, as it enables the researcher to develop rapport with participants while endeavouring to analyse the empirical materials more objectively.

My epistemological decision to adopt positivism and post-positivism should not however be interpreted as a lack in my knowledge of and appreciation for other approaches. For example, I could have adopted interpretivism as an approach to investigate the role of "below-the-surface" motivations, considering its focus on explaining the subjective reasons and meanings that lie behind social action (Kaplan & Maxwell, 1994). Doing so would have meant that there was no strict requirement for me to ensure that any interaction between myself and participants was kept to a minimum, and data construed might be regarded as more representative of participants' perspectives. After all, the researcher–participant interaction element of some of my research (e.g. investigations presented in Chapters 2, 4 and 5) does not fit the assumptions of positivism, which assumes the independence of the researcher so that fact can be separated from the researchers' value judgements. Moreover, the notion that a researcher can be a neutral collector of data is contestable (Johnson & Cassell, 2001). I reasoned that attempting to investigate "below-the-surface" motivations without my involvement as researcher would likely be impossible. I say this because knowledge of this type of motivation is inferred as it defies sensory experience. My epistemological position of positivism was therefore adopted in Chapter 3 (empirical study) in the belief that a positivist approach would afford me the objectivity required to examine organisational behaviour from a psychoanalytic perspective in such a manner that it could be used to explain, classify and quantify resistance to change through the adoption of a systematic and rigorous method. After all, positivism is concerned with uncovering "truth" and presenting it by empirical means (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004). Nonetheless, I am now also more aware of some of the reasons most past investigations into unconscious motivations (i.e. "below-the-surface" motivations) have generally adopted constructivist, critical realist or interpretivist assumptions

(Hunt & McCollom, 1994; Jackendoff, 2012). However, recognising the lack of objectivity sometimes associated with the interpretivist approach, this thesis adopts a positivist and post-positivist approach.

My reason for collecting mainly quantitative data of a deductive nature was based on the assumption that "below-the-surface" motivations (as inferred) can be quantified, as some researchers have demonstrated (e.g. Bovey & Hede, 2001). I acknowledge that this belief was also influenced by Morgan's (1988) perspective that it is possible to manipulate concepts so that relevant data/"capita" expose these (p. 47). Furthermore, this "appeal to data", Morgan (1998) claims, is fundamentally important to organisations as data must be communicable and objective. Thus, though I accept it is unusual to adopt positivism to investigate the role of "below-the-surface" motivations, mainly because this phenomenon cannot be directly observed, I adopted Morgan's (1983) idea that component parts of a framework, such as what is known about "below-the-surface" motivations, can be treated as "real", not in the sense that these motivations can be touched and heard but in that information about the components can be obtained, relationships delineated, and predictions tested (Morgan, 1983). My reading of Braithwaite (1953) and Morgan (1993) developed my trust in their opinion that in modern positivism it is justifiable to use appropriate measures to meet this assumption, including those of qualitative form. For example, Morgan (1988) argues that "if we are to move from metaphysics to organisational behaviour … this is a matter of research objectives and strategies, not of ontology" (p. 47).

Despite its popularity in the natural and social sciences, positivism has many shortcomings. For example, positivism has been criticised for its inability to take into account the context in which management is practised, which some claim to threaten the validity of the theory (Johnson & Duberley, 2011). For example, positing a reality of an organisation that is separate from our knowledge of it ignores the inferential gap and the role played by the researcher's values, which interpretivists consider to be inherent in all phases of the research process (Angen, 2000). Nonetheless, I take Morgan's (1983) point that no single method is epistemologically superior to

any other – all are partial and fallible.

There are, however, many implications of adopting this approach in the hope that it will offer an absolute "truth" about the phenomenon under investigation. This is different to the post-positivist approach, proponents of which are also referred to as critical realists who accept that truths are fallible (Corman & Poole, 2000; Lancaster, 2005). Many argue that positivist research fails to consider the human elements in the organisation, and the propositions generated may not reflect the complex situations in which managers find themselves (Carson, 2001; Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). Others suggest that, while positivism does well to describe the problem and the likely causes, it does this without any attempt to prescribe solutions to the problems (Crotty, 1998). Nowadays, many authors call for a combination of methods to be used to improve the quality of research (Kaplan & Duchan, 1998; Morgan, 1993). Some institutions go so far as to adopt a certain "house style" method to ensure this (Galliers, 1991), although most theorists agree that management is not in any sense a unified field (Tinner & Law, 1982; Whitley, 1984) and therefore that the practice of management is eclectic and pragmatic.

Considering that positivists (both orthodox and neo approaches) assume that human actions can be explained as a result of real (observable) causes that temporarily precede one's behaviour (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988), my search to identify "below-the-surface" motivations in organisational behaviours would, as mentioned, present many challenges. However, this issue was addressed through the process of operationalisation and the use of consistent, rational and logical instruments (Carson, 2001; Hudson & Ozanne, 1988) to ensure that data were examined and interpreted in a standardised and systematic way (Arnaud, 2012). Bovey and Hede's (2001) study on resistance to change took a similar approach in their attempt to investigate the origins and impact of psychological defence mechanisms on employee behaviour. Thus, although social positivist researchers seek objectivity, they recognise the importance of making use of various methods to undertake research, such as surveys (Carson, 2001; Hudson & Ozanne, 1988), which is the approach taken by the empirical study discussed in Chapter 3. Nonetheless, although the

philosophical assumptions underlying this study come mainly from positivism, the study also has footprints of a post-positivist (a modified objectivist stance) perspective (Phillips, 1990). Nonetheless, according to Phillips (1990), although the object of our enquiry exists outside and independent of the human mind, it cannot be perceived with total accuracy by our observations; in brief, complete objectivity is nearly impossible to achieve, which represents critical realist ontology, as articulated by Cook and Campbell (1979). For example, under a post-positivist epistemology it is expected that the researcher will attempt to position oneself as an outsider (etic) to the research subject to maintain some objectivity, rather than becoming an insider (emic) to the research subject, as identified in interpretivist paradigms (Jennings, 2010; Lancaster, 2005).

While the advantages of being etic help to ensure objectivity, the disadvantages of taking this position may mean that the researcher is not able to get as close to participants and therefore not receive the detailed level of discussion that taking an emic position may provide (Lancaster, 2005). The level of rapport between researcher and participants can shape participants' willingness to share detailed perceptions of their true "below-the-surface" motivations and the influences on these perceptions. Taking a post-positivist approach to the research, as presented in Chapters 2, 4 and 5, means that I was able to utilise both etic and emic perspectives. For example, employing an emic position enables one to relate to participants and discuss key topics with them (e.g. through the coaching intervention in Chapter 4 and the interviews conducted in Chapter 5) but then it is important to adopt an etic position to explore and report the empirical materials (Jennings, 2010).

1.4   Scientist-practitioner objectives

According to the scientist-practitioner model, practitioners have an important role to play in assuring links between theory and practice (Rupp & Beal, 2007). This sentiment is illustrated in Nowak and Mashihi's (2012) article, which discusses the importance of translating scientific literature into practice. However, bridging the gap between science and practice is not easy – there remains disagreement over the nature, extent and possible causes of the gap (e.g. Anderson, 2007;

Guest, 2006). While some (e.g. Hodgkinson, 2011) have argued that further development and stricter application of the scientist-practitioner model is all that is required, others (e.g. Briner & Rousseau, 2011) suggest that a whole new approach is required to address this issue. However, both agree that one of the main problems in trying to address this issue is the absence of empirical data describing evidence utilisation by practitioners within the field (Bartlett & Francis-Smythe, 2016). With these varied perspectives in mind, the practitioner objectives I set for my research derived from my personal enquiry into the issues affecting organisations and their effective functioning, which differ from objectives that are expected of traditional research because the outcomes of scientist-practitioner research may lead to organisational transformation (Drenth, 2008). My aim was to contribute evidence-based knowledge to fill the gap in management practice about the impact of hidden psychological processes on behaviour at work. For example, Kets de Vries (2014) recognises the importance of "below-the-surface" motivations in organisational behaviour: it is "only through accepting and exploring the hidden undercurrents that affect human behaviour can we begin to understand organisational life" (p. 3). However, the task of making strong links between theory and practice is not straightforward, which can create huge tensions. Cascio and Aguinis (2008), who compared practitioners' opinions of current "human capital trends" with a list of topics that were published in work/occupational psychology journals, identified a lag between the emergence of a trend in practice and the publication of research that addresses it. Some (e.g. Briner & Rousseau, 2011) still feel that science and practice remain radically different activities. On the one hand, there is the world of science, based on explicit, systematic work concerned with the growth of theoretical knowledge; practice, on the other hand, is seen as taking place in the "real" world – a world based on a different form of knowledge, for example tacit knowledge and practical wisdom (Furlong & Oancea, 2005). In addition, some (e.g. Robinson & Ross, 2013) argue that the distance to bridge science and practice is great, as they do not have the same value amongst the occupational psychology community. Because occupational psychology is predominately perceived as a form of practice, practice is given priority over science; this,

according to Cilliers (2010), helps to explain why less than a third of findings from practice are reported in periodicals such as the *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*.

Given the scientist-practitioner aims of this research to test the theoretical assumption that organisations act as a "constraining force", to which individuals react with their psychology, a combination of positivist and post-positivist approaches is used to examine and classify "below-the-surface" motivations, which is unusual considering the nature of the phenomenon. Research into psychoanalytic concepts is usually tackled from an interpretivist, critical realist or constructivist approach owing to criticisms concerning the scientific status of the construct (Arnaud, 2012). Eysenck (1972, p. 266) concludes that "there is no evidence at all for psychoanalytic claims" and referred to it as a pseudoscience. However, Neurath (1944), among other philosophers, identified that psychoanalytic theories reveal connections between a wide range of new and surprising observable facts; hence, research into this field should not be discouraged, although it is far from being logically and semantically satisfactory (Hook, 1990). Besides, it is important to remember that the facts of human behaviour, which are treated by psychology and sociology, can hardly be described as smooth conditions if compared to the law of inertia or the law concerning the conservation of energy, which is confirmed by science owing to the nature of their frequent and smooth conditions. For example, Poincaré's doctrine states that a system of axiomatic principles, which is how some view psychoanalysis, can neither be confirmed nor refuted by actual sense observations (Hook, 1990). However, a system of axioms can be tested only if operational definitions are added, which describes the approach taken by this thesis in an attempt to understand and investigate the role of "below-the-surface" motivations in organisational behaviour (Hook, 1990). Given the perceived challenges associated with this aim, throughout the thesis I reflect on my role and the difficulties encountered in trying to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

1.5   Beneficial outcomes for the collaborating organisations

The three public-sector organisations that volunteered their participation in this research had

much in common. Essentially, they were interested in gaining a deeper understanding of conflict avoidance or resistance to organisational change, to inform management practice, which is concordant with my stance as a scientist-practitioner; as Lewin (1946) expresses: "Research that produces nothing but books will not suffice" (p. 23). Thus, the organisational benefits of this investigation include an insight into the psychodynamic approach to organisations, which in the "Exploring the thesis" section offers a perspective on how employees' emotional, hidden dynamics and unconscious experiences about organisational life can influence feelings, thoughts and actions in relation to resistance to change, conflict avoidance and employee–employer attachments.

1.6   Organisational and professional context and anticipated originality

The studies presented in this thesis stem from some of the organisational issues and problems I became aware of while working as a psychoanalytically informed occupational psychologist within public-sector organisations, including the intervention process analysis study, which concerned a multinational organisation in the Middle East. Public-sector organisations were of interest to me because little attention has been paid to the way public-sector workers experience and respond, emotionally, to change and conflict (Kickert, 2010). I envisaged that the studies in this thesis would enable practitioners to consider and explore the possibilities of working at a deeper level that goes beyond the technical-rational approach (Diamond, 1993). This thesis is sensitive to Whitehead's (1920) idea of an "unconscious ontology", whereby unconscious forces are thought to form the a priori foundation from which all modes of human experience manifest (Stolorow, 2013). Although this investigation is not the first application of psychoanalysis to organisational behaviour, the studies and the combination of variables studied are original. An outline of the four studies is presented in the section below.

1.7   Exploring the thesis

The critical literature review (Chapter 2) examines the evidence base of two

psychoanalytically informed methods (organisational role analysis (ORA) and conflict, identity, boundary, anxiety, role and task (CIBART)), which are claimed to be useful for helping individuals to become aware of the hidden and unconscious factors.

The empirical study (Chapter 3) investigates the relationship between psychological defence mechanisms (immature ones) and resistance to change in response to Bovey and Hede's (2001) study that found evidence for this; however, it extends their idea of there being a relationship between immature defence mechanisms to suggest that this relationship is mediated by core self-evaluations, which comprise core beliefs that people hold about their ability to cope and control situations such as change (Judge & Bono, 2001).

The intervention process analysis study (Chapter 4) investigates the usefulness of systems-psychodynamic coaching intervention to assist a group of multinational leaders from the Middle East to become aware of and better manage their conflict-avoidant behavioural styles. Because this type of coaching approach is mainly used in the West, cultural issues are discussed.

The case study (Chapter 5) investigates whether orthodox psychoanalyst Donald Winnicott's notion of "good-enough" care (GEC) can be used to explain the relationship between employees' perception of care from the organisation and affective commitment, as some state (Hunter, 2013). The case investigated concerns the mismanagement of an organisational change within a London-based business school. Pre and post hoc methods were used to measure the impact of change on employee behaviour before and after the intervention.

1.8   Reflexivity

Having reflected on the reasons I became interested in undertaking research into the impact of "below-the-surface" phenomena on organisational behaviours, I can see how my positioning and world view have influenced my choice and the research process (Foote and Bartell, 2011; Savin-Baden and Howell, 2013). According to Sikes (2004), a researcher's world view comprises their philosophical assumptions concerning ontology and epistemology. Despite the requirements of

some methodological approaches for researchers to maintain objectivity, one's positioning cannot be claimed to be pure – it is "coloured" by one's values and beliefs as well as gender, sexuality, race, social class, political allegiance, religiosity and geography (Wellington & Bathmaker, 2005).

Having spent the past five years working as a scientist-practitioner/researcher and sharing knowledge about the contribution that psychoanalysis can make to people at work and to organisations, I recognise how engrossed and "attached" I may have become to my topic of research. For example, although I was able to clearly articulate my investment in the topic and theory base, I struggled to show critical awareness of my own faculties and to attend to the limitations and flaws in the evidence and theory base. Rather, I positioned myself in such a way that resulted in me simply justifying and defending the theory, without showing full awareness of the difficulties that practitioners might experience in their attempt to bridge the gap between theory and practice. For example, while many psychoanalytic concepts and theories might enhance one's ability to explain organisational behaviours, they are difficult to test in practice (Crews, 1989). This is mainly due to difficulties associated with measuring them directly. Thus, despite this awareness, I found it a great challenge to step back from "blanket" defending of my position for fear that the theory (and my years of research) might be rejected in light of the existing criticism surrounding psychoanalysis (Crews, 1989). This represents a tension between my role as a scientist-practitioner and the mere fact that I am human. According to Ely (1997), humans are emotional beings and so researchers, irrespective of their efforts to meet the criteria of science and remain objective during the research process, may still struggle to detach themselves from their research topic owing to their emotional investment in it.

Given the above reflection, I have learned that my own experiences and suggestions are therefore arguable. For example, based on the feedback I received at my viva, I discovered that my positioning came across too strongly and that I had placed too much value on what is referred to as "best practice". Furthermore, while I recognise that adopting a ready-made/one-size-fits-all approach might be used on the premise of it being tried and tested, I am aware that such generic

models and consulting cycles (e.g. British Psychological Society, 2012) have been criticised on the grounds that they neglect important aspects of culture and context (Bartlett & Francis-Smythe, 2015). I attribute my interest in "best practice" to some of the roles I have played, such as a verified assessor, examiner and BPS test user, which involved me having to assess candidates' performance against strict criteria. Working as an academic link tutor for two academic programmes that are taught and delivered internationally, I am required to conduct quality assurance and verify the standards of delivery and course management against best practice guidelines. Together, these activities resemble that of an objectivist ontology and positivist epistemology because it is assumed that as an assessor I am using objective criteria to assess performance, which should mean that my subjectivity does not interfere with this. However, I have learned that, although in theory this objective positioning is ideal, in the practice of research and actual consulting it is a challenge to achieve it.

As mentioned previously, my experience of working in a psychoanalytic way with organisations has had a huge impact on my choice of research, and my ontological and epistemological positioning. I have been intrigued by the assumption that an individual's behaviour can be influenced by factors outside of their awareness, although this is subjectively experienced. In addition to this, my sociology lectures informed my understanding of how social structures, such as organisations, could be experienced as a force, with the potential to restrict an individual's functioning within it. This was reinforced by my reading of Emile Durkheim's remarkable publication entitled *The Rules of the Sociological Method*, in which he spoke of the impact of organisations on individuals, which he referred to as a "social fact". Together, this exposure shaped my world view that hidden motivators "exist" and can influence behaviours, although their effects can be difficult to measure directly. Besides this, I was inclined to believe that most of what individuals experience, through their engagement with the social world, is influenced by factors outside of their control, irrespective of whether these factors are internal or external. Past experiences can influence the judgements we make about current and future encounters, such as the

reason I chose to base my research on psychoanalytic perspectives of organisational behaviour. My belief was that psychoanalytic thinking could help to explain the reasons individuals struggle to manage the tensions between their own psychology (thoughts, feelings and behaviours) and the requirements posed upon them by the organisation through their roles and responsibilities.

Thus, when I embarked on this research process, my assumption was that the organisation is a constraining force. Owing to the structure and functioning of the organisation, individuals might become anxious within it, and to protect themselves and ward off this anxiety they may unconsciously employ a range of defence mechanisms. From this positioning, knowledge of the relationship between the organisation and the individual is out there to be found. This assumption, I believe, has influenced the methodological approach I took with this research: positivism. Positioning myself as a positivist/post-positivist researcher influenced my decision to use mainly quantitative methods in my research. Because positivists assume that the world works according to fixed laws of cause and effect, I decided to employ methods that would enable me to test theories about these laws to the point where I am able to reject or accept them. However, unlike other approaches such as behaviourism and cognitivism, psychoanalysis makes the assumption that factors outside of the individual's control can influence behaviour. While the concept of "determinism" (behaviour is caused by preceding factors and is thus predictable) is aligned with objectivism, the fact that "below-the-surface" motivations cannot be measured directly makes it difficult to identify and measure their effects. This is the reason I decided to operationalise the phenomena, with the view to establish criteria for measuring the effects of "below-the-surface" motivations.

My positioning in this research stems also from the experiences I gained working in public-sector organisations, which some argue are more structured than any other type of organisation (Wanna, O'Faircheallaigh & Wella, 1992). Some of these experiences include employees having to adjust quickly to changes that are introduced suddenly, the expectation that employees would accept change without being given any opportunity to discuss their concerns, and employees

receiving a minimal amount of assistance from management to help them deal with their thoughts and feelings about the proposed change. Change initiatives employed were not always sensitive to individual differences; for example, while I would describe myself as more of a resilient type, many of my colleagues were not, and changes in the organisation seemed to impact them more. Some of my close colleagues became stressed by these forceful changes to the extent that they were signed off on long-term absence. Others left the organisation altogether and the behaviours of those who stayed showed evidence of absenteeism and presenteeism. Coupled with this, as an occupational psychologist I have coached many individuals to develop their understanding of and approach to change. On most occasions, I discovered that one factor that seemed to be holding back most coachees was their lack of awareness of emotions and past experiences, and how these were influencing their behavioural responses. Nonetheless, I am aware that my perspective of the problems that coachees faced might be influenced by my positioning as a psychodynamically informed occupational psychologist, who acknowledges that organisational behaviours can be attributed to "below-the-surface" motivations. Equally, I recognise and accept that alternative psychological perspectives can inform understanding of organisational behaviours.

It is on the basis of the reflections above that I am more inclined than ever before to accept the view that we cannot understand the world and ourselves separately from it because it is difficult to take an objective perspective of something we are intrinsically a part of (such as my interests, involvement and investment in the topic; see Beinhocker, 2013). Each chapter hereafter will provide a reflexive statement to give the reader an insight into the personal reasons that may have influenced my choice of topic and relationship with participants/data, including my prior assumptions from conceptual and methodological perspectives.

CHAPTER TWO (2)

A Critical Review of Psychoanalytic Methods for Consulting "Beneath the Surface" in Organisations: Organisational Role Analysis (ORA) and CIBART

2.0   Chapter introduction

This chapter critically reviews literature that reports on the usefulness of two systems-psychodynamic coaching methods for raising awareness of "below-the-surface" motivations (hidden and unconscious psychological processes) thought to influence behaviours at work: organisational role analysis (ORA) and CIBART (Huffington, 2004). The main question this review seeks to answer is whether ORA and CIBART methods can be used by practitioners to raise awareness of hidden and unconscious processes. The extent of this is examined at conceptual, methodological and theoretical levels. Essentially, the review argues that ORA and CIBART coaching approaches are indeed useful for developing an awareness of these influences, which might be important for management and practitioners as they have been found to improve employees' understanding and taking up of their work role, which is claimed to influence employee engagement, response to change, and conflict management. Following a description of the two methods, findings from empirical studies and practice reports are discussed. This literature review involved the examination of peer-reviewed journal articles, working papers, textbooks, practice reports and other published resources relevant to ORA and CIBART methods. Finally, recommendations are made for future research and practice opportunities; a reflexive statement follows these.

2.1   What are "below-the-surface" motivations?

It is no surprise that organisational researchers are becoming particularly interested in psychoanalytic theories that proclaim hidden and unconscious processes can influence employee behaviour and performance at work (Eagle, 1999; Prins, 2006; Cilliers & Harry, 2012). Not only are such processes claimed to be a main driver of behaviour and performance at work; they have also been found to influence our competencies as well as our emotions (Roediger, 1990; Wilson, 1996), attitudes, prejudices (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995), affective traits (Broadbent, 1977; Bargh, 1997), self-image, passion and values, which are key elements of performance. In this review, unconscious factors such as those mentioned above are referred to as "below-the-surface" motivators. "Below-the-surface" motivation, however, is no easy concept to decipher, particularly when applied to the context of management. While many are aware of the methodological constraints associated with measuring the concept in a reliable and valid way, there still is much controversy around its existence (Crews, 1995). This review examines the evidence base regarding the effectiveness of two specific systems-psychodynamic methods (ORA and CIBART) used by practitioners, who deem them suitable for raising awareness of these motivators.

Traditionally, the main method used for assessing "below-the-surface" motivations has been through the use of projective tests, such as the thematic apperception test (TAT) (Murray & Morgan, 1930). A projective test is a type of personality test in which an individual offers responses to ambiguous scenes, words or images (Murray & Morgan, 1930). The objective of such tests is to uncover the hidden conflicts or emotions that the individual projects onto the test in the hope that these issues can be brought to awareness and addressed appropriately (Fonagy & Morgan, 1990). However, there is much controversy regarding the use of such tests, particularly in that they emerged from the psychoanalytic school of thought and claim to be able to identify hidden and unconscious processes. Adherents of this school assert that the TAT can access an individual's unconscious to reveal the aspects that motivate personality. The TAT prescribes that "below-the-surface" motivators drive all individual behaviour, although the type of motivators differs from

person to person (Morgan, 2003). Participants' responses are presented in the narratives they make up about an ambiguous set of images to reveal their underlying motives and concerns, and the way they see the social world (Schacter, Gilbert & Wegner, 2009). Although each narrative is recorded, interpreted and analysed to uncover underlying needs, attitudes and behavioural patterns, this is driven by the practitioner's interpretation of events. While most practitioners do not use formal scoring systems, several systems have been developed for analysing TAT stories systematically and consistently (Kreuzpointner, 2013). While support for the TAT and self-reports has been related (e.g. Atkinson & McClelland, 1948; McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953), the evidence is dated, and it is acknowledged that a variety of critical views exist on this issue (Moodian, 2008). Moreover, the correlations between these two types of measure tend to show no relationship to each other (McClelland, Koestner & Weinberger, 1989), which suggests they might be measuring different things. Nonetheless, McClelland et al. (1989) found that TAT stories are more predictive of managerial success than self-report measures of need for achievement and power, which might change if participants are informed about the test in advance. For example, self-reports of achievement motivation were found to be a better predictor of motives assessed from TAT responses (McClelland et al., 1989). However, as mentioned previously, data construed from both TAT and self-report measures are questioned in terms of their reliability and validity as practitioners guide the interpretation, which introduces subjectivity (Tuerlincky, Francis, Paul de Boeck & Lens, 2002).

The issue of "subjectivity" is concerning for several reasons. Firstly, the TAT cards are considered dated, "old-fashioned", which has been found to create a cultural/social distance between clients and the stimuli as it makes identifying with them less likely (Western, 1991). Apart from data being interpreted by practitioners, the TAT equally relies on the subjective self-reports of participants, which threatens the reliability of findings. Although the TAT test has been used in the context of management and leadership, the pictures depicted on the 31 cards do not reflect this (Cramer, 2004; Parikh, 2005). In attempts to address these issues, alternative approaches to

measure "below-the-surface" motivations have been offered by systems-psychodynamic practitioners (Western, 1991). Organisational role analysis (ORA) and CIBART, for example, are used to develop leadership awareness of these "hidden" motivators. However, there remains a paucity of critical academic literature on such methods. Despite growing interest amongst practitioners about implicit and hidden motivators of behaviour, there is also a great deal of confusion about how such methods can be used for working at a "below-the-surface" level (Kets de Vries, 2009). For example, many still challenge psychoanalytic claims that unconscious motivations can be revealed, irrespective of the method used in the coaching situation (Crews, 1995).

2.2 "Systems-psychodynamic" coaching methods contrasted with alternative approaches

Adherents of systems-psychodynamic coaching (SPC) claim its usefulness for raising self-awareness and unlocking a person's potential, which is no different to alternative behavioural approaches such as GROW (Passmore, 2016); after all, this is a general assumption held about coaching methods (Passmore, 2016). However, according to Whitmore (2003), unlike systems-psychodynamic approaches, behavioural approaches are quite popular owing to their ability to produce tangible outcomes, which serves management well. Although systems-psychodynamic coaching falls short on this feature, some argue that it makes up for this in its depth of analysis, which is said to capture and analyse the undercurrents of behaviour that operate at a "below-the-surface" level (Kets de Vries, 2009). The depth that SPC coaching claims to reach is facilitated by its foundations, which derive from the integration of three overlapping frameworks: unconscious motivation (Freud, 1909), the psychoanalysis of groups (Bion, 1940) and systems thinking (Rice, 1960; Tavistock, 2017). However, despite the depth offered by this approach, the outcomes of the analysis that supposedly leads to behavioural change cannot be measured directly, unlike the "here-and-now" perspective offered by behaviourist approaches (Passmore, Peterson & Freire, 2013). Thus, although numerous coachees report changes to their awareness and behaviours,

knowledge/evidence of this stems from self-reports and coachees' interpretation of their experiences, which, as mentioned, introduces a large amount of subjectivity into the process.

Perhaps the shortcomings discussed above are the reason why SPC approaches are a less popular choice for management (Passmore, 2006). Arguably, management is mainly concerned with measuring return on investment, which derives from their use of interventions that generate tangible results, and gaining access to "below-the-surface" motivations and measuring the potential impact of this is contestable on various levels (Kilberg, 2000). For example, many still debate whether such phenomena actually exist (Crews, 1995). Moreover, owing to the heavy reliance on the coach as a knowledge "expert", some argue that it is not possible for humans to examine humans and remain objective (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). On a more practical level, because the term "systems-psychodynamic consultant" is not a protected title, there is nothing to stop untrained, inexperienced practitioners from entering this practice domain.

Thus, some caution is required when choosing systems-psychodynamic coaching methods such as organisational role analysis (ORA) and CIBART. Both methods were designed by scholars who had a strong allegiance to the systems-psychodynamic perspective: ORA was developed by the Grubb Institute in 1972, and CIBART (an acronym for conflict, identity, boundary, authority, roles and task) was introduced by Cilliers and Koortzen in 2005. Together these methods form the basis of the consultancy and education approach taken at the Tavistock Institute (Mersky, 2012; Bazalgette, 2006). However, while it might be justified to recognise systems-psychodynamics as unique in facilitating a "deeper" understanding of unconscious processes at work in organisations (Townley, 2008), it is also arguable that, for this same reason, it may miss the tangible factors that influence behaviour (Arnaud, 2012).

Nonetheless, the systems-psychodynamics view of individuals is not one that is concerned with measuring tangible behavioural influences. Rather, individuals are viewed as object-seeking, in the sense that they use one another to stabilise their inner lives (Obholzer, 1999). A further assumption of the systems-psychodynamic approach, which somewhat conflicts with the traditional

view of the organisation, is that the organisation is not as cooperative and rational as the picture that orthodox management theory portrays; in fact, this approach rejects the idea that organisations can function in harmony. Organisations are "filled with intangibles that are a complex set of social relations" (Czander, 1993, p. 4). Thus, those from this school of thought reject the economic view of the workplace, which arguably uses logic alone to understand the nature, design and performance of people within them (Kets de Vries, 1991; Kootzen & Cilliers, 2002). Furthermore, they argue that anxiety amongst organisational members within what is referred to as a "rigid" structure is rife; to protect themselves from these anxieties, individuals are thought to employ various psychological defence mechanisms (Czander, 1993; Hirschhorn, 1993; Obholzer, 1994). In the belief that organisations have an emotional life (Fineman, 2003; Huffington, Armstrong, Halton, Hoyle & Pooley, 2004; Albrow, 1997), orthodox and scientific methods, such as observation, are rarely used, on the premise that they are incapable of reaching the level of depth required to detect unconscious processes.

Although a fundamental aim of most coaching processes is to develop coachees in a way that will improve their self-awareness in relation to their work role (Obholzer, 1994), it is widely accepted that "self-awareness" is a difficult concept to measure. For example, Passmore (2016) contends that it is a challenge to evaluate the extent to which such coaching methods bring about change within individuals (Passmore, 2016). For instance, the data-gathering process relies heavily on the individuals' self-reported changes, as opposed to "actual" change. In view of this, some argue that data construed in this way are again subject to many biases because, from a reflexive standpoint, the scientist-practitioner's positioning is likely to influence both their analysis and interpretation of data (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2010). When such biases enter the research process, it presents problems in trying to explicitly answer questions about the "true" nature of the phenomena in question. For example, practitioners who use ORA and CIBART methods could regard their findings as indicative of a reliable truth about its effectiveness; this represents a tension between theory and practice. Thus, prior to any claims being made about the usefulness of these

methods, it is advisable that tensions concerning the ontological and epistemological status of ORA and CIBART are addressed. For example, there appears to be a consensus amongst system-psychodynamic theorists that "hidden" and/or "unconscious" processes exist, suggesting that a single truth is "out there" to be found (Crotty, 1998). Looked at from this perspective, the social world, namely the organisation, is closely linked to objectivism, which in positivist terms argues that a reality exists external to the researcher (Bunge, 1993). However, some question whether a phenomenon that is "hidden" and/or "unconscious", all knowledge of which is inferred from practitioners' interpretations, could ever fulfil the criteria of positivism (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2010). In some way this can help to explain why questioning the validity and reliability of the CIBART method's claims about its impact on behaviour is warranted.

2.3   What is the ORA method and how does it work?

Adherents of the ORA method regard it as a form of in-depth coaching that works to address a pressing issue or problem that is a product of an employee's role (Mersky, 2012); it is predominately used by systems-psychodynamic institutes such as the Tavistock and Grubb. Both institutes proclaim its usefulness for helping clients to understand and develop an awareness of the way they take up their role, status, responsibilities, accountabilities and relationships within the organisation (Newton, Long & Sievers, 2006). This idea is supported by Mersky (2012), who contends that ORA is thorough enough to offer a unique approach to understanding employees, which emphasises and examines relationships between the individual, "role" and organisation; however, it does not account for individual differences such as personality (see Figure 1). Thus, the interconnectedness between the individual and the organisation, both in terms of their influence on behaviour are placed on equal footing. "Role", however, is considered superior in this relationship, as it is located at the intersection of the "individual" and the "organisation" (Lawrence, 2013; Auer-Hunzinger & Sievers, 1991; Diamond & Allcorn, 2009; Borwick, 2006; Cilliers, 2012; Harding, 2006; Reed, 1976; Newton, Long & Sievers, 2006; Sievers & Beumer, 2006; Harding, 2013).
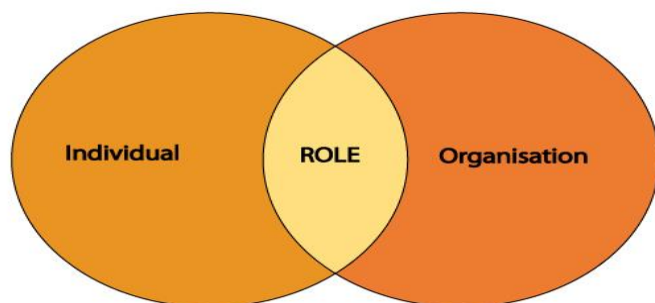
Figure 1. Organisational role analysis (ORA) outline

According to Long, Newton and Chapman (2006), ORA is based on the premise that "role" is influenced by both conscious and unconscious factors about the person and the organisation. However, the limitation of this is that only the coach can interpret unconscious phenomena, making it difficult to compare cases in a normative way. Traditionally, organisations have always been keen on being able to make a clear distinction between two types of influence: individual and behavioural. When leaders perform poorly this is often attributed to dispositional factors, with a disregard for the systemic factors that may have influenced such outcomes (Harding, 2013); ORA can therefore add value to performance measurement and management. According to Bion (1970, cited in Cooper, 2008), ORA acknowledges that behaviours can be influenced by a collaboration of factors, which offers consultants/coaches a "binocular" view/lens to examine this dynamic interaction. However, Bion's claim of there being a "binocular" view is subject to interpretation, as little explanation is offered on how it comes about, which in hindsight does not serve to credit the trustworthiness of the method and its aims.

Logistically, ORA can be used to facilitate a "one-off" or stand-alone coaching session, or it can be embedded into a series of coaching sessions (Brunning, 2006). Typically, a single ORA session lasts approximately two hours; usually eight sessions are spread over a period of three to four months. Although this is thought to be sufficient time for clients to learn about hidden behavioural motives, it might be too much of a commitment to some, which could lead to a

premature end to the coaching relationship (Harding, 2013). This suggests that the extent to which an ORA intervention results in "success" depends on the experience of the coach, their handling and management of the process, and the chemistry that develops between coach and coachee (Brunning, 2006). This poses a challenge to the consistency of delivering ORA processes and outcomes, and it emphasises the fundamental role that different researchers might play through their interpretation of the analysis.

Nonetheless, there are several benefits associated with using ORA as a method. First, role holders are afforded the opportunity to explore their role in the context of their perspective of the organisation, or what Armstrong describes as the "institution-in-the-mind" (1991, p. 58). Second, leaders are said to feel empowered to take up their roles effectively (Brunning, 2006) and address change. Third, findings suggest that the ORA process brings about improvement in the performance of a whole team, which helps managers to address their dilemmas and exercise their authority and leadership (Mersky, 2006; Wright, Moynihan & Pandey, 2012). Fourth, it has been used to inform understanding of the part each person plays in group interactions (Newton, Long & Sievers, 2007). Lastly, according to Harding (2013), ORA can facilitate systems thinking, which is a considered a valuable skill to be developed. However, the extent to which these factors benefit consultants and organisations alike depends on the value attached to the knowledge obtained, as this is influenced by the approach taken to measure it, operationally, scientifically and reflexively.

Unlike most consulting approaches, ORA practitioners are expected to have received reputable training in the ORA method, which includes undergoing a role analysis of oneself, and access to supervised practice (Newton, Long & Sievers, 2006). Arguably, this knowledge requirement is an effort made to standardise the process and prepare practitioners/coaches to ask coachees the following questions: "What is it that I bring to this role?"; "What is the expectation of this role from my organisation?"; and "Bearing these factors in mind, how I can I take up my role most congruently?" Coachees are expected to respond to such questions verbally or through role-drawing exercises ("roleogrammes"). While this approach is likely to empower role holders to

examine how their personal experiences and the organisation have influenced their role (Newton, Long & Sievers, 2006), the perspective obtained from this questioning is likely to be solely based on the role holder's version of reality, which is then interpreted and made sense of by the coach. While at first glance this might appear to be a purely subjective approach, objectivity is still ensured, as the classification system used by the coach to analyse behaviour is based on the systems-psychodynamic criteria, which can easily be measured (Johnson & Duberley, 2011).

Unlike orthodox coaching methods, ORA is not as focussed on solving problems as it is on the iterative processes of hypothesising and testing hypotheses in the work environment (Newton et al., 2006). For example, according to Newton et al. (2006), as stakeholders explore work roles, working hypotheses about the system emerge, which seems to coincide with the view held by the Grubb Institute – that the process of taking up "role" is always dynamic; it is never a fixed approach. However, these hypotheses are largely implicit, deeply hidden or unconsciously present, making it difficult to ascertain their existence to the point of them being made measurable. Besides the claim that these testable statements lie within the individual, only a skilful coach can make explicit these hidden hypotheses by bringing forward the assumptions made by role holders about their systems (Johnson & Duberley, 2011).

2.4   What is the CIBART method and how does it work?

CIBART works on the premise that conflict manifests in all organisations, and that most of it is due to uncertainty and anxiety around change (Cilliers & Koortzen, 2005; Campbell & Huffington, 2008). Thus, ontologically speaking, the method assumes that underlying motivators of conflict are "real", suggesting that knowledge of them is "out there" to be found (Johnson & Duberley, 2011). While the CIBART method is considered suitable for identifying sources of conflict and for helping leaders to become aware of their own conflict dynamics and how to address these (Long, Newton & Chapman, 2006), it gives the impression that this method will work in all situations, even though cultural and contextual factors have been unexplored. Interestingly, the

CIBART method attracts much interest from practitioners and scholars from South Africa (Cilliers, 2005), particularly in that it offers a generic managerial framework for understanding and qualitatively assessing the psychological make-up of the causes of conflict. While this framework might help to systematise the process (Vansina & Vansina-Cobbaert, 2008), it seems to undermine the role that researchers/consultants play in the analysis and interpretation of data, which could be to the detriment to the study findings and outcome.

According to Cilliers (2006), CIBART and ORA have similar purposes. He, alongside several others, posits that both methods offer a systematic and diagnostic way to help practitioners work through the system's (individual, leadership or team) dynamic behaviour (Cilliers, 2006; Vansina & Vansina-Cobbaert, 2008). However, other than its theoretical underpinning for classifying data, little information is provided about how the process actually works in practice. Again, the success of the method is dependent on the knowledge and experience held by the practitioners who work through the six constructs, one by one, in an explorative manner (Vansina & Vansina-Cobbaert, 2008). In light of this, practitioners are expected to offer sufficient emotional containment to facilitate leaders' exploration of the roots behind their behaviours (Huffington, 2008). However, the word "sufficient" has not been fully explained, therefore it is difficult to work out exactly how much emotional containment is required. Again, the process of "emotional containing" has not been explained, so it is unclear how practitioners can achieve this in practice and how this effect can be measured methodologically. However, some claim that those who have been trained to use this method share knowledge and skill set, which serves to standardise the process (Armstrong, 1995; Quine & Hutton, 1992; Reed, 1976; Newton et al., 2006).

Nonetheless, the process is still fuelled by the coach and, despite the coach's training in systems-psychodynamic coaching to ask specific questions about how the six constructs manifest in behavioural terms – where they stem from, what the purpose is, what the behaviour represents and what approach should be taken to intervene and bring about change – claims that this guided questioning alone enhances clients' "psychological awareness" is questionable and has only been

partially explained (Beitel, Ferrer & Cecero, 2005). Operationally, however, the method has good face validity as the CIBART constructs are easily understood (Cilliers & Koortzen, 2005), despite the fact that data interpretation rests on the competence of experienced practitioners, which poses threats to both the validity and reliability of the method.

The issues raised above about ORA and CIBART methods make it difficult to predict what the benefits, implications and overall outcome might be. This is not helped by the paucity of literature in this area, making evaluation somewhat difficult to accomplish. What ORA and CIBART share is the fact that both can take time to "work", and some recommend against laymans' use of them (Long, Newton & Chapman, 2006). Thus, while these methods might appeal to practitioners who are familiar with the psychodynamic approach, for others the idea of having to undergo additional training or supervision might be perceived as onerous (Cilliers & Koortzen, 2005). Nonetheless, as scholarly and practitioner interest in implicit motivation and biases grows, there becomes a greater need to improve awareness of the methods used to consult in this area, hence why the focus of this review is on ORA and CIBART. The next section outlines the search strategy used to review the evidence base.

2.5   What knowledge can be obtained about these methods from the literature?

Search parameters

A search of the literature was completed using PsycINFO, APA PsychNET, PsychArticles, Psychology and Behavioural Sciences Collection, and JSTOR; these databases allowed access to most full-text articles relating to systems-psychodynamic coaching, ORA and/or CIBART. In order to locate other relevant articles, a search of the reference lists of those articles already selected was carried out. Articles that were identified as suitable for the literature review but were unavailable via electronic resources were hand-searched.

Exclusion criteria

The search for articles to review began with the use of the key term "systems-psychodynamics", which yielded a total of 1,450 articles. Considering the high volume of results, some irrelevant, a new search was conducted to search for articles that contained the specific words "organisational role analysis"/"ORA" and "CIBART"; this produced a total of only eight hits for articles dated 2006–2012. Through inspection of the literature, I discovered that most of the articles on ORA had been written between the 1970s and the 1990s; because of this limitation, I widened my search. Only a few were written from 2000 and beyond. From this search, 20 qualitative studies were identified. All these articles identified were listed; others were identified but did not conform to the inclusion criteria and were therefore excluded. A total of 15 eligible articles were sourced and reviewed on the basis of the articles' coverage and discussion of ORA, CIBART and systemic thinking. The common themes were:

1) ORA and CIBART methods are useful for raising individuals' awareness of unconscious and hidden motives associated with their work roles;

2) Individuals form mental representations of the organisation-in-the-mind;

3) Systemic thinking facilitates the connection between role and organisation, enabling leaders to be aware of the myriad of influences on their behaviour.

Only four eligible papers were deemed relevant to CIBART, which is limited. Thus, of the three themes identified, only the first and third were applicable in the case of CIBART. Moreover, all sources were based on findings from qualitative research; therefore, the knowledge gained of the phenomena was from the subjective perspective of the participants, and the researchers' interpretations. Nonetheless, considering the aim of the review, the evidence was considered useful for ascertaining whether the themes identified by systems-psychodynamic theory about ORA and CIBART would match (or refute) empirical findings; this is discussed in the next section.

2.6 Proposition 1 – ORA and CIBART help to raise awareness of the hidden and unconscious factors that interact with the executive's "role"

Despite claims that ORA and CIBART methods are useful for raising awareness of hidden and unconscious processes, much of the evidence available rests on qualitative findings of impact studies (Hirschhorn, 1988). Since ORA and CIBART methods are informed by systems-psychodynamics, they are employed to facilitate coaching on the premise that unconscious forces influence human behaviour often outside of individuals' awareness (Menzies, 1988; Obholzer, 1999). Ontologically speaking, this is suggestive of the possibility that "below-the-surface" motivations exist, relatively. Despite the relentless attempts made by scholars to identify and measure such behaviours, what is known and generally agreed upon by scholars within this niche field is that conscious factors cannot be the sole influencers of human behaviour and action. However, most of the research around this has been construed from self-reported accounts from public-sector leaders, suggesting that there are different versions of truth (Morgan, 1998).

Cilliers's (2010) coaching study of nursing managers found evidence to suggest that a CIBART-based intervention provided a "reflective space", enabling managers to become aware of the hidden and unconscious factors that contribute towards their behaviour. Specifically, he claims that managers developed a capacity to create new thoughts, process feelings and take responsible actions. While there is no doubt that reflection is a powerful process for raising awareness, there are a number of inherent methodological issues associated with the research design, which makes it difficult to accept Cilliers's claim in full. For example, the data collection method used was the coach's field notes and the coachees' essays, which they wrote at the end of the process. Some of the statements taken from the field notes, such as "participants engaged in the process were able to give up their ignorance in favour of heightened awareness", are difficult to decipher. For example, Cilliers does not define or explain "ignorance" or what constitutes "heightened awareness", which suggests that they could be subject to different interpretations. However, Bain's (1998) earlier findings support Cilliers's claim as to the impact of this type of awareness-raising change, and

refers to the experience as a "mini-death" of a known way of being (1998, p. 411) through learning how to self-regulate (Campbell, 2007). More value would have been added to the credibility of the study had exact details been offered to show how the findings from Cilliers's (2010) study demonstrate the benefits of reflective opportunities to raise awareness of hidden and unconscious behavioural influences. Besides this, considering the small sample size, it is difficult to say whether other participants would gain from the process in the same way if the study were repeated.

Despite the interesting discoveries that stemmed from Cilliers's (2010) study, the small sample size makes generalisations of this effect to other situations difficult. Although effort was made to ensure the sample was racially mixed, comprising both black and white nursing managers, the sample comprised females only; the author does not justify the exclusion of males from the study, although this might be explained by the underrepresentation of males within this profession. Either way, this represents a gender bias and prevents comparisons between genders being made. Consequently, a major variable was not controlled for or quantified. Although some attempt was made to minimise subjectivity, arguably those who play a dual role of researcher and coach are likely to influence the research at different stages, e.g. coaching, data collection and interpretation. For example, the researcher reports that there were times when coaching-practitioners who had identified with the hospital environment expressed sympathy for the nursing team to the point where they may have been unconsciously defending them. This suggests that the inferential gap between researchers and participants was closer than expected, and no explanation is given as to how issues such as these were addressed to reduce their impact on the research process.

In a similar study, Motsoaledi and Cilliers (2012) report the use of ORA to improve public-sector executives' awareness of unconscious dynamics around diversity. They found that leaders were more able to differentiate between their rational and irrational leadership behaviours after the coaching intervention, which supports the findings of Cilliers's (2010) earlier study. For example, the executives reported gaining a deeper insight into "below-the-surface" dynamics concerning their approach to diversity, which executives felt enabled them to take up their work roles more

effectively. However, this assumed pre- and post-change awareness is not fully explained, including the approach taken by the coach to arrive at this conclusion. Evidence from an earlier study recognises the instrumental role played by the researcher in the interpretation and analysis of data. Even though this is bound to have introduced an element of subjectivity to the findings, no reflection on this is offered. Although some argue that being aware of, and being able to articulate, the impact and role of irrational behaviour is the manifest content of hidden and unconscious motivators, articulation is a skill that varies from one individual to the next (Newton, Long & Sievers, 2006).

Although it is generally accepted that taking a systems-psychodynamic coaching approach to develop awareness of diversity issues is deemed trustworthy, the evidence base for this claim, particularly in the case of Motsoaledi & Cilliers's (2012) study, is questionable as the outcome measures were based on the quality of description that participants gave in their reflective essays on the effectiveness of CIBART for making them aware of hidden/unconscious motives. Besides this, considering that the outcome of this study was measured in terms of coachees' ability to articulate the effect of coaching on their behaviour, and that no other coders were in place, it is necessary to question the validity of the approach taken to evaluate the intervention. For example, some coachees might be better at explaining their experiences compared to others, who may have attempted this task with great difficulty. Those from the latter group may have been disadvantaged, which would impact the presented version of "truth" about the intervention.

Furthermore, as purposive sampling was used, the researcher relied on their own judgement to choose participants, which might have introduced further biases into the research process (Newton et al., 2006). Nonetheless, use of this type of sampling of participants would contribute best towards an in-depth and rich understanding of their coaching experiences (Klenke, 2008). Unfortunately, however, although the coaching process lasted a period of 10 months and the researcher recommended a follow-up study, the results of this are unknown; therefore, one cannot estimate how long-lasting the effects were on participants.

Although most of the studies conducted using ORA and CIBART have been based in public-sector organisations, this does not mean these methods are necessarily more suitable for these contexts. For example, in another study, Cilliers (2014) used ORA as a means to carry out in-depth interviews with psychologists in the role of assessment centre observers to assess the role and effect of unconscious defensive structures on assessment centre outcomes. The results suggest that all eight participants' perspectives of candidates were influenced by unconscious defensive mechanisms, such as "splitting", "projection" and "projective identification", which fall into the category of "immature" defence mechanisms (Vaillant, 2011). However, because these defences are psychological and therefore cannot be observed directly, interpretation and analysis of them rest upon the researcher's ability to detect them (Bovey and Hede, 2001). Nonetheless, the findings suggest that the objectivity of assessment centre observation is affected by unconscious factors in the form of individual and intergroup defensive structures, which is an important discovery and supports literature around "implicit/unconscious" biases. Both Obholzer (1994) and Gutman (1987) recognise how ORA could be used by organisations to manage anxiety within them.

The findings of the studies presented above were construed using discourse analysis – a qualitative methodology that was developed in the 1970s (Sievers, 2006). While discourse analysis does not necessarily provide absolute answers to specific problems, and states that meaning is never fixed, it is deemed useful for revealing the hidden motivations behind text to gain a comprehensive view of the problem (Morgan, 1983). Thus, although it provides higher awareness of hidden motivations, including those that lie "below-the-surface", it does not provide unequivocal answers but encourages ontological and epistemological questions to be asked (Holloway & Jefferson, 2001). Considering the psychoanalytic paradigm from which ORA stems, some may agree that the popular use of discourse analysis is an appropriate choice of method (Cilliers, 2010). For example, through spoken word and written text, researchers are able to identify the reality experienced by participants, even though this reality is socially constructed (Morgan, 1983).

Arguably, data collected through the use of discourse analysis do not provide us with a balanced understanding of the problem (Philips & Cynthia, 2002). Rather, owing to its data collection approach, it produces highly subjective data, which may lead to interference at both process and interpretation stage. The researcher/analyst's own moral, political or personal stance towards a subject can influence what is quoted in text or speech (Gee, 2011). Evidence of this is found in Motsoaledi and Cilliers's (2010) study of senior nurses, wherein the researchers admitted that their empathy towards the participant nurses interfered with their interpretation of the data. The task of analysing data should be, as per Gee's understanding, "for us to think more deeply about the meanings we give people's words so as to make ourselves better, more humane people and the world a better, more humane place" (Gee, 2005).

There are alternative methods available for use with ORA. For example, in their effort to demonstrate the usefulness of ORA in helping clients to understanding what is termed "role narcissism", Long, Newton and Chapman (2006) used a "role-pairing methodology". Role narcissism is the tendency in some people to regard their own role as the dominant or most important role within the organisation (Long, Newton & Chapman, 2006); all other roles are subservient to their role. Long et al. (2006) used a role-pairing exercise to help leaders consider themselves in the other's role and envisage the constraints they may face. Long et al. (2006) claim to have found evidence to suggest that role dialogue (role talking to role as opposed to person talking to person) resulted in one being aware of the other's dislikes, interpersonal experience or role distance. However, although they claim that the process enabled participants to "move" from a position of "total role narcissism" to one of "role centeredness", arguably this "move" was more psychological than it was physical. Besides this, data construed from this stemmed from self-reports, which were then interpreted by the researchers. For example, following the process, participants reported being more aware of their role and those of others, which was taken to mean that the outcome was a success. Moreover, this research was carried out in the context of a prison environment, which is noticeably different from that of a corporate setting. Nonetheless, the

findings suggest that participants (prison governors) were able to understand clearly the role of the community corrections officers and the content of their work. Support for "role-pairing" methodology stems from Cilliers (2010), who contends that such processes can enable one to see for example how different expectations about the development of offenders were affected by the role context, including how the role was taken up. Further support for the "role dialogue" methodology stems from Kets de Vries (2007), who contends that this method enables participants to find safe ground from which to speak about their roles, and could be listened to because the issue of personality was temporarily suspended. This differs from interpersonal dialogue, which often takes the form of gossip about co-workers (Kets de Vries, 2007). Arguably, this type of dialogue could not be facilitated through alternative models such as behavioural ones.

Despite the usefulness of this methodology, several constraints have been noted. For example, the dialogue may be less effective owing to the roles involved being structurally distant in the organisation (Kets de Vries, 2007). As with any other organisational skill, role dialogue requires practice if its outcomes are going to have a real impact. Lastly, considering the mediating/facilitating role played by the researcher, it may have led to considerable temptation for the researcher to step into the role of teacher or consultant, which could potentially interfere with the results (Hutton et al., 1997).

Proposition 1 conclusion. The findings from the studies reviewed above suggest that ORA and CIBART were useful for raising leaders' awareness of hidden and unconscious content, particularly its role in influencing behaviour. However, data collected for these studies relied on coachees' self-reports, which one cannot claim to be absolutely accurate. Furthermore, individual leaders appeared to be unaware of what is even meant by the term "unconscious", let alone what it contains and how it gets there. The role of the skilled consultant/coach coincides with theoretical assumptions, and work at the below-the-surface level is made possible through a commitment from the coach, which is a fundamental part of the process. "Role-ogrammes" and "role-biographies" were also found to help leaders explore their role and its interrelatedness, enabling them to take up

their role more effectively. The evidence around the process of ORA indicates that participants had become more aware of how their leadership role was being influenced by unconscious factors; "role narcissism" was also detected, suggesting that some individuals considered their role to be of most importance, an awareness thought to be facilitated by ORA.

2.7 Proposition 2 – ORA aids understanding of leaders/executives' mental representation of the organisation, which increases leadership awareness

A key assumption of ORA is that all individuals hold a mental image of their organisation, which can be made assessable; this is yet another claim that is difficult to test. For example, measuring this is likely to stem from self-reports; however, the main problem with this is that individuals are not necessarily aware that this image exists in their minds. A skilful coach is relied upon to extract this knowledge, using the behavioural descriptors provided. Gaining an awareness of this mental image is considered important because it is thought to shape the way leaders response and behave in the organisation (Hutton et al., 1997).

The idea that organisations live within us and form a part of our identity is for some a little unusual and difficult to comprehend. This creates a paradox for this review because it suggests that it is not possible for individuals (namely researchers) to examine change in an organisational system of which they are a part. The perspective offered here is that, as objective as our relationship with the organisation may seem, we are emotionally entwined and part of the organisation. Thus, what is organisational is also personal. The idea of there being an "organisation-in-the-mind" (Hutton et al., 1997) is a concept used by the Grubb Institute to argue that an individual's mental representation of "the organisation" in their mind has the potential to govern and shape how they behave in it (Grubb Institute, 1997). This argument is expressed below:

Any organisation is composed of diverse fantasies and projections of its members. Everyone who is aware of an organisation, whether a member or not, has a mental image of how it works. Though these diverse ideas are not often consciously negotiated or agreed upon

among participants, they exist. In this sense all institutions exist in the mind, and it is in

interaction with these in-the-mind entities that we live. (Shapiro & Carr, 1991, p. 223)

This idea that employees have a mental image of the organisation is not novel. Winnicott (1952) refers to these "hidden" relationships between the organisation and the employee as "transitional objects"; Klein (1963) speaks of them as being a "phantasy", expert systems-psychodynamic consultants from the Grubb Institute refer to such phenomena as the "organisation-in-the-mind", and Hirschhorn describes them as being "internal working models". Despite these differences in labels, all theorists are in fact talking about the same thing: they recognise that, in addition to the "real" and "physical" relationships that exist between employees and the organisations, mental ones exist and they play a fundamental role in influencing behaviour at work.

The mind of the leader is both a function of the real dynamics and emotional resonances in the organisation, including the unconscious fantasies about the organisation (Armstrong, 2012). Such fantasies are thought to stem from a combination of collective-level behaviour and individual-level behaviour (the individual's previous experiences with authority and organisational systems, including family life and education). Both types of experience (collective and individual) are initially internalised by the individual and are claimed to be powerful enough to influence their management and leadership style. From this standpoint, the organisation is encountered through experiencing and imaging forms in inner psychic space, which then influences how leaders behave (Lawrence, 2010). Thus, from this perspective an "organisation" does not exist out there, nor is it a "thing"; rather, it exists in the mind of the individual. Armstrong (2012) extends this view by positing that organisations live within us and form part of our identity. Thus, no two individuals are the same – each has their individual way of making sense of phenomena in the organisation. There are several ways of thinking about these "mental images", as will be discussed. Winnicott's (1971) idea of "transitional phenomena" is useful for shedding some light on the concept of "organisation-in-the-mind". Winnicott's viewpoint is that individuals struggle to merge their "inside" (mind) and "outside" (organisation) worlds. For example, he describes a good manager who wants to relate

effectively with the outside world (the organisation), of which they are a part. In attainment of this, they may organise group meetings, make plans, define aims, form discussions – much of this is accomplished in reality. In fantasy, they may have dreams and visions, which impinge upon them and affect their decision-making and behaviour.

However, Winnicott's notion that "transitional objects" can carry individuals' inner feelings is difficult to test and measure (Neumann, 1997). Furthermore, the idea that transitional objects bridge the gap between an individual's inner world and the world outside them (Winnicott, 1953) has only been reported in a few studies; therefore, it is questionable whether the same findings will hold true for other individuals. Besides this, Winnicott's view that transitional objects enable individuals to cope with the stresses and uncertainties of making decisions, taking risks and being accountable for one's actions is based on data collected from individual, subjective perspectives, which are also based on self-reports (Hutton, 1997). Thus, categorising the "organisation-in-the-mind" as a transitional object on the premise that it is where irrational thoughts and ideas as well as rational ones are contained cannot be generalised because "mental representations" are supposedly influenced by individual differences. Each individual will have a unique perspective of the organisation, which might be shaped by their personal experiences.

A further illustration of the effect of "organisation-in-the-mind" can be drawn from an ORA study, which was conducted with a headteacher of a secondary school (Struwig, 2011). The school was renowned for taking in disadvantaged pupils. Whilst the behaviour of pupils in the lower school was described as "expected", the students in the upper school were achieving very poor academic results, on which the school's reputation was being based. During the process of ORA, the headteacher saw that they had compensated so much for the "poor" pupils in the lower school that when pupils were in the rigours of the upper school and faced with the many pressures associated with this period they were not equipped for the challenges associated with gaining entry into adult life. The organisation-in-the-mind enabled her to see that she was not coping with holding the whole system together as an educational institution (Struwig, 2011). She had split the

school into a "good" lower school and a "bad" upper school, which provides evidence for Klein's (1963) theory of "splitting". Besides this, she began to realise that her organisation-in-the-mind was a social work agency rather than a school.

Object-relations theorist Klein (1963) also argues that individuals have the mental capacity to relate to objects internally, which is linked to the organisation-in-the-mind concept. According to Klein (1963), the idea that internal relationships with objects are almost like a "blueprint" of what is really experienced, as they are created in what she refers to as "phantasy", is difficult to test because knowledge of this phenomenon is dependent on self-reports, which is then made sense of and interpreted by the analyst, who cannot claim to be value-free. "Phantasy" is a mental representation of those somatic events in the body that comprise the instincts and are physical sensations interpreted as relationships with objects that cause those sensations (Klein, 1952). It stems from us being unable to accept/sustain the pain of reality, which causes conflict between how we are currently feeling and what we want to feel. This level of dissonance between the things we love and rely on and those we fear and hate causes us anxiety and is unmanageable; according to Klein, we attempt to manage them by splitting them into good and bad objects. Initially, a manager or leader's approach to their role or task tends to be quite polarised – events and experiences are perceived as either "good" or "bad" (Klein, 1976). When an individual is at the point of realising that objects can have good and bad parts, it is a sign that they are in what Klein refers to as the "depressive position", despite criticism suggesting that these concepts are difficult to test, negative, far-fetched and incomprehensible (Grubb, 1997).

Bollas (1987) shared similar beliefs to Klein and Winnicott about mental representations; however, he referred to these as "unthought knowns". However, these scholars differ in terms of the understanding of the type of internal relationships individuals have with objects. Bollas posits that individuals are aware of the things that affect them but they have not yet brought them into conscious awareness, suggesting that individuals have both choice and autonomy to express them.

Both Winnicott and Klein reject the idea that individuals have choice and autonomy to express themselves, positing that behaviours are unconsciously determined.

Hirschhorn (1990) shares the perspective of the role played my mental representation, which he refers to as the "workplace within"; together, Winnicott, Ball and Hirschhorn (1990) amongst many others agree that there is what appears to be a natural tendency for individuals to suppress their experiences in their organisational life. Individuals in-role have their own desires, fears and anxieties, which they refrain from expressing in the workplace as they "monitor" consciously and unconsciously what they "know" and "perceive" for reasons such as their survival or ambition. Hirschhorn's (1990) perspective of mental representations is that they are influenced by internal and external factors.

Proposition 2 conclusion. The evidence cited above suggests that theories from the psychoanalytic domain are in agreement that individuals form mental representations of the organisation of which they are not necessarily aware (Winnicott, 1951; Hirschhorn, 1990; Bollas, 1987; Klein, 1952). However, mental representations are created and discovered by the individual (Grubb, 1997); therefore, they seem to meet the assumptions of the interpretivist paradigm. Although ORA has been found to provide a useful method for capturing individual understanding of how organisations and the behaviours within them are mentally represented in the minds of employees, each representation is likely to be different.

2.8 Proposition 3 – Through use of ORA or CIBART, systemic thinking is facilitated, enabling individuals to make a connection between their role and the myriad of influences on their behaviour

The reviewed articles seem to show support for the proposition that CIBART facilitates systemic thinking, enabling individuals to understand the whole organisation rather than seeing only specific events in the system. Several researchers have argued that "systems thinking" is a vital skill that leaders should possess (Blakey, 2013; Struwig, 2012). At its core, systems thinking emphasises the importance of understanding that performance in-role is not achieved in isolation.

Evidence of this was found in Cilliers and Harry's (2012) study of industrial and organisational psychology students' learning experiences, which indicated that an awareness of the unconscious factors behind their behaviour could bring about increased academic achievements. This is quite similar to some pedagogy that emphasises the use of reflective practice in the hope of similar outcomes (Conrad, Duren & Haworth, 2002; Eisner, 1998; Gould & Stapley, 2004). Although the researchers claim that participants met their expected level of awareness, knowledge of this was based on their sole interpretation and analysis of participants' "free associations". Researchers were also responsible for processing the conscious and unconscious aspects of these interpreted associations into working hypotheses (Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006).

Despite the many positives associated with systemic thinking, on a conceptual level it is difficult to measure. For example, some argue that leaders who manage to grasp the ability to think systemically will experience a change in focus – they shift from wanting to control everything to wanting to leverage every relationship (Blakey, 2013). Measuring this "shift" from control to leveraging, however, presents a challenge for researchers. Because ORA relies heavily on a process of guided reflection, it can be argued that it is able to capture some of this "shift", which has contributed towards its uniqueness (Conrad, Duren & Haworth, 2002). The label "unique" is applied here in recognition that this model encourages leaders to examine their role through a "holistic lens", which goes against popular approaches that focus on the role of dispositional factors. However, the ability to examine one's own role requires a certain level of self-awareness, which cannot be assumed; neither can its effects be easily measured (Blakey, 2013). However, the view that knowledge of individual differences can be in some way replaced by systemic thinking, particularly for raising leaders' awareness of hidden behavioural motivators, is a perspective that is not shared by all (Conrad, Duren & Haworth, 2002). The evidence base depicting the impact of personality and dispositional factors on behaviour is vast. However, this does not prevent others who promote the more integrated perspective that encompasses systemic thinking from legitimising this "myth of separation" between leader, role and organisation (Lawrence, 1999).

Despite claims that ORA can be used to develop an awareness of interconnectedness and that the relationship between things rather than the things themselves is the primary driver of change, it is difficult to test empirically (Struwig, 2012). That these methods rely solely on the interpretation of a coachee's subjective experience of their professional role is a major difficulty associated with qualitative research designs. Whilst qualitative studies are extremely useful for understanding and describing human experience (Wright, 2012), the norms of rigour that are applied to quantitative data are not entirely applicable to qualitative research. Validity in qualitative research differs to the extent that data must be deemed plausible, credible and trustworthy, making it possible to defend when challenged (Cilliers, 2012). In view of the above, many claims concerned with the effectiveness of these methods are difficult to validate.

Proposition 3 conclusion. Inasmuch as systems thinking appears to benefit leadership development, it is a difficult concept to measure; this is mainly due to its "effects" being difficult to directly observe. Even when systems thinking can be inferred through behaviour, it is arguable whether this skill can be acquired through training alone. Systemic thinking comprises a combination of analytical thinking with synthetical thinking (Toshima, 1983). Several researchers have demonstrated how the ability to think systemically is heavily influenced by individual and group differences (Hirschi & Frey, 2002; Toshima, 1983). This suggests that different versions of what "it" is and how it is acquired exists, as it depends on how the "shift" in one's thinking is interpreted. For example, one's level of aptitude can affect systems thinking (Hirschi and Frey, 2002). Thus, if an individual has developed an aptitude for thinking in a holistic way, they might be more able to think systemically. A further finding was that people who are more cognitively able to handle more complexity are also prone to high quality systems thinking (Hirschi & Frey, 2002). However, these findings are based on correlational research; therefore, cause cannot be established, making it difficult to identify whether one precedes the other. Nonetheless, they indicate that systems thinking can be developed via means other than ORA and CIBART processes.

2.9   Conclusion

This chapter reviewed literature around two systems-psychodynamic methods (ORA and CIBART), which I envisaged might be useful to fellow occupational psychologists who are keen to consider and facilitate working at a below-the-surface level. Besides this, this review aimed to examine the validity and reliability of research that has used ORA and CIBART methods to develop leadership awareness and highlight systemic behavioural influences. The findings of the review suggest that there are major challenges in bringing these system-psychodynamic methodologies (ORA and CIBART) to organisations. Some practitioners remain suspicious of these methods owing to their lack of scientific rigour (Struwig, 2012) . Based on the literature, it would seem that these methods are used mainly by the relational/helping professions, such as social work, nursing, therapy and health care, as opposed to the mainstream corporate work environment (Morgan-Jones, 2010).

Nonetheless, the findings from the review suggest there is some consensus amongst researchers regarding the importance and robustness of using ORA as a method for helping leaders to make sense of the connections between the individual, role, and organisation. This method has a wealth of empirical support behind it, which provides some justification for its use by various practitioners, including occupational psychologists (Sackett & Lievens, 2008). In the case of the CIBART method, despite its suggested usefulness for developing systemic thinking, empirically speaking it is still in its infancy; its evidence base is limited, making it difficult to pass sound judgements about its effectiveness. However, this is not a defining factor as this can be helped through further research, which is worth doing because its potential as a tool for developing leadership at a deeper level is promising (Hieker & Huffington, 2006).

Together, the methods celebrate uniqueness in their ability to capture some of the hidden motives that influence a range of leadership behaviours, including decision-making. The findings presented from several investigations seem to demonstrate that ORA and CIBART have been useful for: (a) developing an awareness of unconscious motives; (b) discovering the nature of the mental

representations they form of the organisation; and (c) showing how systemic thinking can aid leaders' understanding of their role in the organisation and the interrelations between the system's components. Nonetheless, as straightforward as these processes appear, neither method provides a quick-fix solution to improving leaders' awareness, which some argue conflicts with what businesses want. Both methods take time, energy, experience and knowledge for results to be obtained. Even when the process is complete and data collected, a further issue presents, in terms of what the data actually represent.

Although there is some systemisation in terms of how data are collected, and a standardised process is followed, data collection relies heavily on the subjective accounts of coachees. While this presents a perspective of those who have undergone the process of ORA or CIBART, and who one would expect to be in the best position to report on the changes that they themselves have encountered, there is still the possibility that other extraneous factors, often outside of the researchers' or the coachees' awareness, might have influenced data. Despite claims that such methods are capable of producing "rich" and meaningful accounts, both rely on data collection from self-reports, and the coach fuels the process; therefore, the information gathered is dependent on the coaches' expertise and knowledge in working "below-the-surface", as it were. In the case of the latter, it can be argued that the coach's positioning plays an important role in shaping the outcome, which does not concur with the positivist paradigm and threatens the researcher's intention to maintain an objective stance. However, as noted by Morgan (1993), making a claim of researcher "objectivity" is more of an "illusion", particularly where it concerns humans researching humans. This idea, as mentioned, is supported by Marsh and Furlong (2002), who contend that it is not possible for humans to examine humans and remain objective.

Unfortunately, the paucity of research available regarding the effectiveness of these methods does not give confidence that findings can be at all generalised to other populations and situations. For example, individual differences concerning the impact of these methods for raising awareness suggest that there are different versions of truth out there to be found. This might present a problem

for practitioners who are expecting efficient and tangible outcomes. Nonetheless, considering the potential contribution of such methods for aiding deep self-reflection of the dynamics of role holders, practitioners and scholars are encouraged to expand and enrich the body of literature, particularly in the case of CIBART, to lure interest from practitioners who are keen to work at this level with employees. The methodological limitations that should be assumed might be viewed by some as a compromise for the rich and meaningful data generated by both ORA and CIBART, providing that the researcher's positionality and inferential gap have been sufficiently reflected upon.

2.10   Reflections on the research process

As an occupational psychologist with training/practitioner experience in psychoanalysis, I have encountered many difficulties trying to learn more about the application of psychodynamics methods for raising self-awareness of employees. Having spent several years being uncertain about how such a subjective phenomenon would be taken seriously in the business world, considering the preference for tangible outcomes, I became interested in further exploring these methods and the evidence base behind them. Furthermore, I struggled to find an existing literature review around these methods. This gap is what catapulted me to create one, as I envisaged how useful it might be to fellow occupational psychologists who are keen to gain knowledge of "below-the-surface" motivations.

My literature review process began with the assumption that little is known about the role that unconscious motives play in influencing behaviour. Having reflected on this, I now realise how this choice might have been influenced by my own ideological beliefs, point of view and values concerning the psychoanalytic approach. Although the evidence base was sparse and limited to using one main methodology, the findings suggest that both ORA and CIBART methods are predominately used by systems-psychodynamic informed consultants to assist them in their efforts to uncover "below-the-surface" motivations and raise awareness of this. Despite my efforts to find

scientific journal articles about their use by management consultants or people-management practitioners, my search yielded only a small selection of sources. For reasons such as age of inception, more information had been reported on ORA compared to CIBART.

Apart from the lengthy process I underwent to identify suitable sources, I faced a further struggle when it came to making decisions about which papers to retain and which to exclude. After summarising all my sources, the synthesis became very easy for me since my sources were categorised into three headings: the impact of using ORA and CIBART methods to raise awareness of unconscious and hidden motives in the workplace; the formation and impact of an individual forming a mental representation of the organisation; and the claim that systemic thinking facilitates the connection between role and organisation, enabling leaders to be aware of the myriad of influences on their behaviour. In my synthesis, I tied all the sources into the same groups. This was probably the easiest part of the review; however, finding and gathering all the sources was by far the hardest and most time-consuming part of the whole process. I suppose it did not help that, owing to the nature of the phenomena, most of the evidence reviewed had been collected on the basis of self-reported data, considering the limitations associated with this.

The most rewarding part of this review process was being able to research and learn more about a topic in which I am interested. I had some knowledge of ORA and CIBART and how practitioners use them to facilitate awareness, but nowhere near the amount of information and knowledge I have after writing this review. I feel that this newfound knowledge will be useful for developing my scientist-practitioner skills as I have greater understanding of how the theory works in practice, from a wider perspective other than that of my own. For example, I believe that I am able to critically appraise and knowledge on my topic of research to hook fellow practitioners, and discuss both the methods and benefits available of using them. This was an area I struggled with prior to embarking on this review process.

CHAPTER THREE (3)

An Empirical Study of the Link between Immature Psychological Defences Mechanisms and Employee Propensity to Resist Organisational Change: The Mediating Role of Core Self-Evaluation

3.0   Chapter introduction

This chapter investigates psychoanalytic claims that employee propensity to resist change (PtRC) can be unconsciously motivated. Specifically, this study seeks to examine the mediating role of core self-evaluations (CSE) in the relationship between an individual's use of immature psychological defence mechanisms (ImmD) and the propensity to resist organisational change (PtRC). Psychological defence mechanisms are coping techniques (anxiety reducing) that are thought to operate at an unconscious level to manipulate, deny or distort reality (Kramer, 2009). Immature psychological defences play an important role in suppressing emotional awareness (Costa, 2013). This paper argues that the relationship between the type of immature defence mechanism used and the propensity to resist change can be explained through the core evaluations that individuals hold about themselves and their ability to cope in situations such as change (Judge, 2007). Data were collected from 120 public-sector workers (relational professionals) who had recently experienced structural change within their organisation and volunteered to take part in the survey, and were then analysed using Baron and Kenny's (1961) four-step mediation process. The results indicate that a positive relationship between the use of immature defences and the propensity to resist change exists. Also, individual core beliefs about one's ability to cope with change exercised a partial mediating role with regard to this relationship. Overall, this chapter highlights the impact of immature psychological defences and resistance to change; however, it also demonstrates how one might go about reducing employee resistance, particularly for those that are influenced by unconscious factors.

3.1   Conceptualising resistance to change and its determinants

Although the concept of resistance to change (RTC) was first introduced by Kurt Lewin (1948) and has been discussed in the organisational behaviour (OB) literature for almost six decades (Patalano, 2011), still there remain different views about what it is and how it comes about, including effective ways to tackle it. Traditionally, RTC has been viewed in negative terms. For example, Herscovitch (2003) defines it as "employee action or inaction that is intended to avoid a change and/or interfere with the successful implementation of a change in its current" (p. 14). Ford et al. (2008) define resistance as an "irrational and dysfunctional reaction" (p. 84). It is also defined as a negative and defensive reaction that employees employ to escape the realities at work (Diamond, 1993; Fineman, 2008), eliciting disastrous outcomes, reflected in, for instance, sabotage and disruption to efficiency (Hoyle 2004). Wittig (2012) extends this by claiming that employees' increased levels of absenteeism, presenteeism and hostility due to the fear and loss of old ways of working in exchange for the new can be attributed to RTC. In view of this – and the complexities associated with delivering change are well established, with failure rates frequently cited as high as 70% (CIPD, 2014) – RTC is a cause of concern for many employees, with implications also for organisations (Bradley, 2000).

Although not every employee resists change, it is generally accepted that RTC, despite its potentially negative outcome (Diamond, 1993), is a "typical" response to change (Bargh, 2013). Perhaps this is because RTC behaviours are often attributed to inept management (Fine, 1986). While it might be plausible to attribute RTC to external and situational factors, such as management's handling of change on the premise that the change itself might elicit an anxious response in employees, this presents only one side of the picture (Diamond, 1993; Fineman, 2008; Hoyle, 2004). For example, some findings suggest that employees resist change when there is a mismatch between their expectations of their role and what their new role will entail following the change. Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory can shed light on this as it proposes that individuals are motivated to seek consonance (agreement), or what others would refer to as

"congruence", between their opinions, actions, perceptions and beliefs (Albarracin, Johnson & Zanna, 2014). Congruence is defined as the extent to which an individual is aligned with their authentic feelings instead of an ideal perception of what they should be or act like (Rogers, 1967). Thus, when change is introduced and management begins making requests for staff to behave in ways that are supportive of the change, which unbeknown to them might be inconsistent with their attitude, employee resistance may arise. Owing to the tension associated with dissonance, individuals are likely to do whatever it takes to return to a state of cognitive consistency (Jermias, 2012).

The idea that individuals will seek to reduce their cognitive dissonance sheds some interesting light on how and why resistance to change is maintained. For example, when individuals are committed to their strong views and beliefs, findings suggest that they become insensitive to the attractive features of a proposed alternative (Jermias, 2012). Allen's (1964) earlier study supports this and contributes evidence that suggests that, in an attempt to uphold and retain current ways of working, individuals will "exaggerate the usefulness of their preferred way" (p. 234), so as to achieve consonance. Both Jermias's (2012) and Allen's (1964) findings suggest that individuals will seek information that is consistent with their prior beliefs, which in turn can influence their behaviours. Support for this effect stems also from research into psychological contracts. Rousseau (1989; 2001) defines psychological contracts as mental schemas that encompass individuals' perceived counterparty obligations and resistance to change behaviours. Rousseau's findings suggest that the perception of a discrepancy between perceived obligations and performance (a psychological contract breach) can elicit an emotional reaction within individuals that encompasses feelings of frustration, betrayal and anger (psychological contract violation). These emotions are thought to motivate affective and behavioural adjustment, which is associated with dissonance.

While cognitive dissonance theory offers a perspective on what happens at a point in time when a perceived breach occurs, it falls short of providing an explanation of the process involved in

eliciting attitudinal and behavioural adjustments within individuals in their response to contract violations and organisational change. For example, social exchange theory posits that individuals engage in exchanges seeking socio-emotional or economic benefits (Emerson, 1976). Social exchange theory also posits that violations of expectancies in relation to the expected benefits and/or counterparty behaviour in the exchange would lead to a reduction of inputs from the party who perceives inequity or injustice (Adams, 1963; Rawls, 1977). Unfortunately, however, social exchange theory largely ignores the affective experience of injustice and their perception of the "ill-management" of change.

Traditionally, it would appear that humans have struggled to achieve a level of consistency between their thoughts, beliefs and behaviours (Rousseau, 1989; 2001; Jermias, 2012; Allen,1964; Albarracin, Johnson & Zanna, 2014). For example, while thinking negatively about change, an individual may behave in a way that would appear to be "positive" or "supportive", yet their beliefs may be that no good will stem from the proposed change. Dissonance theory has strong empirical support for its predictions about human thought and behaviour after making a decision. However, there are several shortcomings with the theory: dissonance theory makes no predictions about how this inconsistency in beliefs can be reduced, which is important for the management of resistant behaviours (Jermias, 2012); individual differences are also not taken into account, which does not guarantee that the theory can be adequately generalised (Albarracin, Johnson & Zanna, 2014); and, lastly, it does not consider the nature of the persuasive message, which is likely to result in varying outcomes. In view of this, more information is required to further explain the psychological experience that individuals encounter when they are faced with organisational change, and how this might elicit a resistant response.

For example, little is known about the role of diverging and individual reactions to change, such as an individual's psychological defence mechanisms and their perception of their ability to cope during changing situations, which some findings suggest is associated with the propensity to resist organisational change (Bovey & Hede, 2001). However, research in this area is sparse – to

date, only one empirical study has found evidence to suggest that psychological defence mechanisms can influence resistance-to-change outcomes (Bovey & Hede, 2001; Diamond, 2013; Bargh, 2013). Nonetheless, much can be inferred from indirect findings, which indicate that during times of stress individuals will unconsciously deploy coping techniques to assist them in their efforts to manage, as these have been found to reduce the anxiety that change induces (Kramer, 2009; Costa, 2013). However, the concept of "unconscious motivation", which is taken to mean a specific type of mental/psychic influence that operates and influences behaviour outside of individual awareness, has proven difficult to measure (Western, 1999). Opponents of psychoanalytic theory, such as Crews (1995), claim that the conceptual, theoretical and methodological issues associated with measuring "unconscious" motivation has impacted both research interest and the evidence base concerning its role in influencing behaviour. Although the role of the unconscious is highly recognised and supported in clinically based disciplines such as counselling and psychotherapy (Strenger, 1991), the same cannot be said when it is applied outside of this context to disciplines such as organisational behaviour and people management (Diamond, 2003). That psychoanalysis has grounded most of its claims on clinical data represents, for some, a violation of one of the central requirements of scientific research: evidence in favour of theories should be replicable (Strenger, 1991). This creates tensions in the application of psychoanalytic theory for understanding organisational behaviours such as resistance because traditionally it would appear that management theory and practice value research that is replicable, as it can help managers to make predictions about future events and tangible outcomes (Johnson & Duberley, 2011). This presents a problem for psychoanalytic theories that claim resistance to change can be unconsciously motivated (Bovey & Hede, 2001; Diamond, 2013; Bargh, 2013), considering that this concept cannot be directly measured. Nonetheless, if evidence is available of the role of unconscious motivation on resistant behaviour, this would contribute new knowledge to the literature, which might be of interest to management in their quest to understand and tackle resistant behaviour.

In view of this, this study adopted the approach taken by Bovey and Hede (2001), as unconscious motivations were operationalised as psychological defence mechanisms comprising two types: "immature/maladaptive" and "mature/adaptive" (Valliant, 200; Bovey & Hede, 2001). "Immature/maladaptive" types of defence including "projection", "denial" and "regression" have been linked to employees' resistant response towards organisational change (Valliant, 2000; Bovey & Hede, 2001; Diamond, 2013; Hirschhorn, 1998). The rationale behind this is that psychoanalytic theory provides the conceptual framework for understanding unconscious processes (Obholzer & Roberts, 1994), which are described as thoughts and desires that operate below the level of conscious awareness (Matlin, 1995). In this research, defence mechanisms are thought of as coping strategies that arise involuntarily in response to perceptions of psychological danger and are therefore employed by individuals to alleviate anxiety (Andrews, 1983). Despite the potential relationships described above, there have been no known studies that have examined the relationships between the three variables: immature psychological defence mechanisms, core self-evaluations and resistance to change.

Perhaps this notable lack of evidence linking immature defences and core self-evaluations to resistance is due to the difficulties posed around the measurement of unconscious phenomena, such as defences. Most of the research highlighting the role of the unconscious stems from adherents of psychoanalytic thinking, who accept its role in, and influence on, behaviour (Diamond, 2013). This position is, however, indefensible considering that this phenomenon cannot be measured directly, hence the reason why many still question the "real" status of its existence (Crews, 1995). The many tensions around the nature and proposed role of the "unconscious" can perhaps explain why much of the literature contributing to this discussion describes hypotheses arising from observation of, or consultation with, organisations, involving written interpretations of the existence of unconscious in individuals and groups as texts (Frank, 1987; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1987). This has been justified on the basis that "initial interpretations must be tested against reality as it is perceived by others … Interpretation is a dynamic, iterative and interactive phenomenon" (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1987).

However, this represents a serious problem in organisational settings because, if claims that immature defences impact resistant behaviour at an unconscious level are "true", for management it must be challenging to identify and manage those employees who have a tendency to use such defences. Looked at in this way, the task of managing change and resistance becomes a question of whether resources are sufficiently equipped with the knowledge and skills to identify these tendencies within individuals, as an initial step for better managing the behaviours some claim they impact in the workplace.

The role of anxiety in resistance

Anxiety is thought to play a major role in employee resistance to change (Arnaud, 2012). Anxiety is defined as an emotion characterised by feelings of tension, worried thoughts, and physical changes like blood pressure (APA, 2017). Another definition of anxiety is: "Distress or uneasiness caused by fear of danger or misfortune" (Marshak, 2016). According to Marshak, the danger or misfortune can be real or imagined. In terms of change, Marshak (2016) considers that it is generally accepted that "psychological safety" is needed for people to engage in what an individual or group might consider "risky behaviour", such as a new way of working. This idea is consistent with study findings, which suggest that some employees become anxious about change and will resist it because they fear the unknown (Wittig, 2012; Diamond, 2013). Prolonged anxiety, which has been found to dominate an individual's thought patterns and mental state, and interferes with their daily functioning (Davey & Tallis, 1994), is diagnosed as a generalised anxiety disorder (DSM IV). This suggests that anxiety can have a detrimental effect on behaviour, which is important to the RTC literature. For example, Borkovec and Costello (1993) observed that when certain stimuli such as change are perceived as threatening, individuals are more likely to resist them; as the changes begin to settle in, it can lead to anxiety. Resistance to upcoming change can also develop because it is chosen as a psychological strategy to protect oneself from the effects of "real" or imagined change (Bargh, 2013). Bargh's (2013) findings suggest firstly that the mere

perception that the change will have negative consequences for the individual can elicit an emotional/psychological response; secondly, it indicates that individuals "choose" psychological strategies to deal with the pressures of change.

However, many have questioned how conscious and rational individuals' problem-solving behaviours are when there is too much felt anxiety (Marshak, 2016). Adherents of the Tavistock approach assert that anxiety triggers an unconscious response when individuals are confronted with change. The relationship between anxiety and change is for some referred to as a "Goldilocks" relationship, in the sense that when there is too little anxiety there is no motivation to change; however, if there is too much anxiety individuals may behave in a defensive way. Conceptually, this sounds logical; however, it becomes difficult to manage in practice. One reason for this is that it is difficult to work out when there is too much, too little or just the right amount of anxiety to motivate change or lead to resistance. Furthermore, what might be experienced as too little anxiety for one individual might be too much for another because anxiety is subjectively experienced (Bargh, 2013). Considering the suggested effects of anxiety on resistance, it is important to the RTC research and to this study in particular.

3.2   Psychoanalytic perspectives on the role of anxiety in employee resistance to change

Although in psychoanalytic theory no specific reference is made to employee resistance to organisational change, the role of anxiety is considered to be both a descendent and antecedent of employees' response to change (Diamond, 2013; Bargh, 2013; Bovey & Hede, 2001; Oldham & Kleiner, 1990; de Board, 1978). From this perspective, it is assumed that anxiety is biologically adapted to warn the organism of danger and threat to its equilibrium (Tierney & Farmer 2002). However, although psychoanalytic theorists contend that organisational change induces anxiety, it is bound to affect people in different ways. Some individuals have a lower warning threshold; therefore, when this warning comes, psychological defences become activated, without conscious input or effort from the individual (Judge, 2007). Thus, Judge (2007) posits that the strategies that

individuals employ operate at not only a biological level but also at an unconscious level, predisposing individuals to behave in a defensive and automated manner. This notion of automated influence is supported by neuroscience research, which is discussed later in this chapter (Lipton, 2012). When looked at in this way, resistant behaviour is thus considered to be a consequence of unconscious, well-developed defence mechanisms that individuals deploy to protect themselves from the feelings of anxiety change causes (Oldham & Kleiner, 1990; de Board, 1978). While it would appear plausible to most that change can induce anxiety, many are less convinced that unconscious factors, such as psychological defence mechanisms, have anything to do with one's propensity to resist change (Bargh, 2008). Perhaps this is because the growing evidence around the theory of unconscious motivation, which argues that individuals are not always aware of the factors that impact their behaviour, is often difficult to assimilate within the theoretical and methodological framework of management (Arnaud, 2012). The psychoanalytic ethic preaches neutrality regarding the individual and it is considered unacceptable to exert the slightest pressure on or authority over them (Anderson & White, 2003). In terms of its applicability to management theory and practice, this poses a number of problems because, whereas management uphold the view that individuals are aware and able to control their behaviours, including decision-making, psychoanalysis suggests otherwise (Wozniak, 2010). Nonetheless, no suggestion is made that psychoanalysis and management theory cannot meet in practice. After all, organisational psychoanalysis provides a framework for reflection while functioning as an interface between the organisation and employees (Diamond, 2008).

Nonetheless, what appears to dominate the management literature is the view that individual resistance to change is the result of technical and conscious processes alone (Bovey & Hede, 2001). Others regard it to be a socially constructed phenomenon, influenced by the meaning we attach to it (Ford, Ford & McNamara, 2014). Little consideration is given to the idea that individuals are emotional beings and, owing to the constraints of the organisation, the objective of organisational change, which requires employees to behave differently or accept the new in exchange for the old,

can evoke emotional experiences in employees. It is recognised that some employees can become attached to their roles at work as this gives them a sense of purpose (Hassan, 2012); for others, work role helps to establish identity (Huffington, 2008), which is why some will protect their role from real or imagined threats that may change it (Gabriel, 2002). Thus, resistance may be an inevitable reaction for those employees who fear that the change will result in them losing the psychological benefits they gain from their work role (Kets de Vries, 2007).

However, despite the conscious efforts made by individuals to protect themselves from having to endure the consequences of change, unconscious efforts cannot be discounted (Gabriel, 2002; Kets de Vries, 2007; Newton, Long & Sievers, 2006). Clarke (2012) argues that change can be experienced as threatening because it always requires new learning, and for some this poses a big challenge. Lipton (2012) also agrees that new learning and novel goals require conscious processing, which requires a lot of cognitive energy to accept, and Wegner (2002) goes as far as proposing the existence of an automated "iconic system" in recognition that "searches for mental content signal a failure to create an intended state of mind" (Wegner, 1997, p. 148). Thus, when individuals experience cognitive overload in respect of having to learn something new, our iconic system is activated and unconsciously enables the expression of the behaviour that we had hoped to prevent (Clarke, 2012).

3.3   Psychoanalytic theory of unconscious motivation

Although Freud is often wrongly credited for the discovery of the unconscious, arguably it is he who introduced it in the way we commonly understand it today (Gabriel, 2002). Compared to those who understood the unconscious to be a passive and less active state of being, Freud saw the unconscious to be a source of motivation, with a remarkable ability to hide unacceptable thoughts and desires from awareness (Arnaud, 2012). This way of thinking offers a unique contribution to the idea that human behaviour can be influenced by "unconscious factors" (Foucault, 1970). According to Freud (1909), much of the mental activity responsible for human behaviour lies below

the "surface", hidden from one's conscious awareness. His topographical model, whereby he theorised that what is visible on the outside is a mere reflection of hidden motivations of the psyche, can influence individual behaviour. The "unconscious" part of the mind serves as a store containing significant and unacceptable memories, drives and urges, from the past, which are banished and kept securely to prevent individuals from becoming consciously aware of these, as he theorised that this would evoke symptoms of extreme anxiety (Freud, 1909). Freud recognised that, although individuals are capable of repressing painful memories, such attempts were not always successful because new experiences and challenges can trigger memories of past experiences, although little evidence of this is provided. Justification of this effect stems from the perspective that memories of past experiences are thought to influence our interpretation of new experiences/encounters (Freud, 1909).

Unfortunately, however, many aspects of Freud's theory, including concepts such as "unconscious motivation", have been criticised for being indefensible (Arnaud, 2012). Many argue that the "unconscious" cannot be measured, which is the main reason for its lack of theoretical and practical support. For example, if we are unaware of some of the motives thought to govern our behaviour, how can we measure what is not physically there? Furthermore, how do we know whether it really exists? What is referred to as "unconscious motivation" describes subjective experiences; therefore, despite psychoanalytic assumptions about their effects, they cannot be generalised. Philosophically speaking, this indicates that such phenomena can only be interpreted, which in some way explains why research into this phenomenon is predominately approached from an interpretivist or, more recently, critical realist perspective (Morgan, 1983). For example, cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) reports that, in practice, processes that link elements of the past to the present can be unconsciously experienced (Otte, 2011). Nonetheless, some CBT therapists criticise the unconscious concept on the basis that it cannot be measured scientifically (Beck, 1989). Logically it makes sense to suggest that a past bad encounter of change can result in one feeling anxious about future experiences of change. Wittig's (2012) research supports this as

he found that individuals have a tendency to link past experiences to their current interpretation of what is going to happen (Wittig, 2012). This effect, however, can be attributed to memory processes, such as the elements that connect short-term and long-term memory constructs.

While it is generally accepted that psychoanalytic theory has made remarkable discoveries, there remain many doubts about their claims around the unconscious, most of which concern the difficulties posed by trying to measure it (Carruthers, 2009). Apart from this, at a basic level, and despite the age of the concept, many researchers still question the existence of the "unconscious" (Newton, Long & Sievers, 2006). Nonetheless, today psychoanalysis has advanced and is arguably more sophisticated (Geraskov, 2012; Baumeister & John, 2014). Evidence to support Tierney's claims regarding the status of the "unconscious" and its determining impact on behaviour now stems from other disciplines too (Clarke, 2011; Geraskov, 2012). Social psychology research, for example, has repeatedly shown that people are not always aware of many "past-triggering" situational cues and stimuli that influence their behaviour (Baumeister & Tierney 2014). Neurobiologists such as Lipton (2011) go further and argue that only 5% of human behaviour and action is governed by conscious thought. Similarly, cognitive psychologists such as Wegner (2002), Clarke (2003), Carruthers (2009), Geraskov (2012) and Koriat, Ma'ayan and Nussinson (2006) argue, on the basis of their findings, that most behaviours are automated by unconscious processes. Despite there being several conceptual and methodological limitations associated with this, neuroscientists have produced compelling evidence to suggest that the brain despises change and behaves (unconsciously) in ways to resist it (Northoff, Bermpohl, Schoeneich & Boeker, 2007). In view of this, this paper argues, amongst many others, that concepts such as "unconscious motivation" can make an epistemological contribution to the study of organisation, namely employee resistance to change (Hirschhorn & Neumann, 1999; Gabriel & Carr, 2002), provided that it can be measured scientifically. This presents a challenge, considering the nature of the phenomenon.

Researchers and practitioners who work at what Kets de Vries (2009) refers to as a "below-the-surface" level have found evidence to suggest unconscious motives associated with past events can influence organisational behaviour (Bargh, 2014; Lipton, 2011; Baumeister & John, 2014; Bovey & Hede, 2001; Kets de Vries, 2009). The perspective here is that behaviours displayed in the workplace can be recognised as being governed by irrational factors, some of which have been found to operate at a non-conscious level (Gabriel, 2002). This goes beyond the standard platform of organisational theory, which is centred on rationality, hierarchy and authority (Gabriel, 2002). In the context of this study, this suggests that individuals may not be conscious of how they respond to change, particularly those who have a greater propensity to resist it. The problem with this, as suggested by these findings, is that such factors may lead to a repetitive display of dysfunctional behaviours (Bargh, 2014; Lipton, 2011; Baumeister & John, 2014; Bovey & Hede, 2001). Such findings challenge what appears to be an intuitive appeal amongst researchers and scholars alike to accept the view that consciousness exerts full control over behaviour; perhaps because the case for unconscious causation of behaviour is overwhelming (Baumeister & John, 2014).

This study therefore investigated whether hidden and unconscious processes play a role in one's propensity to resist change, as previously found (Bovey & Hede, 2001). Bearing in mind that the role of unconscious motivation is hardly considered in organisational theory, I anticipate that knowledge gained from this study will be extremely beneficial to scholars and fellow occupational psychologists. Furthermore, I accept that the omission of knowledge around unconscious processes from the management literature is particularly curious because persuasive and extensive arguments are available, which suggest that people are not always fully aware and in control of all the factors that influence their response to change (Wegner, 2002; Carruthers, 2006; Wilson, 2002; Bovey & Heed, 2001). This is because, conceptually, this phenomenon, similar to anxiety, is subjectively experienced, thus making it difficult to claim that it exists. This makes the task of measuring its effects difficult. In view of this, "propensity to" as opposed to "actual" resistance to change was considered more appropriate for this study.

The type of change discussed in this study is classified as structural change. Batras, Duff and Smith (2016) define structural changes as those that stem from internal or external factors and typically affect the running of the organisation. Others define structural change as that which changes the way, authority, capital, information and responsibility flows (Pillai, Hodgkinson, Kalyanaram & Nair, 2017). Changes made to an organisation's structure are likely to impact its hierarchy, chain of command, management system, administrative procedures and job structure. Structural changes have been found to result in relocation, restructuring, mergers and acquisitions, including changes in process or policy. Other studies have found links between structural change, well-being and greater resistance to change (de Jong, Wiezer, de Weerd, Nielsen, Mattila-Holappa & Mockallo, 2016).

3.4 Psychological defence mechanisms

Psychological defence mechanisms are regarded as coping strategies that individuals deploy unconsciously to protect themselves from threats of psychic danger, such as change (Bovey & Hede, 2001; Paren, 2015; Cunningham et al., 2002). According to Valliant (1977), such defences keep potentially threatening ideas, feelings, memories or fears out of awareness, although they can also result in self-deception as individuals who use immature defences are thought to be out of touch with reality, which can impair their ability to deal with the situation (Hirschhorn, 1998). Previously, defence mechanisms were studied qualitatively, through the use of measures such as the thematic apperception test (TAT) and the Rorschach ink test; however, these methods received an undue amount of criticism (Crammer, 2004) for reasons such as their reputation, credibility and trustworthiness, including their claims concerning measurements (Arnaud, 2012). For example, the TAT is considered unscientific because it cannot be proved to be valid or reliable, and some critics argue that the content of the TAT cards (characteristics and environments) are dated, even "old-fashioned", and that they are time-consuming (Holmstrom, Silber & Karp, 1990). Owing to the ipsative nature of such methods, comparisons between individuals cannot be made. Although in clinical settings defence mechanisms are thought to play an important role in influencing behaviour,

the same impact is not claimed in the field of management. Besides, attributing the cause of resistant behaviours to unconscious motivations does not necessarily support the objectives of management research that traditionally approaches it from the viewpoint that employees should be accountable and responsible for their behaviour on the premise of "rationality", with a preference for tangible outcomes (Arnaud, 2012).

Just as individuals experience change in different ways, it is accepted that individuals use different defences to ward off anxiety. The *Diagnostic Statistical Manual* (DSM IV) classification of defences describes three broad types: *immature defences*, which presume that the individual is not functioning optimally and may transfer their feelings on to others, e.g. denial and projection; *neurotic defences*, which are not necessarily adaptive but involve focussing on abstract concepts and intellectual reasoning as a means to gain control over the situation; and *mature defences*, which are generally considered to be functional in that they offer the best ways to cope with emotional pain, transforming unacceptable desires into constructive and socially acceptable forms, such as the use of humour. Nonetheless, this study is mainly concerned with immature defence mechanisms, as evidence suggests that these are specifically related to employees' resistance to change (Bovey & Hede, 2001); see Table 1 below for a full description of the types of "immature defences".

Table 1

Types of immature defence mechanisms and descriptions (Valliant, 2000)

Immature defence	Description
Denial	The refusal to accept a fact that is painful or with which an individual cannot cope, behaving as though it does not exist or did not happen, for example when someone loses his job but continues to produce and submit work related material.
Passive aggressive	The individual deals with emotional conflict or internal or external stressors by indirectly and unassertively expressing aggression towards others. There is a lot of overt compliance masking covert resistance, resentment or hostility. Passive aggression often occurs in response to demands for independent action or performance or the lack of gratification of dependent wishes but may be adaptive for individuals in subordinate positions who have no other way to express assertiveness more overtly.
Acting out	Use of behaviours to replace recollection of memories too painful to be made conscious is considered counter therapeutic.

Isolation	The splitting-off of the emotional components from a thought.
Devaluation	The individual deals with emotional conflict or internal or external stressors by attributing exaggerated negative qualities to self or others.
Autistic fantasy	The individual deals with emotional conflict or internal or external stressors by excessive daydreaming as a substitute for human relationships, more effective action or problem-solving.
Displacement	A change in the object by which an instinctual drive is to be satisfied; shifting the emotional component from one object or idea to another. Examples: (1) a woman is abandoned by her fiancé'; she quickly finds another man about whom she develops the same feelings; (2) a salesman is angered by his superior but suppresses his anger; later, on return to his home, he punishes one of his children for misbehaviour that would usually be tolerated or ignored.
Dissociation	Losing track of time and/or of one's person and adopting a different self to escape unbearable events or memories. In this state, people become disconnected in time and place, lose track of events and their sequences, and may become convinced that they are many different persons (multiple personality disorder). This is an extreme defence to severe early childhood abuse, for example.
Splitting	This term is widely used today to explain the coexistence within the ego of contradictory states, representative of self and others, as well as attitudes to self and others; other individuals or the self is perceived as 'All good or all bad'.
Rationalisation	Offering a socially acceptable and apparently more or less logical explanation for an act or decision actually produced by unconscious impulses. The person rationalising is not intentionally inventing a story to fool someone else, but instead is misleading self as well as the listener. Examples: (1) a man buys a new car, having convinced himself that his older car won't make it through the winter. (2) a woman with a closet full of dresses buys a new one because she doesn't have anything to wear.
Somatization	Conflicts are represented by physical symptoms involving parts of the body innervated by the sympathetic and parasympathetic system. Example: a highly competitive and aggressive person, whose life situation requires that such behaviour be restricted, develops hypertension.
Projection	Attribution of undesirable feelings, behaviours, or causes of events to another person such that they become externalised threats. An individual may even disown a part of herself as a form of coping with desires and emotions by allowing them to exist but in another individual. Blaming is an obvious form of projection by which the individual attributes his failure to another person, as when someone blames his work performance failure to his supervisor or even his subordinates.

3.5   Specific immature defences: projection and displacement

Of the several defence mechanisms classified as "immature" (see Table 1), "projection" is considered to have the most detrimental effect on behaviour (Bovey & Hede, 2001). Trevithick (2011) describes projection as falsely attributing an intolerable, unacceptable or unwanted thought, feeling, action or attribute onto someone or something else. Bovey and Hede's (2001) study revealed that "projection" had the strongest association with behavioural intention to resist change compared to the other maladaptive/immature defences. According to Wrightsman and Sanfor (1975), people see in others the motives about which they themselves are anxious. A projecting individual is likely to put blame and responsibility on others rather than accept that their own impulses governed their actions (Bond, 1995). This idea is supported by the findings of Valentine's (1994) research into social workers; she found that the public had projected their fears and anxieties about child abuse onto social workers, which they introjected to the point where they regarded themselves as "bad objects" (Klein, 1958). A "bad object" is defined as an object (internal or external) that the subject hates or fears, and is malevolent (Rycroft, 1988). Although Valentine's findings derived from her own experiences and observations, her application of Kleinian psychoanalytic theory to study institutional defences provides a useful insight into the use of defences in public-sector organisations, which she regarded as being "rife" in this context (Rycroft, 1988).

Although less impactful than projection, "displacement" can be identified when there is a shift and substitute of emotions from an original object or person to another object or person (Reber et al., 2009). This defence is used by individuals to avoid the actual sources of anxiety, guilt, frustration or any form of psychic pain considered too threatening, which then prompts the individual to choose a less threatening source (Rycroft, 1988). This suggests that, in the case of organisational change, it is possible for employees who feel threatened to displace their anxieties to their spouses or service users. Looked at through a psychoanalytic lens, individuals who have in the past experienced what they perceive to be a negative experience of change may displace their

anxiety about this on the organisation's new efforts at change (Trevithick, 2011; Reber et al., 2009). Individuals who make use of these defences have been found to show more resistance to change because psychologically they blur boundaries and distort reality, which is said to trick them into thinking that the cause of their anxiety is external to them (de Board, 1983). More recently, however, evidence suggests that the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and resistance to change may be more complex (Averitt, 2005; Cramer, 2006). Findings suggest that an individual's response to organisational change might be influenced by the core judgements/evaluations they make about their ability to cope in this situation, such as a structurally changing organisation (Judge, 2003).

3.6   Core self-evaluations

The core self-evaluation (CSE) has been studied extensively since its inception in 2003 by Judge. Judge (2003) describes CSE as an individual's perception of their worth and ability to cope, their effectiveness and capability. Viewed as a personality trait, CSE is considered to play a governing role in our temperament, well-being, and perspective about our circumstances (e.g. how satisfied we are about change) (Judge, 2003). Unlike previous measures of self-worth and evaluation, CSE comprises four dimensions: locus of control, self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, and neuroticism, although the CSE instrument actually contains 12 items.

Interest in CSE has grown amongst occupational psychology researchers and practitioners alike (O'Neill, McLarnon, Xiu & Law, 2016); however, to date no known research has considered its potential determining role in attitudinal and behavioural responses to change, and so evidence of this remains sparse. The CSE scale is used to identify and distinguish between two broad types of judgements ("high" or "low") that individuals make about their self-worth, competence, and abilities, which could potentially influence their attitudes and behaviours towards change (Judge, 2003). Individuals who possess high core self-evaluation are thought to have a tendency to feel more positive about changing situations than do individuals who report lower levels of core self-

evaluation, which is hypothesised to elicit greater resistance. However, more research is needed to substantiate this. Nonetheless, despite the paucity of research into the relationship between CSE, resistance and immature defence mechanisms, limited findings suggest direct relationships between individuals' use of immature defence mechanisms, low self-esteem (Kammeyer & Judge, 2009) and external locus of control (Averitt, 2005; Cramer, 2006).

Although research findings indicate that one or more of the CSE dimensions relate to resistant attitude or behaviours, no evidence is available to suggest that Judge's (2010) CSE instrument is an appropriate tool for measuring this. CSE is regarded as the non-clinical equivalent of using four separate scales to measure individual differences. This study therefore makes two claims: firstly, it argues that unconscious processes/defence mechanisms can influence an individual's propensity to resist change; secondly, it argues that the relationship between unconscious motivations and psychological defence mechanisms can be indirectly linked through an individual's core self-evaluation.

This study contributes to the literature in at least two ways. Firstly, by building on previous research (Bovey & Hede, 200; Kets de Vries, 2009), I propose that a better understanding of the effects of unconscious motives can be achieved if researchers explore how defences work, what triggers them, and whether this can be classified. Specifically, I argue that such defences will increase the propensity to resist change. This is an important gap to address because no known study has advanced and tested the proposed relationship between these variables. Secondly, such research has the potential to provide theoretical insights into how relatively immature defences can have consequences for individual responses to organisational change.

3.7   Search strategy

A four-step process was used to search for literature, and included the available sources that assessed the relationship between psychological defence mechanisms and resistance to change. Firstly, the reference list contained in Bovey and Hede's (2001) study was consulted. However, as

the study is now over 15 years old, more recent evidence was required. Computers were used to search relevant electronic databases (EBSCO, PsycINFO, Scopus, ERIC and Digital Dissertations) for 1990 to date using the following keywords/phrases: defence mechanisms, emotions at work, emotions, and resistance to change. Literature research yielded 77 possible studies. Based on a review of abstracts, 10 remained but only one of these studies met the inclusion criteria. Subsequently, a manual search of the *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *Human Relations*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, and *Personnel Psychology* for 1990–2016 (or since the journal was introduced); this search identified only one additional study. The final step involved reviewing the reference section and usage of the "cited by" function of the database Google Scholar for each relevant article; however, no additional studies were identified.

3.8 Evidence for the role of unconscious motivation from cognitive theory, neuroscience, and social psychology

Empirical evidence linking unconscious motives such as defences to resistance to change is sparse. While some attribute this to scholars' reluctance to engage in psychoanalytic-based research owing to issues associated with a lack of rigour, findings from neuroscience and social psychology support claims that the unconscious is a powerful force that can affect decision-making (Clarke, 2003). However, scholars from these alternative disciplines differ in their perspective of "unconscious" processes. They do not see defence mechanisms as similar or representative of unconscious phenomena, despite the similarities between them and their proposed effects on behaviour. For example, cognitive psychologist Kahneman (2014) refers to the unconscious as providing an automatic and fast reaction – without deliberation – to stimuli, compared to that of the conscious mind, which he describes as being controlled and slow. "Automatic" processes are thought to occur autonomously and independently of higher-level top-down factors, such as our

conscious mind. Social psychologists refer to unconscious motivation as a form of "priming", as these subliminal motivations make use of the same mental processes (memory and executive function) to change a person's behaviour. Support for the social psychology view stems from hard evidence from neuroscience.

Following an extensive review of literature from individual and collective change programmes, including data interpreted from task analysis, Clark (2003) found and argued that approximately 70% of adult knowledge is fully automated. Furthermore, following a series of computer-simulated memory experiments that involved participants (from various occupational backgrounds) having to state how they arrived at decision-making, Clarke found evidence to suggest that even experts make significant errors when attempting to describe how they solve problems in their area of expertise. Memory researcher participants were only able to report approximately 30% of the strategies they were using when asked how they designed the memory experiments. This in some way suggests that automatic/unconscious factors can override the role of intelligence and experience on behavioural outcomes. From this, Clarke (2003) argues that adults are largely unaware of the goals they are pursuing and the strategies they are using.

More specifically on the topic of change, Clarke's argument that individuals are often unaware of the factors that influence their decision-making behaviour around change is similar to those of other theorists. Because change involves us having to replace old memories with new ones, when change strategies fail (and resistance sets in) it is due to, Clarke (2003) argues, the interference of automated and hidden behaviours that the individual may wish to change. Overall, the view presented by Clarke is that, in situations that force individuals to change, hidden factors that are logged in memory can automate and direct their response. Koriat, Ma'ayan and Nussinson (2006) also provide compelling evidence to suggest that automated cognitive processing can impair our attributions. For example, we may trick ourselves into thinking that we are aware and understand the cause of the behaviour and that the impact of our intentions is a product of our free will. Koriat et al. (2006) acknowledge that the issue of how much control we have over our

behaviours, and our attribution of this "continues to be a subject of intense debate among cognitive scientists in different disciplines" (p. 66). Carruthers (2009) questions whether we consciously cause our actions or whether they happen *to* us.

Furthermore, Wegner (2002) argues persuasively that humans often believe themselves to be powerful agents of their own will and conscious intention when, in fact, much of our behaviour is automated and under the control of interactions between situational and cognitive factors. His neuro-scientific perspective on this is that neural areas signalling preparation for action do so ahead of signalling intention. In this sense, it would appear that action precedes thought. Moreover, Wegner claims that, since the findings of self-regulation studies of change rely on self-reports for the collection of data, it is questionable whether data accurately reflect change or the cognitive regulatory mechanisms that are thought to govern our responses to change. He argues that our perceptions of self-control may well be reflections of what we imagine we would do in the event of change, as opposed to what we actually do, or how we behave in response to change. Interestingly, though, Wegner (2002) identifies that resistance is likely to be enhanced when individuals are stressed and their workload is excessive. Evidence of this stems from a further study, where Wegner found evidence to suggest that when individuals are cognitively overloaded our iconic system takes over and unconsciously implements the behaviours we had hoped to prevent (2002, p. 34). This suggests that one's perception of an event can trigger an unconscious reaction.

Bargh et al. (2001) attribute much of the debate about there being an "automated will" to the literature concerning skill acquisition, as it has always presented the view that processes are activated by an instigating and conscious act of will. Bargh et al. challenge this on the premise that "goals can be put into motion without requiring conscious choice and instigation" (p. 1015). They support this idea via the use of priming experiments; they claim that, through repeated conscious activation, goals gradually automate. Furthermore, individuals come equipped with the procedural steps and motivational processes that ensure execution and persistence of such goals. Thus, resistance to change may well be a challenge for many individuals to overcome; some suggest that

this depends on the characteristics of the sample. For example, apart from the view that individuals vary significantly, it is also recognised that most of the original ideas about the unconscious derive from studies of abnormal individuals as opposed to average employees at work (Arnaud, 2012).

As previously reported in molecular biological research, little or no conscious thought is required for the unconscious to gain access to the conscious mind (Lipton, 2012). Lipton offers an unorthodox explanation for this, which challenges the old scientific tradition based on Newtonian physics that the body is nothing more than a mechanical device (2012). Lipton argues that there are two separate minds that create what he calls the body's controlling voice: the conscious mind that can think freely and create new ideas; and the subconscious mind, which operates like a "super computer" loaded with pre-programmed behaviours, most of which stem from childhood (Lipton, 2011). The problem with this, Lipton claims, is that we cannot move outside its fixed programmes – the "subconscious" reacts to a situation well before the conscious mind is able to make sense of it and consider an appropriate way to behave. Historically, studies have shown that our brains begin to prepare for action just over a third of a second before we consciously decide to act. Lipton, along with other neuroscientists, therefore argues that most of our decisions, actions, emotions and behaviours depend on the 95% of brain activity that is beyond conscious awareness; only 5% is governed by conscious thought (Lipton, 2011).

3.9   The effect of unconscious motivation on the propensity to resist change: psychoanalytic perspectives

Philosophers as far back as Plato and Montaigne alluded to the existence of an unconscious, which was later brought alive into the research arena by Schelling, leading to it being populated by Sigmund Freud (Lenormand & Rassial, 2014; Kradin, 2014). Freud made a persuasive and extensive argument for the position that people are not fully aware of many causes of their behaviour, particularly those originating in their own unconscious mind (1937). "Unconscious" motivation is central to this theory as well as recognition of its hidden impact on behaviour.

Although many use the terms "unconscious" and "subconscious" interchangeably, Miller (2010) makes a distinction between the two: *subconscious* refers to information that is not conscious but, through use of cues, can be recalled, whereas *unconscious* refers to repressed, primitive or instinctual thoughts that cannot be deliberately controlled or brought to the surface (Pillay & Cardenas, 2015). This suggests that specific facts and changes within the environment, such as the workplace, may elicit an individual and unconscious reaction to change. For example, in the event of organisational change, Arnaud (2012) suggests that employees may unconsciously employ defensive strategies to protect themselves from anxiety associated with the change. He extends this by reasoning that, similar to the body's natural defences against infection and disease (e.g. the immune system and the inflammatory response), the mind's psychological defences protect individuals from anxiety and stress. Defence mechanisms are thought to have a biological basis, as they are automated (unconsciously) when individuals are presented with a stressful situation such as change (Freud, 1937). This notion is supported by Pillay and Cardenas (2015), who regard defences as a psychological reaction that is comparable to the fight or flight response, as they allow us to distance ourselves from a full awareness of unpleasant thoughts, feelings and behaviours.

However, some theorists, such as Holmes (2012), challenge these ideas; after an extensive examination of Freud's concept of "repression", Holmes concludes that there is no positive evidence for this concept. In fact, considering the lack of evidence for many of Freud's concepts, some researchers have proposed alternative perspectives regarding the existence of unconscious mechanisms that operate automatically. These include Kihlstrom's (2002) "cognitive unconscious" and Wilson's (2002) "adaptive unconscious", including the use of alternative terms such as "implicit" and "explicit", which suggest that not all defences are hidden as originally suggested by Freud. Despite these alternative ways of thinking about defences, according to Freud, the contents of the unconscious are repressed (a defensive strategy), as individuals are considered to come predisposed to unconsciously protect themselves from anxiety (Smollen, 2011). Defence mechanisms offer a solution to this, as the unconscious more often expresses itself indirectly than

directly and human behaviour, from trivial to complex, has a "meaning" that stems from the unconscious (Norman, 2010). In this way, Freud perceived unconscious thought as being superior to conscious thought.

Resistance, when viewed through a psychodynamic lens, is considered to be a consequence of defensive responses, and anxiety is, according to psychodynamic theorists, the main factor that initiates the stress response (Norman, 2010). This view, however, has been heavily challenged. Anxiety, as Freud (1909) posits, is "an aversive inner state that people seek to avoid or escape" (p. 562). It represents an irrational fear, or state of unease or apprehension, that in psychoanalysis signals a "stirring in the unconscious" (Trevithick, 2011). Thus, despite Freud's remarkable contribution to our understanding of the unconscious, as mentioned, his studies have been heavily criticised for lacking scientific rigour owing to their reliance on subjective methods alone (Dufresne, 2007). Although Freud did not propose a theory on organisational change, he did explain resistance, which he described as a mental process whereby individuals block specific memories from consciousness (Freud, 1959).

Early empirical studies depicting the impact of unconscious motivation on resistance to change stem from the influential work conducted by Elliott Jaques and Isobel Menzies in 1955. In their study on "sources of resistance to change" they found evidence for the role of anxiety in employee resistance. Specifically, they found evidence to suggest that when individuals became anxious about change they used the social system (organisation) as a source of resistance; even though it had been designed for work purposes, they were defending against "psychotic" anxiety. They concluded that any attempt to change the social system would result in resistance to change because individuals and groups were trying to maintain the current system, thus enabling them to ward off anxiety. However, this finding was inferred by the researchers' observations of participant behaviours such as "withdrawal", which they reasoned to be indicative of a lack of awareness that they were behaving in this way.

A further study by Menzies (1959) found that, when employees were prevented from voicing their opinion about the change, they were more likely to develop an extreme "saboteur" approach to change (Huffington et al., 2008). The term "saboteur response" describes a response to change whereby individuals unconsciously attempt to withdraw their efficiency owing to a change in workplace conditions (Huffington et al., 2008). Such behaviour is represented in psychoanalysis as an attempt to ward off anxiety, since "withdrawal" involves efforts to escape the reality of the presenting change. The participant's behaviours ranged from outward displays of disruption in the discussion groups to passive forms such as non-participation in the consultation process. The researchers also discovered that change led to role conflict and confusion, as the original work role no longer provided them with a source of meaning (Huffington et al., 2008).

Bovey and Hede's (2001) study found a direct link between unconscious motivation and resistance. However, in this study, unconscious motivations are operationalised as defence mechanisms. Bovey and Hede (2001) argue that behavioural resistance to change is the effect of unconscious defence mechanisms, which provoke behaviours to oppose, argue, obstruct and undermine change efforts. Using a sample of 517 employees from nine different organisations undergoing major changes, Bovey et al. found that those who showed behavioural resistance to change used maladaptive defences such as projection, denial, dissociation and isolation of affect, compared with those who used adaptive defensive styles. This study, however, explores defence mechanisms from a three-factor perspective: mature, neurotic and immature, as opposed to the two-factor approach taken by Bovey et al. (maladaptive and adaptive), which might result in different findings. However, it could be argued that "immature defences" can be used synonymously with "maladaptive defences", as both lead to negative behavioural outcomes.

Research conducted by Smollan and Sayers (2009) found hidden emotions to play a role in employee resistance to change. Unlike previous studies, they investigated the relationship between emotions, organisation change and culture. The reflective accounts of participants from various industries in Auckland all disclosed that they had experienced a series of emotions and exhibited

defensive-type behaviours, of which at the time they were not aware. They conclude that organisational change has the potential to trigger an emotional response within individuals that operates at an unconscious level. Nonetheless, in a follow-up study, Smollen (2011) found that it was possible to regulate emotions, suggesting that change outcomes could vary through use of emotional regulation-based interventions. For example, when emotions were acknowledged and treated with respect by organisational leaders, employees became more engaged with the change. According to Smollen, organisations and leaders who behave in this way are symbolic of "affective (organisational) cultures". Affective cultures describe those where employees' values are congruent with those of the organisation, leading to a tendency for employees to react to change more positively. This suggests that both management style and organisational culture have the potential to regulate individual emotions, particularly negative ones that may cause resistance. Perhaps employees become more aware of their emotions if management expresses an interest in their emotions and expends effort to address them.

Krantz (2010), in his paper "Social defences and twenty-first century organizations", argues that in some instances defences help people to manage anxiety. Similar to alternative psychological defence mechanisms, "social defences", the main study variable, operate at an unconscious level; however, they are collectively experienced by members of the organisation as a way to avoid both awareness of anxiety and the experiences that trigger anxiety (Kahn, 2012). For example, the use of rigid operational rules is classified as a social defence because it protects employees from the repercussions of making mistakes. Because organisational change modifies the social defence system, individuals have been found to oppose change because they fear that it will be accompanied by frightening emotional experiences coming to the surface (Krantz, 2010), which is similar to what Menzis (1959) found in her early study. This in turn is what Krantz theorises stimulates resistance to change, particularly in view of technological advancement and knowledge work, which he predicts will lead to an increase in social defences and resistance to change.

Paren's (2015) paper, which discusses some of the hidden factors found to impact employee resistance to organisational change, also claims that too much emphasis is placed on the technical aspects of resistance, which diverts attention away from hidden psychological defences. Like Bovey and Hede (2001), Paren agrees that those who are unconsciously inclined to use maladaptive defences are more likely to resist change. Thus, the applied focus of this paper is to provide recommendations on what leaders can do to reduce resistance to change, namely through them becoming aware of hidden psychological determinants. Paren therefore argues that, if organisations aim to reduce resistance, they will have to introduce interventions that enable employees to reflect on self and identify their perceptions of change and how these might impact their response to it (Paren, 2015).

The immature defence mechanism "projection" and its link to resistance to change

Specific defences, such as immature ones, have been associated with personality disorders (Presniak & Olson, 2013). Personality disorders are classified as a deeply ingrained and maladaptive pattern of behaviour, which causes long-term difficulties in personal relationships or societal functioning (Stirling, 2008; Bonifacio, 2013; Beauregard, 2014). They are linked to immature defence mechanisms as they have been found to serve a self-deceiving purpose, which is the reason for them being associated with a greater resistance to change (Bovey & Hede, 2001). Trivers (2000) posits that the reason for this is that "deception", for example, has deep evolutionary roots and it is a "highly generalised, unconscious strategy" that individuals employ to defend themselves against real or imagined threats. This implies that the defensive benefit of this enables individuals to regain control over themselves and social situations.

Another immature defence mechanism, "projection, is thought to prompt the individual to deal with internal/external stressors by falsely attributing to another their own unacceptable feelings, impulses, or thoughts" (Bovey and Hede, 2001). According to the *Diagnostic Statistical Manual* (DSM IV), projection is considered to be at a disavowal level – it is characterised by keeping unpleasant or unacceptable stressors, impulses, ideas, affects or responsibility out of

awareness with or without a misattribution of these to external causes (DSM IV). Thus, a projecting individual has a tendency to attribute blame to others rather than accept that they themselves are to blame. This helps to explain Bovey and Hede's (2001) finding that "projection" had a stronger association with resistance than any other defence. Although the positive correlation between immature defences and behavioural intention to resist was reported as "modest", the findings still show that projection was strongly associated with resistant behaviour, owing to its self-deceptive characteristics.

Self-deception has evolutionary roots (Trivers, 2000). Over the millennia we have, Trivers claims, learned the ability to deceive ourselves, which through cognition is an automated behaviour. Deception, Trivers argues, is a "highly generalized, unconscious strategy" (p. 22) that becomes active when individuals are confronted with real or imagined threats, such that their sense of control and effectiveness are at stake; through deceiving ourselves we can also deceive "predators" and regain control over social situations. He refers to findings that 94% of professors rank themselves in the top half of their profession and 80% of high school seniors rank themselves as above the average in ability when compared with other seniors (Trivers, 2000). Here, self-deception is seen as a coping strategy to judge oneself in a socially desirable way. Dunning et al. (2004) found that self-deception helps individuals to maintain personal and organisational control in life-threatening situations caused by terminal illness and injury, or imminent organisational failure. All of this suggests that self-deception has the ability to aid striving and may increase longevity.

Much of the research into self-deception, in particular the aspect of it that helps one to better understand how and why defence mechanisms are activated and used, provides support for cognitive dissonance theory (CDT). For example, Festinger (1957), the originator of this theory, explains that people have a bias to seek consonance between their expectations and reality. Individuals will do whatever it takes to achieve what Festinger refers to as "dissonance reduction", which includes self-deception (1957). Some will go as far as distorting reality to ensure consonance. For example, when change is presented to individuals who have a tendency to use

maladaptive/immature defences, their way of coping would be to divert their attention away from it, which is an expression of consonance.

3.10 Components of the propensity to resist change (PtRC) measure

Measuring an individual's "propensity" to resist change defines the probability that the individual will resist change. Furthermore, Oreg (2003) regards his resistance to change scale as a measure of a dispositional inclination to resist change. When looked at in this way, resistance is recognised as a multidimensional attitude comprising at least three individual factors: cognitive, behavioural and emotional. For example, resistance concerns the way we think and reason about the situation, how we respond to change, and the effect that change has on our emotions, which could influence our propensity to resist change. Immature defences have emotional origins, most of which we have no control over, which may result in an individual showing a dispositional inclination to resist change. Resistance, from this perspective, is considered to have stemmed from dispositional factors, an assumption that this study aims to test through the following prediction:

Hypothesis 1: Immature defence mechanisms will be positively related to employees' propensity to resist change.

As per Bovey & Hede's (2001) finding that "projection" is the dominant immature defence, particularly when compared to other immature defences, this study predicts the following:

Hypothesis 2: Among all defences, the defence mechanism "projection" will be the best predictor of the propensity to resist change.

3.11 The effect of immature defence mechanisms on core self-evaluation

Core self-evaluation (CSE) is conceived as an individual's self-perception of their capabilities and ability to control their environment and situation; awareness of this depends on their level of skill and effectiveness to perceive self in a particular situation. Thus, individuals have a tendency to select challenges that are matched to their perceived level of capabilities (Rodgers,

Markland, Selzler, Murray & Wilson, 2014). Because one's perceived competence and ability to cope is made up of both personal and emotional factors such as self-esteem (Harter, 1990), locus of control (Rotter, 1966), self-efficacy (Locke, McClear & Knight, 1996) and neuroticism (Watson, 2000), their level of anxiety (Styvaert, 2011) could influence this. In addition to the above CSE components, Judge, Thoresen, Pucik and Welbourne (1991) linked several other traits to a work-oriented concept of coping with change.

Despite the obvious similarities between Judge's conception of CSE and how it is conceived by this study, there is a major difference in how one of the constructs is understood. According to Judge et al. (2011), CSE is a stable personality trait that can be used to differentiate people from one another, as they are based on fundamental evaluations we make about ourselves and how we relate to our environment. Styvaert (2011) found supporting evidence to suggest that our evaluations remain stable over time. However, more evidence indicates that CSE is malleable and dependent on environmental factors (Johnson, Rosen, Chang & Lin, 2015).

While Judge's original theory recognises the role of past experiences in shaping CSE, there is no effort made to link them to unconscious factors, such as psychological defence mechanisms, which is what this study is proposing. However, this does not mean that unconscious factors do not play a role. In fact, some research findings suggest that the judgements and beliefs we hold about ourselves can indeed be influenced by factors such as cognition, emotion and unconscious thought (Kets de Vries, 2009; Bargh, 2008; Newell, 2014). However, as per the theory behind defence mechanisms, individuals are not always aware of how these processes can influence their actions taken, which may or may not cause one to question the credibility of their proposed impact on behaviour. What has been found, however, is that unconscious factors do interact with individual thoughts and motives (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011). When combined, these factors have the potential to influence the judgements and appraisals that people make concerning their competence and ability to cope in different situations (Marshak, 2007; Bargh et al., 2010), including organisational change.

The function of low and high core self-evaluation

A well-adjusted individual with a high core self-evaluation is considered more likely to hold themselves in positive regard and show signs of behavioural support for change. This is because people who possess high core self-evaluations tend to see the world from a positive standpoint and approach the world in a confident and self-assured manner (Ere, Bono & Thoresen, 2002). Contrary to this, a maladjusted individual will make sense of their world and experiences in a negative way and their use of immature defence mechanisms will support this. Because the threat of change may be real or imagined, how an individual responds to change is subject to their own interpretation – their core self-evaluation. It should be noted, however, that a high CSE does not always lead to positive outcomes (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011). High levels of CSE may cause individuals to ignore negative information, take unwarranted risks or overestimate their abilities (Bovey & Hede, 2001). Nonetheless, while Judge and Bono's (1997) core self-evaluation scale (CSE) has been used to measure an individual's level of adaptation (Judge, 2010), and their ability to deal with transitions such as organisational change, so far no empirical study on CSE has examined it in relation to resistant behaviour, which represents a gap in the literature.

This study therefore argues that those who possess high levels of core self-evaluation are likely to experience lower levels of psychological strain (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge & Scott, 2009) and are less likely to perceive change as a threat, making them less likely to resist change. Put another way, high CSE and a lower propensity to resist change might be related. In part, this is because, according to the theory, high-CSE individuals interpret their environment as if it were a provider of opportunities as opposed to those that consider it full of threats; the latter, according to the literature, is more characteristic of individuals who report lower levels of core self-evaluation (Best & Downey, 2005). Although there is little evidence available to claim that defence mechanisms have the capacity and potential to influence CSE, some support can be inferred from various study findings (Zeigler-Hill, Chadha & Osterman, 2007; Watson, 2000; Bar-Haim, Lamy,

Pergamin, Bakermans-Ktanenburg & Van Ijzendoorn, 2007; Penley & Momaka, 2002), which will be reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Zeigler-Hill, Chadha and Osterman (2007), in their diary study, found support for a relationship between automatic defence styles and self-esteem, which is a sub-scale of CSE; specifically, immature defence styles, such as denial and projection, were found to be associated with greater self-esteem instability. When individuals ward off emotional conflict by suppressing information they are in some way expressing that it is beyond their capabilities and out of their control. This is characteristic of an individual with low CSE. The evidence base for this can be drawn from a diary study, whereby 123 participants recorded their feelings and behaviours in response to organisational change over a period of 14 consecutive days. In line with their predictions, Zeigler-Hill et al. (2007) found that defence styles were in fact associated with different levels of self-esteem; specifically, they found that greater use of maladaptive/immature defences was linked with lower self-esteem. Adaptive/mature defences were linked to higher self-esteem. However, there are some shortfalls associated with the analysis of diary studies, as some studies have found that participants could misinterpret stimuli and may see what they want to see rather than what is there (Balcetis & Dunning, 2006). Furthermore, while diary studies are useful for obtaining participants' experience over time in that they are time-sensitive and the content data-rich, a major disadvantage of this method is it reliance on self-reporting, which is aided by memory. Studies have shown that memory can be flawed and easily influenced by our schema (Bartlett, 1932).

Watson (2000) found that individuals who were low in terms of emotional stability experienced high levels of affective states, which resulted in them having a greater need to protect/defend themselves. Further to this, Watson found that individuals with a high CSE, who are prone to feeling as if they can successfully exert control over their lives and work environments, will report fewer stresses and thus will have a lesser need to protect/defend themselves from change (Judge, 2000). However, Watson's findings were based solely on self-reported data, which carries

with it a multitude of problems that might impact the validity of the conclusions drawn (Austin, Gibson, Deary, McGregor & Dent, 1998). Nonetheless, Bar-Haim, Lamy, Pergamin, BakermasKtanenburg and Van Ijzendoorn's (2007) study supports Watson's work as they found that individuals who are more anxious are more likely to attend to threatening stimuli. Penley and Momaka (2002) also found there to be a link between emotional stability and lower levels of defensive coping (Lamy, 2007). Similarly, a later study by Kammeyer and Judge (2009) also found a relationship between core self-evaluation and coping. Using a similar methodological approach that was based on the collection of self-reported data, Kammeyer and Judge's (2009) diary study, which comprised a sample of 252 participants, found through use of content analysis that individuals with a high CSE reported experiencing fewer stressors, lower strain and less avoidance coping. This suggests that resistance to change might be linked to avoidance coping.

Individuals who demonstrate a greater ability to cope, therefore, are not expected to make use of immature defences, and they are likely to possess high levels of efficacy. Various studies have tested for this effect. Thompson and Gomez (2014) assessed 78 employees to see whether CSE components such as self-esteem and self-efficacy moderate the relationship between workplace stressors and strain. Overall, they found that individuals who were more self-efficacious were more likely to believe that they were able to cope with the demands of a given situation, and were less likely to believe that workplace events (stressors) will threaten or exceed their coping resources. Conversely, individuals with a perception of low self-efficacy were more likely to avoid difficult tasks, believing that they were beyond their capabilities, and were more likely to give up prematurely. Another important finding construed from Thompson and Gomez's study was that the results suggest that self-esteem and self-efficacy result in different outcomes: self-esteem moderated the relationship between role ambiguity and anxiety, whereas self-efficacy moderated the relationship between performance role ambiguity and depression.

In an attempt to differentiate low from high CSE, in terms of their relation to defence mechanisms, Sandy (2011) found that the use of mature defences is honed by an individual's ability

to optimise their success in life and relationships. Besides this, the findings indicate that mature defences lead to feelings of happiness, the formation of rich friendships, and a lower incidence of mental health problems. Additionally, Taylor (1989) also found that normal persons typically adapt illusory defensive attitudes that unrealistically bolster their self-evaluations, increasing their confidence and sense of personal control over events; similar to Sandy's (2011) finding, this enhances their feelings of optimism. These findings suggest that mature defences seem to bolster positive feelings and outcomes to the extent that, if one's positive affect is high, it is likely that one will be more open to change.

Similar to Thompson and Gomez (2014), other studies have found relationships between defence mechanisms and the CSE component of self-esteem (McNicholas, 2014). McNicholas (2014) examined the relationship between gender and self-esteem, to see whether males and females use different defence mechanisms. On discovering that gender had a significant effect, which was concordant with other studies, he found evidence of a relationship between the mature defences of sublimation, humour and suppression and high self-esteem. McNicholas (2014) also found that immature defences such as "projection" and "acting out" were significantly connected with lower self-esteem. These findings are consistent with earlier studies such as that of Hill and Osterman (2001), who found there to be a relationship between higher levels of immature defences and self-esteem instability. Their understanding of this was that immature defences such as projection are powerful enough to influence individuals to attribute their own feelings to another owing to intolerable feelings of painful affects, which can also implicate one's perception of locus of control.

Locus of control is a sub-scale of CSE, which has also been found to link with immature defence mechanisms. Specifically, it measures the extent to which individuals believe they can control events affecting them (Kammeyer & Judge, 2009). Averitt's (2005) study aimed to explore the possible interrelatedness between sense of humour, defence mechanism style and locus of control amongst a sample of 100 student participants; Averitt found a link between external locus of

control and the use of neurotic and immature defences. Those who reported feeling less in control of situations tended to use defences such as projection, acting out and denial. These individuals were also found to lack many mature coping strategies. Mozafari, Ghaderi, Khaledian and Taghva (2014) found a negative relationship between mature defence styles and depression. This suggests that individuals who use mature defences are less likely to find difficulty in coping with situations and therefore less likely to become depressed.

While this evidence supports the prediction that mature defences are related to positive outcomes, it does not suggest that a relationship between immature defences and CSE exists, despite several compelling inferences (Mozafari, Ghaderi, Khaledian & Taghva, 2014; Kammeyer & Judge, 2009). In their study comprising 231 participants, Mozafari et al. (2014) found that there is a significant relationship between students' self-concept and their mature defence style. This relationship was not found amongst those who use immature styles. Besides this, other researchers found that mature defence styles correlate positively with psychological well-being (Vaillant & Vaillant, 1990), improvement of symptom severity (Bond, 2004) and physical and mental health (Heldt, Blaya, Kipper, Salum, Otto & Manfro, 2007), while immature defence mechanisms correlated negatively with mental health (Vaillant, 2000). While mature defences are related to positive outcomes such as career success and job satisfaction (Vaillant & Mukamal, 2001). Zeigler-Hill, Chadha, Osterman (2008) posit that improving defence mechanisms predicts lower levels of depression. Individuals with a positive CSE were found to experience fewer stressors and less strain than individuals with a low CSE (Kammeyer & Judge, 2009). Furthermore, individuals with a high CSE practise less avoidance coping, less emotional-focussed coping and more problem-solving coping than individuals with a low CSE.

The paragraphs above suggest that the type of defence style used will lead to different outcomes, which may impact an individual's appraisal of the situation. Anxiety, as discussed, is what appears to prompt individuals to unconsciously deploy defence mechanisms to protect themselves (Bovey & Hede, 2001). If mature defences are initially deployed then a high core self-

evaluation is to be expected. In line with this, high core self-evaluators are likely to perceive themselves as possessing adequate personal resources to deal with a change, and are therefore likely to show support for it. Conversely, in the event that immature defences are unconsciously deployed, this may lead individuals to doubt their ability to cope with the proposed change, which is representative of low core self-evaluation, demonstrated by the self-perception that one lacks the personal resources to cope with the situation. This study therefore predicts the following:

Hypothesis 3: Immature defence mechanisms are negatively related to core self-evaluation.

Core self-evaluation may be advanced as a possible explanation for the negative relationship between defence mechanisms and resistance to change. This may be grounded in appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), which argues that when individuals encounter situations they evaluate the stakes in that given situation, which results in the "primary appraisal" that the situation is irrelevant, benign-positive or stressful. Stressful appraisals can then take the form of harm/loss (which evokes an anxious response), challenge and/or threat. When individuals appraise the situation as threatening, they will evaluate their resources to cope with the demands of the situation, which represents the "secondary appraisal". Oreg (2003) found that employees resist change when they perceive they are not capable of coping with the increasing amount of work brought about by the change. This suggests therefore that, while high levels of perceived coping resources are beneficial, the perception of insufficient resources has negative consequences for the propensity to resist change.

Because defence mechanisms serve a self-deceiving purpose and they are a "highly generalised unconscious strategy" that individuals employ to defend themselves against real or imagined threats (Trivers, 2000), when individuals feel threatened by change, which some interpret as a personal attack to their well-being, it could negatively impact their self-esteem; besides this, these individuals may feel as if they have no control over how others perceive them. This is also evidenced by the literature, which shows that these constructs are malleable and influenced by circumstances (Carlock, 2013) and can be enhanced through therapeutic interventions (Carmichael,

2015). This perspective challenges years of research studies that have systematically given the impression that self-esteem is fixed. Nonetheless, what appears to be consistent in the literature is the impact of low or high self-esteem, or in this case CSE, on perception and behaviours.

Hypothesis 4: CSE will be negatively associated with propensity to resist change.

Studies have found evidence to suggest that the defence mechanism "humour", which is described as a form of resiliency or "mature" coping approach, facilitates the capacity for adaptation and "bouncing back" in the face of adversity (Windle, 2011, p. 153) and can enhance psychological well-being during times of stress (Windle, 2011; Zautra, Hall & Murray, 2008). Further research has helped to clarify understanding of how humour can act as a buffer of anxiety, by influencing one's cognitive appraisals of the situation. In terms of negative events, Kuiper et al. (1993) found that individuals high on the use of coping humour provided more positive challenge appraisals regarding an upcoming examination than those low on coping humour. More recently, Geisler and Weber (2010) found that the use of humour helped individuals cope more positively with poor performance on a self-threatening task (a bogus intelligence test with many unsolvable items), by increasing both external appraisals for failure on this task and subsequent positive affect levels. Thus, this study recognises the interrelatedness between defences, beliefs and feelings, and how this might impact one's propensity to resist change.

Empirically, some studies have highlighted the link between high core self-evaluation and having a positive outlook in life (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge & Scott, 2009; Best, 2005; Wang, 2015). In their cross-sectional study, Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge and Scott (2009) found that people with a high core self-evaluation had a more positive outlook in life and possessed the competence and capability to perceive control over their lives and situations than those with a low CSE. We therefore assume that, in the work setting, employees with high core self-evaluations will see the positive side of organisational change more easily than will employees with low core self-evaluations. Furthermore, Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2009) found that core self-evaluations are linked to proactive coping in response to stress. Specifically, they found that individuals with high

core self-evaluations possess superior skills to deal with transitions and experience lower levels of psychological strain. In part, this is because they interpret their environment as containing few threats – they are more likely to interpret threats as opportunities.

These findings are consistent with those of Best (2005), who also found that individuals with higher core self-evaluations also perceive fewer obstacles in their work environment. Prior research by Judge, Thoresen, Pucik and Welbourne (1999) showed that employee adjustment to organisational change is facilitated by a positive self-concept. Arguably, a "positive self-concept" is thought to stem from individual characteristics such as having a positive outlook on life, feeling in control and having high levels of self-esteem. This supports Wang's (2015) research, which found that employees who have high levels of core self-evaluation own a strong sense of self-esteem and self-efficacy, and they report to feeling in control of their environment, suggesting an internal locus of control. This suggests that these individuals perceive their cognition, emotion, attitude and behaviour as being controlled by themselves instead of external organisational factors, including change.

Similar to Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2009) and Best (2005), Van den Heuvel et al. (2013) found that high core self-evaluating individuals have the ability to make sense of situations in a positive way as they have the personal resources to reflect on change and link it back to their own personal goals and values, which is what results in them showing less resistance to change. Van den Heuvel et al.'s (2013) study proposes a similar effect of core self-evaluation on the propensity to resist change.

The last few paragraphs suggest that employees whose response to change is governed by mature defences, such as humour and anticipation, may evaluate the situation in a positive manner based on their perceived competence and capability to deal with the proposed change. An individual who has a low core self-evaluation may fail to see change as an opportunity and feel threatened by it because they perceive that it is out of their control, resulting in a lack of confidence and competence to cope, which may result in a higher propensity to resist change. Thus, the

mediator, the core self-evaluation, describes the psychological process that occurs to create the relationship between immature psychological defence mechanisms and propensity to resist change, and as such is the dynamic product of individuals' fundamental beliefs. Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest that mediators explain how external events take on internal psychological significance.

Having explained this indirect pathway of immature defence mechanisms and core self-evaluation on the propensity to resist change, this study proposes that core self-evaluation serves as an underlying mechanism in the relationship between these defence mechanisms and resistance to change, respectively. For this reason, the following is predicted:

Hypothesis 5: Core self-evaluation will mediate the relationship between the use of immature defence mechanisms and the propensity to resist change.

The hypotheses are summarised in the model described in Figure 2:
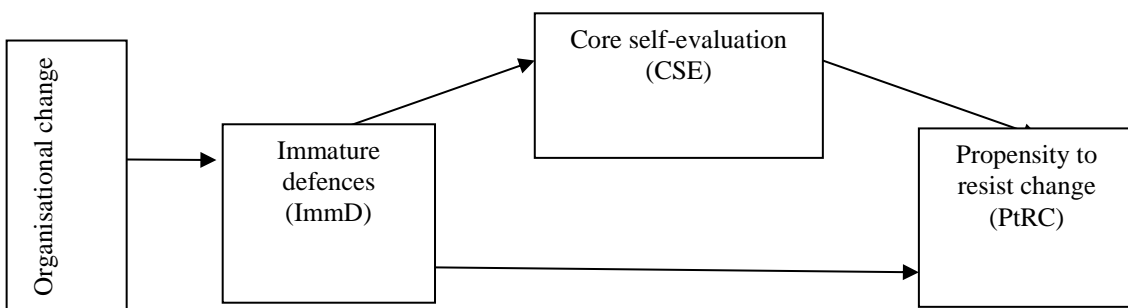
Figure 2. Conceptual framework depicting the relationship between immature defences and the propensity to resist change.

The present study

To investigate the ideas developed above, the present study aims to explore the relationship between immature psychological defence mechanisms and the propensity to resist change through core self-evaluation amongst "relational" workers within the public sector. Besides this, a prediction has been made that the defence mechanism "projection" correlates positively and significantly with the propensity to resist change, compared to the other immature defences. The

next section discusses the methodological approach taken by this study, including the philosophical

foundations on which it is based.

3.12   Method

Philosophical foundations

Collins and Hussey (2009) state that research philosophies include positivism, realism,

interpretivism and pragmatism. Resistance to change is a phenomenon that falls under the realms

of organisational behaviour and occupational psychology (Symon & Cassell, 1998). In particular,

occupational psychology is a single term used to encompass both the individual and organisational

levels of analysis (Arnold, Cooper & Robertson, 1995). A defining factor of occupational

psychology is the role of practice; arguably, this factor can be used to differentiate occupational

psychology from other social sciences, as it is evident that it has an established, identifiable

practitioner community (Bishop, 2007).

As this study concerns employee reactions to change, the changing organisation is viewed as

a constraining force (Durkheim, 1982). A positivist research philosophy was adopted, as I am keen

to explain and predict relationships between immature defence mechanisms, core self-evaluations

and propensity to resist change. Additionally, I am concerned with the facts of these relationships

and not with the meaning and provision for human interest, which is usually associated with

phenomenological philosophy. Thus, this study makes the assumption that the world is external

and objective. Nonetheless, considering that the defence mechanisms, in particular, are experienced

subjectively, it makes the task of measuring them objectively difficult. For example, Hunt (1993)

states that positivists seek the facts or causes of social phenomena, with little regard to the

individuals' subjective state (Hunt, 1993). Hayes (2000) further claims that only behaviours that

can be directly observed and measured count as knowledge, while any other behaviour is seen as

being non-scientific (Hayes, 2000). This issue of measuring hypothetical concepts can be addressed

through a process of operationalisation, such as using a survey approach, which, according to

Carson (2001) and Hudson and Ozanne (1988), is accepted in social science research.

There are several benefits associated with using this approach. From the perspective of reliability, this paradigm focuses on the precision of measurement. Replication is also possible (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The extent to which the research is replicable and the research findings can be repeated is a determining feature of reliability (Yin, 1994), and the reliability of positivistic research is usually high (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). However, this does not mean that a different researcher who replicates this research by following the same procedures and using the same survey would elicit similar findings.

From a validity perspective, a positivist paradigm always has the danger of falling short on measuring what the construct is supposed to measure; however, under a phenomenological paradigm the validity is usually high (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). The validity of a measure concerns the extent to which the findings of a study accurately represent what is really happening in the situation (Hussey &Hussey, 1997). This differs from the objectives of the phenomenological paradigm, which is aimed at capturing the essence of a phenomenon and generating data that are rich in their explanation and analysis (Morgan, 1983). A positivistic paradigm, on the other hand, focuses on the precision of measurement and the ability to repeat the research reliably; therefore, there is always a danger that the validity is low (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). However, this does not mean that researchers working from this perspective are any closer to obtaining the "truth" than are those working from alternative perspectives (Morgan, 1983). As mentioned, Morgan (1983) contends that no single method is epistemologically superior to any other – all are partial and fallible.

Nonetheless, the methods and theories used in this study are frequently used and tested by prominent researchers (e.g. Bovey & Hede, 2001; Oreg, 1995), which suggests that the danger of low validity in this research is confined. Thus, the extent to which the findings of this research are generalisable is higher than in phenomenological research (Morgan, 1989). Generalisability concerns the extent to which conclusions can be made about one thing based on information about

another (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Yin (1994) refers to this as the external validity of a research, which is particularly important in view of the broad sample of respondents used in this study.

Within the positivistic paradigm, a further distinction can be made between cross-sectional studies, experimental studies, longitudinal studies, and surveys (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). This research can be described as cross-sectional as it uses a survey method to investigate, in quantitative form, the types of defence mechanism individuals use to explain relationships between this and core self-evaluation, which is hypothesised to influence propensity to resist organisational change. Surveys are used to capture the attitudes and opinions from a representative sample of participants to make inferences about the whole surveyed population (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). However, still no method is considered robust enough to capture the "truth" of what is really going on (Morgan, 1983). Rather, it is argued that individuals interpret the world differently owing to their "world view" being influenced by their social and cultural contexts (Hughes, 2001; Morgan, 1983). This suggests that people perceive events differently, which is known to influence their responses to questions, such as the contents of the survey used in this study. It also suggests that one's world view can potentially bias the findings, which might be reduced through use of experimental controls; however, this study was not designed to exert such a high level of control over the study variables.

Surveys have very different aims, as well as strengths and weaknesses. Questionnaires are standardised, which can help avoid information inaccuracies or biases. However, because the survey method relies on self-reporting, there is a tendency for respondents to provide what they believe to be socially acceptable answers rather than the "truth" (Bland, 2002), although, as anonymity was guaranteed in the research process, it is likely that any effect of this would be minimal. Besides this, surveys comprehend a large amount of randomly chosen research units that can be used to generate a wide overview of the phenomena and field in question (Verschuren & Doorewaard, 2003). Surveys focus more on width and generalisability rather than on depth and specificity, which fulfils the exploratory nature of this study (Bland, 2002). The measures used in

the study stemmed from key peer-referenced and reputable journals, including the *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. Studies using these scales have reported good validity and reliability (Arnaud, 2012).

Participants

A self-selected sample of 120 participants – 74 males (62%) and 46 females (38%) – from the Greater London area in the United Kingdom participated in the study. The age range of participants was 18–56 years. All were pooled from three different "relational/helping" professional organisations: university, social work and health care. Of the participants, 54% classified themselves as "staff" without any management responsibilities; approximately 46% were managers; 20 participants had a master's degree, 50 had a bachelor's degree, 102 participants had achieved a Level 3 qualification, and 18 had less than a Level 3 qualification. The sample comprised a mix of those working in the public sector, although the majority of the respondents were employed within a university setting (66.3%) across three different schools. Participants from the remaining 33.7% worked within the fields of social care, social work and nursing. A criterion for selection was that all organisations and their members had recently (within the last six months) undergone a second-order change. Second-order change involves creating a new way of seeing things completely, therefore it requires new learning (Levy, 1986). Organisations A and B became known to me because either their company or the individual members had previously expressed an interest in training courses that could aid the development of soft skills; they subscribed to receiving further information about training and research opportunities and therefore consented to direct and indirect parties offering such services.

Measures

All variables were measured using validated scales, which showed good reliabilities. The respondents were instructed to indicate the extent to which they agreed with a series of statements from three different scales: defence mechanisms, core self-evaluation and resistance to change.

Immature psychological defence mechanisms (ImmD) were measured using one aspect of Andrews et al.'s (1993) Defence Style Questionnaire-40 (DSQ-40). Historically, researchers have struggled to measure psychological defence mechanisms and unconscious influences. Andrews et al. (1993), however, is one of the few studies that have succeeded in providing us with an instrument capable of measuring such behaviours. Andrews et al.'s (1993) scale was operationalised as being characteristic of defence mechanisms that arise involuntarily in response to the perceptions of psychic danger and are adopted by the individual to alleviate anxiety (Andrews et al., 1993). The DSQ-40 is made up of 40 items and respondents are asked to rate the extent to which they agree with each item on a nine-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (9). The DSQ-40 has been assessed in terms of its reliability and test-retest correlations range from .48 to .77 (Hayashi, 2004). This variable measures the types of defence mechanism that individuals employ. The instrument measures 20 defence mechanisms, which are categorised into three broad types: (1) "mature", (2) "neurotic" and (3) "immature". The immature defence style consists of the following defences: rationalisation, autistic fantasy, displacement, isolation, dissociation, devaluation, splitting, denial, passive aggression, somatisation, acting out and projection. Two items are used to measure each defence type. The average scores for the two items are used to determine individual defence mechanisms. The average scores for specific ego defence mechanism are then grouped into mature, neurotic and immature categories for the purpose of data analysis. However, only participants' responses to the "immature" defence items were used by this study. Some sample items include "people tend to mistreat me"; "I am sure I get a raw deal from life" (projection); "if my boss bugged me, I might make a mistake in my work or work more

slowly so as to get back at him"; "no matter how much I complain, I never get a satisfactory response" (passive aggressive); "doctors never really understand what is wrong with me"; and "when I'm depressed or anxious, eating makes me feel better" (displacement). The internal consistency coefficient for the immature defence style was adequate ($r = .80$) (Andrews et al., 1993; Bond, 1995). This differs from the relatively low internal consistency coefficients for the mature and neurotic defence styles because they contain fewer items (i.e. eight items each) compared to the immature defence style, which contains 24 items.

Core self-evaluation was measured using Judge et al.'s (2003) CSE scale, which concerns the evaluations that individuals make about themselves. This 12-item scale of responses is provided on a five-point scale from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Five of the items (2, 4, 6, 8 and 12) were reverse scored and Judge et al. (2003) reported reliability coefficients from .81 to .87. Overall, individuals are described as having "high" or "low" core self-evaluations. The greater the calculated score the higher the core self-evaluation. Some sample items include: " I am confident that I get the success I deserve"; "when I try, I generally succeed"; "sometimes I do not feel in control of my work"; and " I am capable of coping with most of my problems". In Lian, Sun, Hanzhong and Peng's (2014) study, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the CSEs of $r = .75$, $p < .001$ was found.

Propensity to resist change was measured using Oreg's (2003) resistance to change scale. The questions are designed to assess individuals' tendencies "to resist or avoid making changes, to devalue change generally, and to find change aversive across diverse contexts and types of change" (Oreg, 2003). The scale comprises 17 items and has achieved cross-national validity (Oreg, Boyazit, Vakola, Archiniega & Barkauswlene, 2008). The scale has four factors: short-term focus ("changing plans seems like a real hassle to me"), cognitive rigidity ("I don't change my mind easily"), routine seeking ("I generally consider changes to be a negative thing") and emotional reaction ("when I am informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit"). However, for this study we retained the composite RTC score to assess the hypothesis. Respondents were asked to rate the

extent to which they agreed with each item on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). This dependent variable measures the intentions of an individual to engage in either supportive or resistant behaviour towards change. Sample items included: "I generally consider changes to be a negative thing"; "whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to change it"; "I sometimes find myself avoiding changes that I know will be good for me"; "once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind"; and "my views are consistent over time". Oreg (2006) found a Cronbach's alpha of .86 for this scale and Arciniega and Maldonado (2011) found a Cronbach's alpha for the full scale of .77. In 2013, Battistelli, Montani and Odoardi found a Cronbach's alpha of .90 for the full scale.

The scales used in this study were subjected to factor analysis and Cronbach's reliability analysis (see the "Preliminary analyses" section on page p. 111). The coefficient for all scales used achieved above the acceptable level of r = .70, p < 0.01 level of significance (Cho & Ki, 2014; Dunn, Baguley & Brunsden, 2013). Missing data were addressed following the rule that SPSS analysis suggests, which is to ascertain whether data are missing due to a random outcome or whether there is a systematic flaw in the data-gathering instrument (Grey, 2014; Oppenheim, 1992). A detailed description of how missing data were dealt with can be found on page 110 under the "Data analysis" section. The full survey, comprising the three measures of DM, CSE and PtRC, can be found in Appendix 5.

Demographic and control variables

A number of variables were controlled for in the current study (Bryman & Hardy, 2009), including gender, age, job level and length of service. With regards to measuring age, respondents were given a series of ordered age categories, and they were also given the option to state their age. Sex was controlled for as research shows that males are more likely to resist change than females (Wittig, 2012). Job level was controlled for as it is believed to be related to one's propensity to resist change (Wittig, 2012). Job level was measured on a scale ranging from 1 (administration) to

5 (executive/senior leader). Length of service was also controlled for and measured, as research indicates that the propensity to resist change is dependent on the length of time that an individual has been employed in their current role (Wittig, 2012).

Procedures

Survey design

Considering the variables used in this study – immature psychological defences, core self-evaluation, and resistance to change – some may argue that they are difficult to measure, particularly where precision, objectivity and rigour are concerned. However, three relevant standardised scales with reported levels of good reliability and validity were used. Self-reported accounts were relied upon on the premise that, despite being subjective, they are still known to produce reliable and valid data (Coolican, 2007). These factors are what made it possible to study these variables (Coolican, 2007).

Web-based surveys were developed using SurveyMonkey. A pilot study was used on 15 respondents from the relational professions, namely education and social work. The purpose of this preliminary exercise was to collect respondents' feedback on the face validity of the survey. Taking this approach meant that, ahead of publishing the survey online, participants' perspective regarding the length of time taken to complete the survey, readability, clarity and length were recorded and evaluated. Following this phase of the survey development, a few minor amendments were made, which included increasing the font size in specific areas and changing the font style. Of the 120 completed and administered questionnaires, two were not usable.

Following the pilot phase of the study, the survey was readvertised on a business and HR consulting website. Once participants had clicked on the study link, an introduction to the survey would appear. As well as providing background information about the purpose and nature of the study, it also included an informed consent form, which included the prospective completion time,

instructions and a reminder of participants' right to withdraw. Participants were also reminded of the fact that there were no right or wrong answers.

The survey was divided into six parts. Part 1, as stated above, offered an introduction to the study, of which details are provided above; Part 2 contained the defence mechanisms questionnaire; Part 3 core self-evaluation; and Part 4 the resistance to change measure. Part 5 was used to collect demographic information relating to age, gender and employment type. Part 6 provided a short statement thanking participants for their involvement in the study.

Data collection

Access to the survey was made available online, via a hyperlink on a business management and training consulting website, using SurveyMonkey. All respondents completed the survey using this medium, as it was the only source of data collection. Ahead of data collection, a series of ethical considerations were made and addressed (BPS, 2009). Effort was made to ensure that the study's procedures adhered to the BPS code of ethics, along with the university's procedures. This entailed a detailed evaluation of any potential risks. Some of the key issues considered were to ensure informed consent, social sensitivity, confidentiality, anonymity and most importantly the opportunity to withdraw. Participants were well informed about what participation would involve, including why the research was being conducted and the potential contribution it would make to management theory and practice (see Appendices 1–4). There was no deception involved and if participants were keen to participate after reading the informed consent form via the SurveyMonkey medium they could simply "click" to continue. All participants were contacted and informed about the research proceedings. Consent was obtained from the institution and individual participants.

The informed consent form was presented to participants at two points: in the original email sent to participants and, as mentioned above, on the front page of the SurveyMonkey interface. Although demographic information about participants was collected, there was no requirement for participants to provide personal details such as their name. However, it was possible to identify

participants by their IP addresses, which became visible after the data set had been downloaded to

Excel. To address this, action was taken to delete the first column of the Excel spreadsheet, which

is where this information was stored. If participants had any queries or concerns they were

provided with an email address to contact me; besides this, they were provided with the email

addresses of the supervision team. Contact details for the British Psychological Society (BPS) were

also provided so they could read up on their rights as a participant.

Two organisations expressed an interest in their staff participating in the survey. Following

this, I sent out detailed information about the study, which was presented as an "introductory letter"

and an "informed consent form" (see Appendix 2). In addition to this, the electronic link to the

survey was provided, as it was agreed that an introduction to the study and details on how to partake

in it would be cascaded to employees via senior managers from the organisations' learning and

development departments.

Both client organisations were asked whether they would be willing to partake in a research

study to explore the psychological factors that might influence resistant behaviours towards

organisational change. A full explanation was given as to what participation would involve,

including them having to complete a survey, which comprised three different measures, and

answering a few short demographic-based questions. In addition to this, participants were informed

that all data would be treated confidentially. Although there was no reward for completing the

survey, respondents could request to receive a copy of the final report.

Research setting

Data were collected from relational/helping professionals from two public-sector

organisations in London, UK. One of the organisations was a large university (comprising three

schools) based in the capital, London; the other was a social services department, which provides

care and independent living support services to children, young people and vulnerable adults. As

part of the selection process, discussions were held with senior management to identify whether

resistant behaviour in relation to change is a behaviour they would like to tackle in their departments. Participating departmental/school heads were keen to explore new ways for identifying, at an individual level, factors that could have led to high resistance to organisational change amongst employees from their departments. By including different organisations, this study somewhat mitigates restrictions regarding the observed relationships among variables. This is a problem synonymous with research limited to one organisational setting and/or industry (Rousseau & Fried, 2001).

Relational/helping professionals

The industry of focus in this study is the public sector, namely relational professionals. The relational professional environment has been described as one that nurtures the growth of or addresses the problems of a person's physical, psychological, intellectual, emotional or spiritual well-being, such as medicine, nursing, psychotherapy, psychological counselling, social work, education, life coaching and ministry. According to Johnson (2008), relational professions have similar environmental characteristics and role responsibilities, e.g. employees' work roles/tasks involve having to care for others' interests and build relationships with service users (Davies, 2008). Arguably, although relational/helping professions have a similar mission to help others to do better in life, there are many differences in the types of service their professions provide to users.

These types of profession are often faced with change and, according to some, they oppose it more than do their counterparts who work in the private sector (Coram & Burnes, 2001). Besides this, large public-sector bodies tend to outsource their change capability and many rely on external consultants to manage the change process. This generates a number of issues and concerns amongst employees, as many perceive that change is being done "to" them by external agents rather than being managed in-house; this can lead to a natural response of resistance, which can slow down the change process (Jenkins, 2015).

Resistance to change in public-sector organisations is one of the biggest barriers faced when implementing change (Pomazalová, 2012). In particular, change in higher education is generally difficult, both for individuals and for institutions. Pomazalová (2012) argues that academics are highly likely to resist change that puts them into new situations where their old skill sets may not suffice – where they may feel "deskilled" by the new situation. Some of the changes that face such professionals are initiatives that focus on service delivery from the perspective of a business model, which some argue differs from orthodox models of care and education – service users (patients/students) are referred to as paying customers (Jenkins, 2015). This generic approach represents not only a shift in focus from their previous ways of working but also indicates that changes can conflict with and influence employees' understanding of what the change represents to them. One's thoughts about the change may be deeply entrenched and may also encompass dispositional and hidden motives that neither the individual nor the organisation is aware of. Thus, the relational/helping profession contexts can be seen to be an ideal setting to test the theoretical model of the role of immature defences in the propensity to resist change, as developed in the present study.

Data analysis

Missing data analysis

One of the common problems associated with the analysis of survey responses is that of missing data (Newman, 2009). Despite efforts taken to ensure that non-response was kept to a minimum, two participants did not answer all the questions for unknown reasons. There are a few approaches that can be followed to deal with missing data, such as listwise deletion, pairwise deletion and mean substitution, although Oppenheim (1992) suggests that the best approach is to ensure that non-response is kept to a minimum. The method used in this study was listwise deletion because there was more than one variable involved, and this process would delete all cases that contained missing data; therefore, cases were only retained if they had full data on all of the

variables listed in the variables box for that case (Grey, 2014). SPSS (Version 23) missing value

analysis (MVA) was used to determine this. Although this method can lead to a substantial

reduction in sample size and statistical power, it was appropriate considering the circumstance

(Graham, 2009). For example, a total of 120 relational/helping professionals responded to the

employee survey; however, two respondents were excluded from this sample because a significant

amount of information was missing from their surveys. Removing full cases in the event that some

values are missing can be seen as a disadvantage because some participants may have answered

most of the survey questions (Pugh & Enders, 2004). However, the disadvantage is not knowing

why it was that participants did not fully complete the survey.

An alternative approach to addressing missing data, such as pairwise deletion analysis, uses

all available data to assess the relationship between variables and thus retains the most cases

possible (Graham, 2009; Grey, 2014). However, this method is limited as the relationships between

variables are estimated based on different sample sizes, while a single sample size is used to

estimate standard errors (Newman, 2009). This results in underestimation of power for some

parameters and overestimation of power for others (Newman, 2009). Besides, in this case the data

reported as missing were not required, which is a prerequisite for using this method (Grey, 2009).

Another option available was to replace the missing variables with a mean score for that variable;

however, as Pallant (2010) warns, this option can severely distort the results of the analysis.

Data analysis strategy

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when variables are too highly correlated with each other, which can

threaten the validity and therefore the conclusions drawn from the findings (Field, 2009). Any

value exceeding $r = .75$, $p < 0.01$ is believed to reflect a problem of multicollinearity (Jose, 2013).

In the present study, observation of the Cronbach's alpha shows that they do not exceed the stated

value (see Table 2 for the correlation matrix).

Preliminary analyses

Ahead of testing the hypothesis, an initial data screening process was implemented for the purpose of examining outliers. No outliers were found. Following this, a check was made to ascertain the reliability of the questionnaires. This is a crucial step in survey research, particularly in studies that use scales to measure personality, characteristics, attitudes and beliefs (Pallant, 2001). An assessment of the reliability of each scale was conducted to check for internal consistency, which is the degree to which the items that make up the scale measure the same construct (Pallant, 2001). Prior to this, it was important to make sure that the negatively worded items were reversed. The resistance to change scale comprised two negatively worded items, the core self-evaluation scale contained six items, and there were no reverse items for the Defence Style Questionnaire because, as Andrews et al. (1993) state, "it is uncomplicated, as all factors scores are simply the average of the defence scores contributing to that factor" (p. 149). Then, principle component analysis (PCA) was applied to assess whether some of the variables are measuring the same construct; this complemented, with reliability analysis, to the scales. For example, the reliability analysis of the 12 items measuring the variable core self-evaluation showed that most items appeared to be worthy of retention, resulting in a decrease in the alpha if deleted. The one exception to this was item 3 (CSE3), "when I try, I generally succeed", which would increase the alpha to $\alpha = 0.83$. As such, this item was removed. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) value, which measures sampling adequacy and indicates the proportion of variance amongst the variable, was used to assess the suitability of CSE data for factor analysis, which was .828, exceeding the recommended value of .600 (Pallant, 2001). The KMO value for resistance to change was .860; the KMO for the Defence Style Questionnaire was .908.

Inferential analysis

To measure the association between the study variables, and quantify the strength and direction of these relationships, a set of Pearson's correlations (r) was selected over a Spearman's

rank correlation owing to its concern with measuring the linear relationships between the normally distributed study variables, which range from -1 to 1 (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The Cronbach alpha score was used to determine the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept or construct. Following this, hierarchical multiple regressions were employed to test the relationships between the independent variable, the mediator and the dependent variable.

To test the mediation hypotheses, Baron and Kenny's (1986) four-step approach was adopted. In the first step, the dependent variable (propensity to resist organisational change) is regressed on the independent variable (immature psychological defences). This initial step is used to determine whether a significant relationship exists between the predictor and outcome variable. The second step tests whether the independent variable is significantly related to the mediator variable (core self-evaluation). Thus, in this step, the mediator variable is treated as the outcome variable in the regression equation. Third, an evaluation is made to see whether the mediator is related to the outcome variable. While many have questioned the necessity of achieving Step 1, if Steps 2 and 3 are not met one cannot proceed with mediation analysis. The final fourth step tests for full mediation, which involves regressing the outcome variable (Y) on both the independent (X) and the mediator (M). Full mediation occurs when the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable is not significant when the moderator variable is introduced into the model. Partial mediation is found when the relationship between the independent and dependent variable is statistically reduced, although the relationship remains significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, following the steps and conditions of mediation analysis, is not sufficient to conclude that mediation has occurred. A Sobel test is required to assess the significance of the mediation.

3.13   Results

Sample and data description

Table 2 shows the mean, standard deviation, and the correlations between the key variables measured. Bivariate relationships were examined to assess the extent to which the three study variables were related, as this forms the criteria to conduct meditational analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986). To test for the above, Pearson's product moment correlation test via SPSS was used, although alone it cannot determine causality (Lazarsfeld, 1955). It can be used as a preliminary analysis ahead of completing a more complex analysis such as regression or mediation, to ensure that it fulfils the assumptions of the next test. In this study, bivariate analysis was conducted to see whether the conditions were met in order to conduct a desired meditational analysis (Babbie, 2009). Doing this would enable one to assess the relationship between variables X (immature defence mechanisms), M (core self-evaluation) and Y (propensity to resist change).

Table 2

Means, standard deviation and bivariate correlations

	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tenure	2.67	0.74						
2. PtRC	54.6	10.8	.098					
3. ImmD	116.5	34.55	.001	.581**				
4. CSE	37.8	7.01	.014	-.657**	-692**			
5. Projection	4.28	2.42	-.050	.346**	.777**	-.541**		
6. Displacement	3.51	1.73	.069*	.627**	.497**	-.379**	.238**	

$**p < 0.01$

Overall, all the main variables in the model correlate significantly and in the hypothesised direction. The internal consistency of the study variables was acceptable (coefficients ≥ 0.60). Consistent with previous study findings (e.g. Bovey & Hede, 2001), and as predicted by this study, Hypothesis 1 was supported and accepted as immature defence mechanisms (ImmD) correlated with propensity to resist change ($r = .581$, $p < 0.00$). The propensity to resist change (PtRC) also has a positive and significant

relationship with the defence mechanisms projection with ($r = .346$, $p < .0.00$) and ($r = .627$, $p < .0.00$).

Hypothesis 2 predicted that, of the 12 measures of immature defences, "projection" (DSQ 1) would

correlate the highest with propensity to resist change. This finding was not supported by the analysis.

The defence mechanism "Displacement" correlated the highest with resistance to change. Of the 12

measure of immature defences, "Projection" came seventh, a strong predictor of propensity to resist

change. Hypothesis 3, which predicted that immature defence mechanisms (ImmD) would correlate

negatively with core self-evaluation (CSE), was supported ($r = -692**$, $p < .0.00$). Hypothesis 4 was

supported as the propensity to resist change (PtRC) correlated negatively and significantly with core

self-evaluation ($r = -.657$, $p < .0.00$), which suggests that high levels of core self-evaluation are related

to a lower propensity to resist change. Although not relevant for meeting the meditational analysis, no

significant relationship was observed between tenure and any of the key study variables. Overall,

however, the findings indicate relationships between the study variables.

Four-step regression analysis of mediation

To test the mediation hypotheses, Baron and colleagues' (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Judd &

Kenny, 1981; Kenny et al., 1998) four-step model was adopted for this study. According to

MacKinnon and Fritz (2007), a sample size of approximately 74 is required to detect a mediation

effect when the path for the X to M relation and the M to Y relation is medium. This model is also

the most popular for analysing mediation using a causal steps procedure (Fairchild & MacKinnon,

2009; Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007; Hayes, 2009; Kenny, 2008). Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest

that the coefficients for these relationships (full or partial mediation) can be estimated through

separate simultaneous regression analyses. As recommended by Baron & Kenny (1986), three

predictions were made about the relationships within the model: (a) immature defences should be

significantly associated with resistance to change; (b) immature defences should be significantly

correlated with core self-evaluation; and (c) immature defence mechanisms should correlate less

significantly with resistance to change when the effect of core self-evaluation is controlled. The

correlations shown in Table 2 were used to determine whether Steps 1 and 2 of the procedure had

been met.

The multiple regression model with both predictors produced $R^2 = .463$, $F(2, 115) = 49.55$, $p <$

.001. Multiple regression analysis is used to identify the influence of more than one dependent variable

on the dependent variable (Matiya, Wakabayashi & Takenouchi, 2005). In Step 1 of the mediation

model, the regression of propensity to resist change inventory total scores (PtRC) on immature defence

mechanisms sub-scale scores (ImmD), ignoring the mediator, was significant: $b = -0.18$, $t(116) = -7.69$, p

$= .001$. Step 2 showed that the regression of the propensity to resist change (PtRC) scores on the

mediator, core self-evaluation scores (CSE), was also significant: $b = -0.122$, $t(116) = -10.07$, $p = .001$.

Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (CSE), controlling for the ImmD scores, was

significant: $b = -.081$, $t(115) = -4.923$, $p = .001$. Step 4 of the analysis revealed that, controlling for the

mediator (CSE), ImmD scores were still a significant predictor of PtRC scores: $b = -0.083$, $t(115) = -$

2.814, $p = .005$ (see Table 3). The results of the regression indicated the two predictors explained 46% of

the variance. Appendix 5eE details the standardised regression coefficients of the model used to

separately test Steps 3 and 4 for propensity to resist change. Model 1 as depicted in Table 4, shows that

immature defence mechanisms is a positive and significant predictor of resistance to change when

controlling for core self-evaluation, which is in itself a significant predictor of resistance to change.

Table 3

Regression model used for identifying the mediation path from immature defence mechanisms to
resistance to change through core self-evaluation: Standardised regression coefficients (beta), their
t-values (t), and variance explained by explained by the model (Rsquare and adjusted Rsquare)

Model	Dependent Variable	Predictors	Beta	t	Rsquare	adjusted Rsquare
1	Propensity to resist change	Immature Defences	.242	2.56		
		Core Self-Evaluation	.490	5.18		
					46%	45%

Sobel test of mediation

Despite the usefulness of Baron and Kenny's (1986) four-step model, a major problem with the causal steps approach, as Baron and Kenny recognise, is that there is no statistical test of the strength of the indirect effect. To ameliorate this problem, Baron and Kenny recommend the use of the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) or what MacKinnon and Fairchild (2009) refer to as a product of coefficient strategy to test the significance of an indirect effect (path c'). Because this study aimed to identify the statistical strength of the mediator, a Sobel test was employed to conduct data analysis using Hayes's (2012) PROCESS macro. The mediator is said to be "distal" if the standardised path b is greater than the standardised path a' (Hole & Kenny, 1999). This study satisfied only the first three steps of Baron and Kenny's procedure, therefore partial mediation was observed in the data. A partial mediation effect implies that the independent variable has both direct and indirect effects on the dependent variable. In this study, the direct effect between immature defence mechanisms and the propensity to resist change was mediated, as the indirect effect was transmitted through core self-evaluation. Figure 3 shows the standardised path coefficients for the partial mediation model of propensity to resist change where Baron and Kenny's (1986) Steps 1–3 have been satisfied. The effect of immature defence mechanisms on resistance to change controlling for core self-evaluation or path c' is equal to 0.122 (p = 0.001), with a 95% confidence interval of 0.25–0.146. In line with the requirements of Step 3, it was found that core self-evaluation acted as a partial mediator of the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and resistance to change (see Figure 3 below). The total effect of immature defence mechanisms on the propensity to resist change (path c) was compared to the direct effect of immature defence mechanisms on that approach to resistance to change when the mediator, core self-evaluation, was controlled (path c'). For resistance to change, the direct effect (path c') was smaller than the total effect (path c), whilst it remained significant and of the hypothesised sign. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is fully supported as it was found that core self-evaluation partially mediated the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and propensity to resist change ($z = 7.69$, $p = .001$). The results of the four Baron and Kenny (1986) steps are summarised in Appendix 5F.
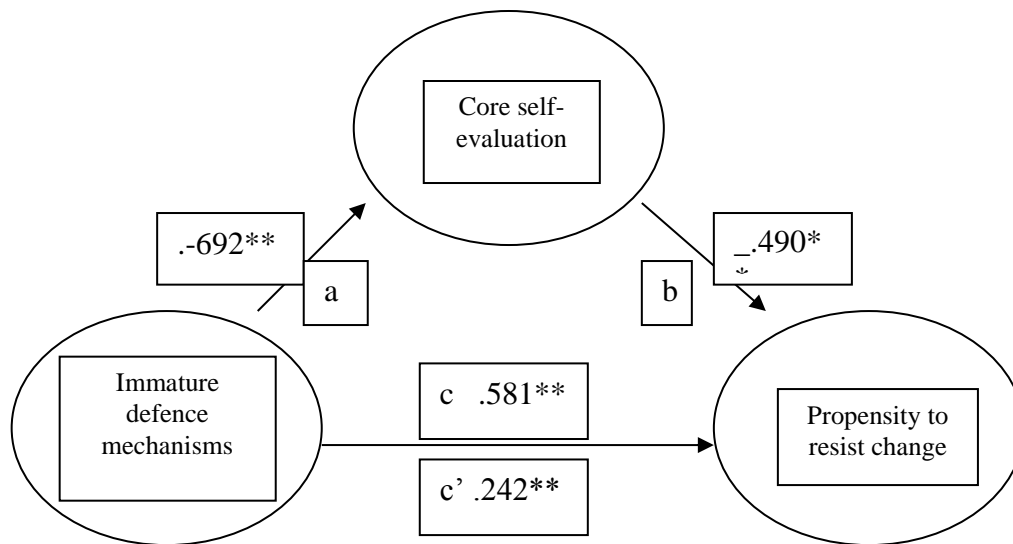
Figure 3. Regression path coefficients indicating the strength of the mediating role of core self-evaluation in the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and each resistance to change.

Post hoc analysis of covariates

      To rule out the likelihood that X, M and Y are spuriousness and epiphenomenally associated, variable X was experientially manipulated. This reduced the threat of causal inference regarding the interpretation of the association between X and M. Only one of the three DSQ-40 sub-scales, "immature defence mechanisms" was used to assess X's relationship with the M and Y variables. The composite measure "Defence Style Questionnaire – 40" (DSQ-40) comprised two other scales: mature defences and neurotic defences. I decided to ascertain whether there were any additional relationships between these sub-scales and the proposed mediator and outcome variables. I re-ran the mediation analysis; however, this time I statistically controlled for "mature defences" and "neurotic defences". Using Hayes's (2009) PROCESS macro, I entered all three sub-scales of the DSQ-40 into the model along with the mediator variable "core self-evaluation" and the outcome variable "propensity to resist change". The findings of this covariate analysis revealed that all three defences predicted core self-evaluation, however immature and neurotic defences were negatively related to CSE whereas mature defences were positively related to CSE. This suggests that, as immature and neurotic defences increase, CSE decreases. The results from this analysis are in the

expected direction. Immature defences correlated negatively with core self-evaluation, and mature defences correlated positively with core self-evaluation. A further finding revealed by the post hoc analysis is that only immature defence mechanisms (ImmD) were a significant predictor of propensity to resist change (PtRC). Neurotic and mature defences did not predict propensity to resist change.

Lastly, a prediction was made that a specific immature defence mechanism, "projection", would have the strongest association with PtRC when compared with the other defences. This prediction was made on the basis of Bovey and Hede's (2001) study. Unexpectedly, the defence mechanism "displacement" had the strongest correlation with PtRC.

Power analysis in the present study

A post hoc power analysis was conducted to determine the statistical power achieved by the sample size (n = 118). Statistical power defines the likelihood that a false null hypothesis will be rejected (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Also, it is the probability that a study will identify an effect if one exists. If statistical power is high, the probability of making a Type II error, or drawing conclusions that there is no effect at all when, in fact, there is one, is reduced. A Type II error occurs when one fails to detect a relationship (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). On the contrary, low statistical power increases the probability of detecting relationships when they do not exist (Type 1). Statistical power is affected chiefly by the size of the effect and the size used to detect it. Effect size defines the estimated impact an explanatory variable has on an outcome variable (Murphy & Myors, 2004). According to Cohen's (1992) convention, small, medium and large effect sizes are n2 = 0.02, n2 + 0.15, and n2 + 0.35. Thus, power is said to increase as an effect size increases, a Type II error probability of detecting relationships when none exists. Bigger effects are easier to detect than smaller effects, while large samples offer greater test sensitivity than small samples. The G*Power 3.1.3 software was used to conduct the analysis (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner & Lang, 2009; O'Keefe, 2007). There were two predictors in the study (one main moderator and

one predictor variable). The alpha level was set at 0.05. The results from the analysis demonstrate that the study's sample size achieved sufficient power to detect medium and large effect sizes (see Table 3 below).

Table 4

F tests – linear multiple regressions: Fixed model, single regression coefficient

Analysis:	Post hoc: Compute achieved power		
Input:	Tail (s)	=	One
	Effect size f^2	=	1
	α err prob	=	0.05
	Total sample size	=	118
	Number of predictors	=	2
Output:	Noncentrality parameter δ	=	16.050000
	Critical t	=	1.6582118
	Df	=	115
	Power (1-β err prob)	=	0.9518556

3.14   Discussion

Building on the resistance to change literature, this study investigated the relationships between immature psychological defence mechanisms, core self-evaluation and one's propensity to resist change. It proposed and tested a model in which participants' immature defence mechanisms were found to predict their propensity to resist change, and measured the extent to which core self-evaluation mediates these relationships. In this section, a focus will be first placed on discussing the relationship between these three variables. Besides this, the research hypothesised that the immature defence mechanism "projection" would predict high resistance to change. This

discussion will then lead into how this study's findings may contribute to theory and translate into the practitioner work of occupational psychologists. Finally, the limitations of the study will be presented along with implications for future research.

Major findings of the study and interpretation

The general findings of this study suggest that core self-evaluation partially mediates the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and the propensity to resist change. Furthermore, as predicted, a positive relationship between immature defence mechanisms and resistance to change was found. The more defensively employees behaved, the greater was their propensity to resist organisational change. However, the immature defence mechanism "projection" did not correlate the highest with resistance to change, compared to the other immature defence mechanisms, as Bovey and Hede's earlier study found (2001). Rather, the defence mechanism "displacement" correlated the highest with resistance to change. As predicted, core self-evaluation correlated negatively with the propensity to resist change. The findings suggest therefore that the effect of immature defence mechanisms (IV) on resistance to change (DV) is mediated by an individual's core self-evaluation. Thus, employees who use immature defences as a means to resist organisational change do so because of the core values they hold about themselves and their perception of their ability to exert control over situations, particularly change.

Contributions to theory and research

This study is the first to empirically and simultaneously examine the relationship between the three variables of immature defence mechanisms, core self-evaluation and propensity to resist change. The findings of this study make an epistemological contribution to the study of the role played by hidden psychological defences in organisational behaviours. Because a vast majority of organisational change is managed from a technical viewpoint, any research that recognises the human elements, particularly the psychological ones that have the potential to influence decision-

making and behavioural outcomes, and how they might influence the success or failure of change (Arendt, Landis & Meister, 1995), is considered useful. There is a bias for management to focus on the technical side of change, perhaps because the outcomes of this impact can be quantified and calculations of profitability concerning rationalising resources can be achieved (Huston, 1992). However, the findings from this study indicate that human factors such as psychological defence mechanisms have the potential to influence employees' propensity to resist change, which this study has shown can be captured and measured empirically. However, because psychological behaviours have a range of causes, it is often unrealistic to expect that a single mediator such as CSE can fully explain the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and propensity to resist change (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Furthermore, evidence was found to suggest that immature defence mechanisms co-vary with resistance to change, which provides support for what Bovey et al.'s (2001) earlier study found. This finding is remarkable considering that the aforementioned study was conducted over 16 years ago. This study provides an updated and fresh insight into this relationship and how it works in organisations. However, as mentioned, this study did not find evidence to support Bovey and Hede's (2001) claim that a specific immature defence mechanism – "projection" – has the strongest association with resistance to change. Although employees who reported higher than the mean average for "projection" did have a higher propensity to resist change than those who reported a high use of mature defence mechanisms such as "humour".

Unexpectedly, the defence mechanism "displacement" correlated most with resistance to change, as opposed to "projection". Displacement occurs when individuals shift their impulses to a more acceptable or less threatening target (Arendt, Landis & Meister, 1995; Verschuren & Doorewaard, 2003). It is the transfer of negative emotions from one personality to an unrelated person or "thing", which in this case could be the organisational change. The process involved, which concerns "shifting blame to other(s) or thing(s)", can present a challenge depending on the size and structure of the organisation. For example, one could argue that in small, private

organisations the manager (who is essentially responsible for the change and the way it is managed) can still be identified by name. However, in larger, public-sector organisations it can be difficult to identify one single individual who is responsible for the change and the handling of it. This somewhat explains a major difference between the design of this study and that of Bovey and Hede's (2001), whose participants were pooled from a private-sector organisation, compared to this study's participants, who were recruited from large public-sector organisations. Alternatively, this finding might be explained from the perspective that Bovey and Hede's study measured "actual" resistance to change, as opposed to the current study, which measured the propensity to resist change.

Recognising the importance and role played by hidden defence mechanisms in employee resistance to change can aid researchers to develop a more profound comprehension by taking into account the effects of emotions and unconscious processes, namely those of emotions and unconscious motivations. This study found evidence to suggest that the defence mechanisms employees deploy during change are governed by emotions and unconscious motivations, to the extent that they co-vary with employees' propensity to resist change. This provides evidence to support Smollen and Sayers's (2009) findings that, when organisations factor into their plans the emotional impact that the change might have on employees, through various means, employees are more likely to feel supported and therefore are less likely to behave in a resistant way. The evidence found for defence mechanisms contributes additional support for Lipton's (2011) claim that the unconscious prompts action well before the conscious mind can make sense of it. Thus, similar to Koriat, Ma'ayan and Nussinson's (2006) findings, defensive behaviour is governed by automatic cognitive processing, which individuals have little control over. Trivers's (2000) anthropological take on this is that, when the reality of a situation is difficult to contend with, individuals will react in ways so as to defend themselves. Organisations would benefit from being able to distinguish between the different types of defence used by employees in the workplace. Doing so not only increases the explanatory power of organisation and management studies'

comprehensive plan for approaching change; it is also sensitive to individual differences in one's reaction to it also (Fotaki, Long & Schwartz, 2012).

The findings from this study contribute to existing theory and research into CSE. As mentioned, to date no known research has indicated the relationship between core self-evaluation and resistance to change, nor have any comments been made about how immature defence mechanisms might influence this relationship. Despite CSE being a fairly new construct, it has become a popular choice amongst researchers who are keen to understand more about how individuals evaluate their competence and ability to exert control over that with which they are faced. CSE correlated negatively and significantly with PtRC, suggesting that those with high core self-evaluations are less likely to resist change than those with low core self-evaluations. This makes an interesting contribution to change management research. Low-CSE individuals' negative appraisal of their ability to cope and control the changing situation seemed to increase their likelihood to resist change. However, this study did not measure RTC directly; only the propensity to resist change was taken into account.

Theoretical implications

The findings from the analysis respond to the study's questions and help to achieve its goal, which was to identify whether core self-evaluation mediates the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and resistance to change. These findings have several significant implications for change management theory and research.

First, the empirical results presented in this paper imply the need for increased attention on core self-evaluation, particularly in terms of its impact on the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and resistance to change. However, owing to the paucity of theory and empirical research into the role of CSE, it is unclear as to whether the findings from future studies will confirm or refute the findings of this research because CSE in general is limited by theory. It is therefore not yet clear to what extent this theory holds when tested in a different context with a

larger sample size. Nonetheless, efforts to aid understanding of how CSE impacts the relationship between ImmD and PtRC are only beginning to emerge. The present study can be considered the only study that is beginning to explore this issue. The contribution of this study to theory is to widen and deepen understanding of organisational conduct rather than controlling variables or simple predictability (Polkinghome, 1988).

Second, the findings from this study are based on the premise that a link between emotions and hidden immature defence mechanisms and the propensity to resist change is established. However, to date only two known studies have investigated this relationship and found significant effects. Therefore, the link between these two variables is far from established. Again, as is the case with the indirect effects, where CSE acts as a mediator, the relationship between ImmD and PtRC is also limited by theory. Defence mechanisms per se are understudied in the context of business, and little is known about the exact impact of these on a range of organisational behaviours, particularly those that influence individual reactions and decision-making. Although psychological defence mechanisms are difficult to measure objectively and scientifically, research into these enables the study of invisible performance, which provides a deeper and wider perspective of inappropriate behaviour or repetitive failures (Koriat, Ma'ayan & Nussinson, 2006).

Practical implications

Similar to researchers, practitioners need to understand that employees' propensity to resist change is not simply a function of the job or organisational characteristics but rather reflects more broadly enduring individual differences in terms of the types of defensive strategy individuals use and their core self-evaluations. At a surface level this could be interpreted by practitioners to mean that organisations need not invest in resources such as coaches and mentors to help employees develop more supportive strategies to dealing with change because the propensity to resist change will be considerably constrained by their defensive strategies and core self-evaluations. I do not support this view; rather, I believe that helping employees to reflect on their defensive styles and

levels of core self-evaluation can raise awareness of their responses to change, including how they feel, think and act in relation to future encounters of change. Another view I hold is that selection decisions should not be based on data gathered about one's defence style or level of core self-evaluation. This would be a premature approach to take, considering the predictive and economic utility of these measures.

Given the current development in the labour market, it seems hard to prevent employees from using immature defence styles. Hence, besides performing actions to explore how one might react to change, it is important for employers to introduce interventions that will raise employees' awareness of the types of psychological defence mechanism they are likely to use, as suggested by the DSQ-40 instrument. Employers may, for instance, invest in psychological or coaching interventions that afford employees the opportunity to not only identify their dominant defence strategy but to talk through them through this so they can be clearer about the aetiologies of these, and discover more about the types of impact they will have on their lives, particularly at work, and how they work with core self-evaluation to influence resistant behaviour.

Employers could invest in strategies that promote the use of mature defences over immature ones, since immature defences are linked to low core self-evaluation. After all, an employee's core self-evaluation, including their perceived competence and ability to control stressful life encounters such as organisational change, are important for employee development, and there are several ways in which this can be considered important for the organisation too. For example, individuals with high core self-evaluations were found to be more likely to show support for change as opposed to those with low core self-evaluations, who are expected to show more resistance to change. Low scorers, who tend to believe that they have less control over their lives and the situation, lack emotional stability and react more negatively to stress; they are less likely to take on new tasks and opportunities that allow growth in their ability, and their self-concepts are limited and directed by negative appraisals. Thus, although managers are not able to psychoanalyse organisations, they are able to diagnose – and as a result more efficiently resolve psychological disturbances that hinder

group action and hamper performance, resulting in a decrease in direct or indirect costs (Egan, 1994).

People resist change for different reasons and in different ways. This study should help managers to identify and understand more about employees who display immature defence styles, and why it is that they regard change to be more of a threat than an opportunity. Equipping managers with this knowledge will enable them to foresee more accurately that certain unconscious processes are likely to draw on employees' energy or promote feelings of anxiety or pathological harm (Andrew, 1984). This could weaken the organisation and put its survival on the line if nothing is done about it. However, knowledge of psychoanalysis can assist managers to discover and act upon the core mechanisms of chronic underperformance (Hoedemaekers & Keegan, 2010).

There is some danger that the information gathered by employees might be used in an indiscriminate way, therefore it is crucial for management to recognise the socially sensitive nature of basing their selection decisions on the study findings. For example, because it is not easy to recognise defensive behaviours, organisations may be unaware of how their employees feel about the change, which might represent a challenge for managers seeking tangible outcomes. Equally, because these defences operate at an unconscious level, employees themselves may be unaware of the impact that their defence style is having on their thoughts, perception, judgements and behaviour. However, by encouraging employees to engage in a period of self-reflection by aiding them to better understand the reasons for their decisions, psychoanalysis might make workplace behaviour more decipherable. Practitioners may learn from this about the relevance of employee care, engagement and supportive leadership to encourage employee well-being (Voronov & Vince, 2012).

Limitations and future research directions

Despite the contributions and implications discussed, this study has several shortcomings. A first drawback concerns several sampling-related issues. The first is the self-selecting sample of

organisations, which is a potential impediment for generalisation, despite the reasonable sample size. However, this was compensated for by the one-month data collection period. Related to this is the need to acknowledge the possibility that such a design could lead to an inflated significance level, which is probably not the case in this instance. No measure was put in place for tenure, which may have impacted the effects of PtRC. The sample was drawn from two unrelated departments, which may have influenced some of the between-workplace-level effects. However, similar approaches to this study have been used in the past and derived significant results (Hilde et al., 2008).

Although this research was designed using standardised scales that measured psychological defence mechanisms, core self-evaluations and propensity to resist change, these scores were obtained by self-report ratings. This may raise concerns about common method variance (Malhotra, King, Schaller & Patil, 2016). However, past literature has suggested that interaction effect is less likely to be inflated by common method bias (Evan, 1985). As PtRC is based on individual employees' appraisals of their organisation and management, individual-level measures of PtRC were also justified. The structure of the analysis did not allow for any causal inferences to be made; however, strong relationships between the study variables were found, which contributes to its representativeness.

Second, the cross-sectional nature of the study renders it difficult to draw conclusions about the relationships among the study variables. Although significant correlations and a mediation effect were reported, cross-sectional research does not explain why and what other external factors might have been responsible for (i.e. caused) the observed significant correlations (Sedgwick, 2014). Nevertheless, this study sets the foundation for further investigations to be undertaken to better understand how these relatively unexplored individual variables (defence mechanisms and core self-evaluations) relate to behavioural resistance to change. Another sampling issue concerns the fact that the entire sampling population stemmed from the public sector, although this was the intention of this research. It is hoped that future studies will address this and attempt a more radical

balance between the two sectors for more comparable data and a stronger generalisation opportunity.

Third, in the introduction a proposal was made that, by understanding the defence styles of those who have a high CSE, practitioners might be able to better design interventions to help those who have a low CSE cope more effectively with change. This could be presented in the form of bespoke interactive training sessions, which could be delivered to staff in-house or via the use of a carefully designed e-learning programme, which could be followed by a planned phase of systems-psychodynamic coaching and evaluation. Future research might also examine the extent to which interventions designed to improve perceptions of control and self-image lead to improvements in coping strategies. For example, the way in which change is managed is likely to impact the climate of the organisation, which will in turn impact organisational behaviours. Besides this, as this study has demonstrated, one's level of core self-evaluation is affected by the work environment (Grant & Sonnentag, 2010; Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Kacmar, K. M., Collins, Harris & Judge, 2009).

Fourth, those implementing significant change should expect anxiety levels to increase amongst staff (Bovey & Hede, 2001). Anxiety, as has been demonstrated, can prompt individuals to defend themselves using one of the mechanisms discussed previously. Management needs to be aware of this, particularly how the different types of defence might influence their propensity to resist change. Another awareness that employees should have is how an individual's core self-evaluation might mediate this effect during periods of change. From this, employers could discover new ways about how they might provide additional care to employees during periods of change, based on this newfound knowledge of the factors that cause them to behave in resistant ways. Two types of intervention strategy, as proposed by Bovey and Hede (1991), which can assist management to work with the type of unconscious-induced individual resistance, are discussed in this study. These are information/awareness interventions and coaching interventions. Information/awareness interventions provide organisations and individuals with information to

create an awareness of how these individual differences impact behaviour. This could be facilitated via printed information or training. Coaching interventions could focus on the design and use of activities to assist individuals or groups to identify, analyse, and interpret their defensive styles and core self-evaluations, and understand the role they play in governing their perceptions and motivations towards change.

Fifth, from the perspective of appraisal theory, one may criticise the operationalisation of immature defence mechanisms and core self-evaluation as situational appraisals, as these concepts are not measured with respect to a particular work situation. Future research may gain from investigating the relationships between appraisals and well-being with respect to a specific situation. Scholars may, for example, conduct studies in which participants are asked to recall specific situations in which they experienced organisational change, and describe their experiences and reactions to this challenging situation.

Sixth, from the perspective that defence mechanisms are considered to be unconscious processes, one may criticise my use of a self-reported measure such as the Defence Style Questionnaire. For example, one may question how robust it is for capturing hidden and psychological memories from the past. Nonetheless, the reliability of the scale justifies its use in this study. However, future studies may benefit from using more direct measures to explore unconscious motivations, such as the TAT or other projective measures; these have also been scrutinised in terms of their validity and reliability.

The findings from this study were achieved through surveying "relational workers", comprising only those who work in the public sector: lecturers, social workers and health care and medical professionals. Future research could be conducted using employees from different sectors on the premise that, because relational/helping professional fields endure much change and stress is common amongst them, the findings from this investigation are pertinent to not only these employees and their environment but potentially to other high-stress, ever-changing workplaces. This provides insight into how different people react to organisational change and can therefore be

used as a guideline for managers on how to introduce organisational change to employees in a way that will minimise resistance.

3.15   Conclusions

The systematic examination and development of psychological defence mechanisms as a unique phenomenon in change management theory and occupational psychology research is important and needed. This investigation builds upon previous research and theories to test whether a relationship between immature defences and resistance to change was found. In a unique way, the study examined the mediating role of low core self-evaluation in the relationship between defence mechanisms and resistance to change, which the findings support.

This research emphasised the importance for management to promote high core self-evaluation, as it presents an opportunity for changes to be made that will benefit employees' mental well-being (Dollard & Karasek, 2010). It contributes knowledge of how change might be managed, particularly if that change is being resisted. The mixed results of this study suggest that we have much more to learn about the impact of defence mechanisms, core self-evaluation and employees' propensity to resist change. It is anticipated that the results will stimulate further research interest in this important area.

Further research into the relationship between defence mechanisms could provide a deeper insight into opportunities to develop evidence-based interventions to improve the way in which organisational change is managed, and influence the type of care organisations provide to those employees who appear to have a higher propensity to resist change. However, in practice this might be problematic, as scholars and change agents frequently report that every organisation is different and the level of change-related anxiety experienced by its members will differ in many ways (DeWilde, Broekaert & Rosseel, 2006). Nonetheless, reinforcing the need to develop bespoke plans and interventions that address the specific needs of employees within different organisations is inclusive and therefore likely to be preferred to those that approach change management from a

single perspective on the premise that "one-size-fits-all", which may unknowingly lead to indirect discrimination.

Employers who are keen to engage employees and demonstrate care for their health and well-being could also expend effort to ensure that employees are provided with opportunities to develop the resilience, hope and belief to accept organisational changes on the premise that adopting the "new" can lead to positive outcomes as well as present possible threats to some employees. Besides this, the type of change that this research focussed on was structural change, which some findings have shown can impact both mental health (Bamberger et al., 2012) and well-being (Bamberger et al., 2012; Quinlan & Bohle, 2009; Westgaard & Winkel, 2011). Therefore, although the findings fall under the remit of organisational change and resistance to change research, they cannot be generalised to other types of change.

Employing strategies to improve employees' core self-evaluations can build hope amongst employees to the extent that they will feel less threatened by the change. There are many benefits to be gained from investing in further research to understand more about the reasons employees feel threatened by change and how this results in their unconscious deployment of defence mechanisms.

Furthermore, considering that the relationship between immature defence mechanisms and propensity to resist change was partially mediated by the core beliefs individuals have about themselves, their abilities and their control, employees and employers might benefit from investing in developing employees' awareness and exploring the nature and extent of such core beliefs, prior to the implementation of change. Fellow occupational psychologists who specialise in and advise on people management could use such knowledge to enhance their diagnostic approach, which in turn may lead to them gaining a more detailed and accurate perspective of some of the possible reasons employees resist change. In addition, fellow practitioners could perhaps use this acquired knowledge to assist managers to develop an awareness of the association between these variables, and design and deliver interventions that enable employees to develop the practical skills required to manage emotions, build core evaluations and consider the possible impact of these hidden and

unconscious processes on propensity to resist change.

3.16 Reflections on the research process

Reflecting on my decision to study the impact of immature psychological defence mechanisms and core self-evaluation on resistance to change, I can now see that this was no coincidence. My knowledge of change and resistance has stemmed mainly from a combination of my academic exposure and personal, professional and practitioner experiences of being an employee within organisations during change periods, or consulting to organisations on change management. Academically speaking, I have gained much knowledge about change from a system, process and infrastructure perspective and a little knowledge about the human side, particularly the psychological and hidden motivations for resistance. As a psychoanalytically informed occupational psychologist, I have identified that the interventions used to implement change and tackle resistance were not specific or sophisticated enough to capture the possible impact of these processes; the outcome of change seemed always to be more beneficial to the organisation than to employees. For example, employees were simply informed that change was on its way and that they would have a choice (psychological in nature): to adapt or leave. It was as simple as that. Reflecting on these early exposures, I can see how they have shaped my view of the organisation as a constraining force. My reading of Auguste Comte and Emile Durkheim's work, particularly the latter's publication entitled "The rules of the scientific method", reinforced this view, as it provided a very detailed explanation of the existence and role of "social facts" (Durkheim, 1982). Although Comte and Durkheim were both positivists and I share their views that society can act as a constraining force, over which its members have little control, engaging in this research has made consider how these points might have influenced the approach I took to this research.

For example, having reflected on my engagement in this research process, I have learned more about what else I could have done to get a more detailed understanding of participants' perspectives of their propensity to resist change, Although I relied on the survey to obtain

knowledge about the phenomena, the survey was fit for purpose in that it was useful for helping me gather a higher volume of responses and the anonymity of the survey helped me to maintain distance between participants and myself, which was intended. However, despite these efforts I still cannot claim complete neutrality and independence from the research participants/process because I played a fundamental role in compiling the survey, interpreting the findings and analysing the results. What I found limiting about my choice of method is it did not allow me to gain more about participants individual experiences of change, their use of defences and their views regarding their core self-evaluation. Initially, I did not foresee that this would be limiting because I was satisfied that the study would be an exploration one. It was only after I had completed the analysis part that I questioned whether I had exhausted all opportunities to gather as much knowledge about the phenomena from participants perspective. Should another opportunity present for me to design this study again or a similar one, I would certainly approach it from a triangulation perspective because I feel this would optimise my chances of gaining more knowledge about the relationship between the study variables. For example, I think that a face-to-face interview or diary method could be used to gather participants' personal experiences in relation to change. I feel that taking such an approach would have helped with my enquiry. Nonetheless, I accept that the survey approach taken was used for the purpose of exploring relationships between the study variables. For this reason, my initial commitment to positivism has since changed because I now recognise that individual participants have different versions of "truth" and if as a researcher my aim is to understand these ranging perspectives I will need to select a methodological approach that will allow me to capture as much of this as possible. This could be achieved using a mixed-method design.

Overall, engaging in this research process has helped to improve a range of skills, such as primary research skills, secondary research skills, time management, statistical analysis and increasing levels of self-confidence. At the primary research level, I learned more about some of the issues associated with data collection and analysis. Although the survey method was used to collect data, I have analysed the advantages and disadvantages of this method and alternative

primary data methods such as interviews, focus groups and observations. Refreshing my knowledge of the importance of sampling in general and the choice of the most suitable sampling method is also appreciated. However, engaging in primary data collection and analysis has made the biggest contribution to my development as a researcher and scholar. Choosing mediation analysis was a huge challenge for me because I have not had much experience with this statistical procedure; however, as a result of this engagement I have acquired the self-confidence to be able to conduct this type of analysis independently, which offers a range of substantial benefits such discussing my findings with other scholars and clients and feeling empowered to approach future research in this manner.

My time management skills have also improved, which I attribute to the extensive preparation and planning for each stage of the study. Although at first I struggled to ensure progress of the study according to the timetable that I had created, these struggles came about at the literature review stage as I had underestimated the duration of time required for this stage. Now that I am aware of the impact of this, going forward I will factor in more time for this. The secondary research skills I have gained and improved upon include having to prioritise the secondary data and develop a critical and analytical approach to the sources. Prior to engaging in this research, I was prone to accept most of the viewpoints formulated in books and journals as facts. However, the current experience has caused this viewpoint to be changed. I am more able to identify a range of shortcomings associated with some works discussed in the literature review.

CHAPTER FOUR (4)

An Intervention Process Analysis of the Effectiveness of Systems-Psychodynamic Coaching to Develop Multinational Leaders' Efforts to Better Manage Conflict

4.0   Chapter introduction

This chapter reports on the effectiveness of a systems-psychodynamic coaching intervention used to assist six multinational team leaders from the Middle East region to become aware of their avoidant behaviours towards conflict at work. Participants were selected according to their Myers–Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) type, learning style, conflict management style and Global Executive Leadership Inventory (GELI), all of which indicated a tendency in them to avoid conflict. Participants consented to engaging in a coaching process and evaluation phase, which spanned a period of 10 months; thus, the project had a longitudinal dimension. An assessment of the impact of the coaching was conducted by comparing pre- and post-process conflict management behavioural styles. Discourse analysis was used to analyse participant data: field notes and reflective essays. The results seem to support the prediction that systems-psychodynamic coaching would be useful for helping leaders to become aware of and better manage their conflict-avoidant style. Gaining an awareness of the hidden and unconscious factors that influence avoidant behaviours seemed to have helped leaders to better manage conflict situations at work.

4.1   Analysis of needs and problems

The role of multinational leaders is dynamic and systemic. As well as having to manage virtual teams and diversity, they are expected to attend to their own psychological boundaries around conflict avoidance (Huffington, 2004). This challenges the common view that leaders are dominant and unafraid, ignoring the possibility that many have a tendency towards conflict avoidance (Hedges, 2015; Hirschhorn, 1993; Thomas-Killmann, 2009). For example, some

evidence (e.g. Nakayamam, 2008; Thomas-Killmann, 2009) shows that executives have a desperate need to be liked and accepted; afraid to do or say anything that might threaten this acceptance, some report the difficulty they experience with exercising authority.

Conflict at work stems from various sources, such as confusion about one's position, personality and dispositional factors (Huffington, 2009; Sandler, 2011); however, conflict is more common in some situations than others (Henry, 2009). For example, owing to the cultural diversity of group members, multinational teams are characteristically known to breed more conflict compared to homogenous ones (Henry, 2009; Jones, O'Leonard & Bersin, 2012; McRae, 2004). This is often experienced as a real pressure faced by leaders (Sandler, 2011). Managing this type of conflict can be a challenging task, to the extent that some leaders have been found to unconsciously behave in ways so as to avoid it (Runde & Flanagan, 2010). Despite the difficulties associated with measuring the type of "unconscious avoidance" that Runde and Flanagan (2010) describe, others support this idea by recognising that this behaviour occurs with the result of invariably negative outcomes and implications for the team leader themselves (Henry, 2009) as well as the organisation (Huffington, 2009).

Dealing with conflict at work is cognitively and emotionally taxing, which some claim to be strengthened by its determining psychological roots (Nadler & Kim, 1999; Jones, 2000; Rossignac-Milon, 2011). Voronov and Vince (2012) argue that the experiencing individual is not ontologically separate from their institutional context (Willmott, 2011) and therefore conflict cannot always be avoided because the individual and system are connected (Brown, 1997; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1986; Fineman, 2006b; Stavrakakis, 2008). It is therefore surprising that such knowledge is not imparted to management practice, through formal or informal training, since an understanding of this entwined relationship between individual and organisational influences moves one closer to understanding from where conflict avoidance attitudes and behaviour might stem.

Cultural factors, such as religion and geographical location, have been found to influence avoidant behaviours towards conflict. For example, in the Middle East, "culture" is considered to

influence most things, including the strategies and approaches organisations employ to develop

effective behaviours amongst leaders (Hofestede, 2010). Some executive coaching models appear

to be preferred to others. Of the two broad categories of executive coaching, those that focus on

changing the behaviour and attitudes of leaders seem to be favoured on the basis that behaviours are

learned, and coaching is therefore used as a strategy to enable leaders to "unlearn" any

unproductive behavioural styles; this compares to other coaching approaches, which attempt to

make changes to the situation or environment in which they lead. Thus, popular approaches used in

the Middle East are those inspired by behavioural theory (Hofestede, 2010).

Despite this preference about coaching approaches, many are governed by Western thinking,

which some claim should not and cannot be superimposed on Eastern countries as their style is

influenced by strong cultural values (Kabasakal, 2001; Al-Dabbagh & Assaadd, 2010; Hofestede,

2010; Law & Palmer, 2012; Metcalf & Weixler, 2010). Kabasakal (2001) argues that Islamic

cultures place great emphasis on the role of "fate"; most accept that all past and future behaviours

are pre-arranged. Others, such as Weixler (2010), argue for a "Christ-like" leadership style that

reflects the different way in which leadership development in the East is approached. This suggests

that Eastern leadership is perceived as being characteristically different from Western leadership.

However, what is not taken into account by these studies is that a large proportion of leaders who

reside and work in the Middle East region are expatriates, who are accustomed to alternative ways

of leading.

In her cross-cultural analysis of leadership styles, Hofstede (2010) found that Middle

Eastern leadership is "shaped by traditional views" (p. 20), and it also rests on the belief that

followers in this region regard their leaders decisions as always being "right". Thus the relationship

between leaders and followers is likened to that of parent/child relationships. Leaders play the

dominant role – in this region it is directive, top-down and hierarchical (Kabashakai, 2012). The

findings from Neal, Finlay and Catona's GLOBE Project (2010) found support for this claim in

their labelling of Middle Eastern leadership styles as predominately "paternalistic" (Denison et al.,

2010; Tariq 2009; Harzing, Brown, Koester & Zhao, 2012; Gentry & Eckert, 2012). Similar to Weixler (2010), Metcalf (2006) argues that Islamic cultures place a heavy emphasis on "authority", as it is regarded as something to be "held", rather than "shared", resulting in a social "power distance" structure within all institutions (Smith, 2007). Hofestede's (2010) model has contributed a great deal to knowledge of cross-cultural leadership, but it has also been heavily criticised (Mead, 1998).

Besides these cultural influences, some organisational leaders seem to have a preference for approaches that produce objective data and therefore measurable outcomes (Weixler, 2010). This does not however mean that zero value can be gained from using alternative methods whereby change outcomes are represented as mental growth, such as a leader's "mind-set". Although there is consensus about the benefits of coaching, some argue that specific methods are deemed to be far more capable of achieving effective outcomes, because they work to change behaviour at a deeper level. Therefore, despite the success of models such as GROW, STEPPA, OSKAR and Birkman for bringing about behavioural change, the type of change achieved through the use of these arguably happens at more of a surface level (Palmer, 2011; Sandler, 2011; Levinson, 1996). Only a few approaches set out to tackle both human and organisational influences; for example, dual paradigms posit that conflict avoidance behaviours are influenced by both factors. These "dual-like" coaching approaches are referred to as "systemic". One approach in particular, systems-psychodynamic coaching, recognises that most behaviour expressed at work stems from the interaction between the individual (including the role of hidden and unconscious factors) and situational factors (Vansina & Vansina-Cobbaert, 2008).

The systems-psychodynamic coaching approach is renowned for its capability to operate and tackle behavioural change at a much deeper "below-the-surface" level (Koortzen & Cilliers, 2002; Miller & Rice, 1976; Sandler, 2012). It rests upon getting clients to reflect on their past experiences, as it is believed that current adult behaviours have roots that stem from childhood experiences. The approach posits that all behaviour in organisations is governed by interrelational

factors between the individual and how they connect and respond to and within the system. In short, the approach asserts that employees are not independent of the organisation, as it affects them in emotional and psychological ways (Cilliers, 2007), which is eloquently demonstrated through practice. However, although "deep" approaches such as systems-psychodynamics promise long-lasting results, they are hardly used in the Middle East (Sandler, 2011; Huffington, 2009; Kets de Vries, 2007), making it difficult to comment on their predictive power in this region.

Systems-psychodynamic coaching (SPC) approaches have been found to be effective for helping leaders to manage their avoidant behavioural styles towards conflict (Kramer, 2009; Diamond, 2013; Huffington, 2007; Kets de Vries, 2013). If alternative approaches such as SPC are effective it is important that the practical application and value of these are fully understood as they might be useful to fellow occupational psychologists. In view of this, this intervention challenges the "culture-specificity" assumptions about the Middle East and sets out to explore the usefulness and effectiveness of systems-psychodynamic coaching in assisting local leaders of the Middle East to address their conflict avoidance style.

Similarly to most other coaching approaches, systems-psychodynamic approaches are shaped by Western thinking and rely on getting individuals/clients to reflect on how contextual factors influence their behaviour (Huffington, 2009; Sandler, 2011; Hirschhorn, 1993; Koortzen & Cilliers, 2002). Arguably, it is due to the emphasis the systems-psychodynamic approach places on getting individuals to reflect that such approaches are considered less suitable for use in collectivist cultures (Al-Dahbagh & Assaadd, 2010; Hofstede, 2010). Specifically, a major implication associated with the use of systems-based coaching concerns the difficulty with measuring the outcomes. There is a dearth of research is available to substantiate claims that use of this approach will be effective. Much of this is to do with perspectives that leadership in this part of the region is said to be predominately influenced by collective thinking and religion, and is structured on the familial institution (Dahbagh & Assaadd, 2010). Thus, it is expected that attempts at this will represent a major practical challenge for those who use systems-psychodynamic approaches that

promote self-reflection rather than collective reflection (Sandler, 2012). Considering that reflection is a major requirement of the systems-psychodynamic coaching process, leaders in this region may struggle to reflect on their behaviours for betterment because there is no scope or real need for this, traditionally.

Nonetheless, reflective action is thought to enable self-awareness, which is a crucial competence of leadership (Wiley, 2007; Wiley, Voronov & Vince, 2012). Coaches value leaders becoming self-aware, as it is a form of "self-mastery", empowering them to undertake a realistic assessment of their own abilities, strengths, weaknesses and effect on others (Voronov & Vince, 2012, p. 22). However, the plight of getting leaders to "reflect" and recognise its importance may be a local priority as opposed to a global one.

Formulation of solutions

In the light of claims that systems-psychodynamic coaching can be used to push the boundaries of awareness to inform understanding of the hidden and unconscious meaning of organisational behaviour, including how leaders reason about their role and task (Huffington, 2007), this approach was adopted. However, despite various studies that proclaim its usefulness, it is recognised that outcomes regarding its effects are difficult to measure quantitatively, despite this form of measurement being often preferred by those who commission coaching services for tackling leadership development (Cilliers, 2002). Using methods such as "self-reflection" and free-association techniques to understand deep and covert behaviour in systems can be revealed through psychoanalytic methods of enquiry and analysis (Koortzen & Cilliers, 2002; Miller & Rice, 1976; Sandler, 2012).

The approach taken by this intervention is based on arguments that suggest that systems-psychodynamic coaching can empower leaders to reflect on their experiences and increase awareness of the hidden/unconscious factors that impact the relationship between task and organisational performance (Brunning, 2006; Cilliers, 2009; Huffington et al., 2004; Kets de Vries

2007; Newton, Long & Sievers 2006). In pursuit of this, leaders' perceptions of the "organisation-in-the-mind" and how they reason about organisational life will be examined to identify whether (Armstrong, 2005; Sandler, 2012) leaders report gaining a clearer perspective of their attachment to and emotional investment in the organisation in service of the primary task, as the current literature suggests.

However, considering that the role of the systems-psychodynamic coach is to assist the leader in seeing more clearly how their internal world affects the organisation and its members (Allcorn, 2006, pp. 129–130), epistemologically speaking the coach plays a fundamental role in the process. For example, while taking a reflective stance from a meta position, the coach's function is to be alert to the leader's behaviour, interpreting the manifestation of the basic assumptions and behavioural concepts without judgement, memory, or desire (Campbell & Huffington, 2008). In view of these requirements, a post-positivist approach was employed as it values both the subjective and objective role that researchers play (Wildemuth, 1993). This approach differs from positivism in that, rather than striving to discover objectively the truth hidden in the subject's mind, post-positivists strive to disrupt this predictability that can occur by engaging in social construction of a narrative with participants to activate the respondent's "stock of knowledge" (Ritchie & Rigano, 2001). Through the formulation of working hypotheses, defined as integrative statements of "searching into" (Schafer 2003), the leader's experiences are constantly revisited in the light of further and new manifesting evidence, to enable a deeper understanding of their role (Campbell 2007). Thus, the success of the intervention depends on the coach's level of knowledge and experience (Cilliers, 2008). The relationship between coach and coachee involves an intense discourse (Campbell & Grónbaek, 2006); however, this effect depends on the establishment of chemistry between coach and coachee.

Throughout their engagement in the process, leaders are encouraged to be curious, to associate freely, to explore a variety of related feelings, patterns, defences and representations (including the transferences between coach and leader) around conflict management, and to move

between different levels of abstraction in thought (Jaques, 1990; Kegan, 1994). Through this, access to their own unexplored conscious and unconscious role experiences, attitudes, beliefs, fantasies, wishes, conflicts and social defences is granted (Kilburg and Diedrich, 2007; Brunning, 2006; Huffington et al., 2004; Kets de Vries, 2007; Newton, Long & Sievers, 2006; Cilliers, 2008). They learn how parts of the self are related to other parts of the organisational system; also, they consider what can be done to take back the projections and reclaim the lost parts of the self (Blackman, 2004; Neumann et al., 1997; Shapiro & Carr, 1991; Stapley, 1996, 2006). However, the process involved in getting coaches to reflect is lengthy and coachees would have to demonstrate a high level of skill and commitment to working in this way.

Having acknowledged that conflict-avoidant behaviours can be experienced unconsciously (Sandler, 2011; Millward, 2004), several steps were taken to design an intervention that would enable leaders to develop an awareness of these hidden psychological factors that might influence their behavioural tendency to avoid conflict. A depth psychology perspective, which includes the manifestation of unconscious behaviour, was chosen in order to "penetrate the illusion" (Higgs & Smith, 2003, p. 67) that leadership is only about conscious behaviour. This would enable the "leadership reality", comprising conscious and unconscious behaviour, to be explored and understood.

The following research questions were investigated:

1) Do leaders feel that their engagement in and experience of systems-psychodynamic coaching has had a positive impact on their efforts to manage conflict?

2) What are the barriers to the effective use of systems-psychodynamic coaching for conflict avoidance?

4.2   Method – implementation of solutions

Participants

Six executive leaders from a single multinational company within the Middle East were

selected to participate in the study. The sample comprised 50% males (n = 3) and 50% females (n = 3) who were on average 40.71 years old (SD = 7.76, min = 24, max = 72) with backgrounds in HR management within the private sector. Three of the participants were of Emirati heritage and the remaining three were classified as being of Indian (subcontinent) descent. All participants described their religious background as Muslim. Four of the six participants had a BSc Business Management qualification.

Materials

Pre-intervention assessment. As mentioned, each participant's Myers–Briggs type indicator code and conflict management style profile were established ahead of their engagement in the coaching process. Additional measures such as Kets de Vries's "Global Executive Leadership Inventory" (GELI) were also used to identify each leader's "global mind-set" – more specifically, participants' potential ability and competence in managing multinational teams (Kets de Vries, 2009) were deemed important to get a clearer picture of the leaders' profiles, in context. GELI is also a systems-psychodynamic-based tool, which enables "below-surface" working (Sandler, 2011). To support the rich data that such a tool is thought to generate, systems-psychodynamic coaching that experientially investigates coachees experience and how this constructs reality was selected. Information about these experiences was captured through use of the CIBART method; "CIBART" is an acronym for six behavioural constructs: conflict, identity, boundaries, authority, role and task (see Table 7). Cilliers and Koortzen (2006) developed this model as a workable framework to qualitatively assess and resolve the causes of conflict. As a method, the coachee and consultant/coach work through the six constructs, one by one, in an explorative manner, asking questions about how they manifest in behavioural terms (Cilliers, 2012).

The leadership development-coaching programme and sessions. A series of four 90-minute coaching sessions (see Table 6) was conducted, preceded by a diagnostic phase and followed by a feedback session and an evaluation session was used. The intervention ran over a period of 10 months, with equal intervals of two weeks between communication and/or sessions.

The intervention was carried out in three interconnected stages: (a) analysis of information obtained from the range of diagnostic tools (personality preference, learning style, conflict management style and global mindedness); (b) organisational role analysis (ORA) was also carried out in the first session, as advised by Newton (2006), to identify interrelationships between the individual, role and coaching sessions; and, (c) evaluation via essay writing and feedback.

Post-intervention evaluation. Data were collected by means of notes taken during the coaching session, and essays written by participants to reflect on the personal impact of the process.

Table 5

Outline of leadership coaching programme for conflict avoidance

Session no.	Title	Content
0	Pre-intro contracting	Introduction to process; contracting; data collection tools issued: MBTI, CMI, GELI
1	Introductory session	Feedback and corroboration of data collected so far; contracting with client; explaining the underlying ORA model of role; explaining the process of ORA coaching (including the roles of client and coach and boundary conditions); expectations of the outcome of coaching (goals and behavioural indices)
2	Exploring past experiences	Influences from the past – family history; conflict management problem identification (assessment); early conflict management experiences
3	Identifying and discussing themes	Discussions of themes and issues emerging as per reflective accounts (conscious and unconscious); sharing of dreams; collaboratively formulating and refining working hypotheses; client testing working hypotheses at work
4		Client supported to find, make and take up role; review progress: remind of goals to evaluate success and set new goals and behavioural indices
5	Action	Client testing working hypotheses at work; client supported to find, make and take up role; review progress: remind of goals to evaluate success and set new

	planning;	goals and behavioural indices
	reality	
	testing	
6	Coaching	Coaching evaluation essays due in on the usefulness of systems-
	evaluation	psychodynamics for conflict management; analysis of these
7	Feedback	Used to debrief participants
	session and	
	discussion	

4.3   Procedures

Participants were recruited from a medium-sized multinational organisation in the Middle East. Participants were selected from a list of HRM leaders who had previously attended a compulsory two-day leadership development centre (LDC) course at some point between January 2011 and December 2013; participants had consented to being contacted about further opportunities to develop their leadership skills. Their participation in the coaching process meant that they had completed the following assessments, which were used by this study to preselect participants: Myers–Briggs type indicator (MBTI) and conflict management style (CMS). In view of the developmental nature of this intervention, only those whose profiles suggested a tendency towards conflict avoidance were selected: i.e. with an "avoidance" style and a preference for "sensing". In the case of the MBTI measure, ISFPs are characteristic the types that are more likely to avoid conflict (Johnson, 1997; Percival, Smitheram & Kelly, 1992; Myers, 1998; Butt, 2005), which is why leaders whose profiles suggest this were chosen.

Participants were told that I was interested in their experiences of the coaching programme. Participants were given an information sheet and, after reading it, signed a consent form if they wanted to participate. It was made clear to participants that they had the right to withdraw from the process at any given time. Participants attended all coaching sessions, which were delivered by a trained systems-psychodynamic occupational psychologist. Following the coaching phase,

participants were then asked to: "Write an essay of about two pages on your experiences of the coaching and the coaching relationship". One instruction was that in their essays they "should make particular reference to how you manage conflict within your team". Participants were also asked to consider the following in their responses: "a) comment on whether the coaching experience has contributed to you acquiring new knowledge or skills to better manage conflict; and, b) what challenges did you face throughout the process". The essays were received electronically and then printed out. The essays were seen as transcriptions representing the experience of each participant (Camic, Rhodes & Yardley, 2003, pp. 82–83). After they had completed and submitted their essays anonymously, participants were debriefed and given the opportunity to ask questions.

Analysis

This research was approached from a post-positivist perspective because values in research can be both subjective and objective. In post-positivist research, "truth" is constructed through a dialogue between the researcher and respondent. Positivist features are included because the intervention was designed to test the CIBART theory, as presented in Table 7 with a view to isolating and defining categories before the research started and then determining the relationships between them (Wildemuth, 1993). Besides this, statistical analysis was used to demonstrate the impact of the intervention numerically. Systems-psychodynamic discourse analysis was used as a means of describing and quantifying leaders' experiences of the coaching intervention (Smit & Cilliers, 2006; Camic, Rhodes & Yardley, 2003). Data, which comprised both the coaching session scripts and the essays, were coded using all six CIBART themes (Campbell & Huffington, 2008) (see Table 7). Each theme was used to categorise participants' personal experiences of the coaching sessions, and their perspective of their effectiveness in assisting them to better manage conflict. The characteristics of each theme, as detailed in Table 7, formed the basis for analysing meaning construed from spoken words during the coaching session, in terms of their being located in language. To ensure the reliability and validity of this approach a second coder was used; however, other than the CIBART coding criteria, the second coder was given no indication of how

the essays had been coded previously. Again, to ensure consistency, two hard copies of the

transcripts and coaching sessions and different-coloured highlighters were used to mark material

that fitted into different categories. Thereafter, the different chunks were cut and put in piles under

the different category headings. This part of the process was useful to break down, examine,

compare, conceptualise and categorise the data. It is essentially theorising about data, which

involves "the taxing business of trying to grasp what is actually going on" (Eagleton, 2003, p. 223).

This model was selected for its ability to identify below-the-surface behaviour and explain

how conflict-avoidant styles manifest in the minds and behaviours of leaders. Besides this, the

research fulfils the criteria for a discourse analysis methodology to be used, as it assumes that

reality is socially constructed; inductive reasoning is assumed; and the author is a part of the

process (Ruiz, 2009), which is the reason why discourse analysis was chosen over content analysis

(Ruiz, 2009).

Table 6

The CIBART model (Cilliers & Koortzen, 2006)

CIBART	Descriptions
Conflict/anxiety (C)	Defined as the fear of the future, acting as the driving force ("dynamo") of the relationship and relatedness between leadership and followership.
Identity (I)	The nature of the leader's role behaviour and the branding, climate, and culture of the organisational system.
Boundaries (B)	Such as task, time or territory, which act as the space around and between parts of the system, keeping it safe and contained.
Authority (A)	The formal and official right to perform the task, bestowed from above (the organisation, manager, leader), the side (colleagues), below (subordinates) and within (self-authorisation).
Role (R)	The boundary surrounding work and position, and between leader/follower/organisation, where leadership is defined as managing the boundaries between what is inside and what is outside the role, and where role dynamics differentiate between the normative, experiential and phenomenal.
Task (T)	The basic component of work, with the leader's adherence to the primary task indicating contained anxiety, and diversions into off-task and anti-task behaviour indicating confusion and free-floating anxiety.

4.4   Results

Findings and review of solutions

A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare leaders' conflict management styles pre- and post-coaching intervention (n = 6). A significant difference was found between the styles leaders had used to manage conflict. All leaders moved from using avoidant styles to cooperating and compromising styles. No evidence was found for competing or accommodating styles. Qualitative analysis of the leaders' written feedback essays and the notes from the coaching sessions were used to identify material that could be classified according to the CIBART acronym.

The following themes manifested in this research, of which descriptions are provided below (in relation to the answers participants gave to the essay question, and responses obtained during coaching sessions): conflict/anxiety (C), identity (I), boundaries (B), authority (A), role (R) and task (T). Behaviours associated with the CIBART model/themes are presented below.

(1)   Conflict/anxiety

Participants described their coaching experience as follows: "it was challenging because it involved looking into self"; "it was useful to share my leadership experiences with a professional"; "initially, I was worried about what the outcome would be"; "I appreciated the coaching experience, considering I didn't feel as if I needed it"; "I feel more aware about why it is that I avoid certain situations at work, particularly those that are conflict-provoking"; and "reflecting on the past is useful – now I understand why it is important to go back if you want to go forward".

Participants defended against their experienced anxiety, as described by Huffington (2011). Participants commented that: "coaching made me think differently and took me out of my comfort zone, which was beyond my expectations" and "I thought it would be more coach-directed and now I realise that coaching is actually coachee-focussed and about raising awareness of myself and the roots behind my behaviours". This was accompanied by fight responses such as occasional avoidance of fully engaging in the coaching sessions or writing the essay. For example, four out of six passed commentary about how difficult they were finding it to think reflectively about their

leadership role. As noted by Metcalf (2006), some cultures may struggle to reflect.

Systems-psychodynamics facilitates the working through of defences

Initially, participants experienced a range of conscious and unconscious conflict and anxiety owing to not being instructed and taught by the coach in the way they had expected. In addition, they expressed their dependency and need to be governed by the coach, as opposed to being facilitated. Besides this, it was clear that the nature and method of experimental discovery as a way of learning created a high level of anxiety amongst this group of locals. This led to many types of defence, such as intellectualisation (where they tried to keep their learning on the cognitive level and avoid making contact with difficult feelings), rationalisation (giving intellectual explanations for their behaviour), denial (not wanting to work with the difficulty of introspection and "soul searching") and projection (of incompetence on to the coach for not "instructing" them). This created a high level of anxiety amongst the group (Stapley & Stein, 2001). Also, participants also showed a lack of trust regarding the interpretation of their own experiences, and initially relied heavily on the coach to guide their discovery or cross-reference their viewpoints.

However, as time passed, what appeared to be a natural tendency of participants to blame management and the organisation was replaced by self-authorisation and working towards openness and a shared reality in the coaching relationship. Based on Menzies's (1930) theory, this could be interpreted as happening because the individuals experienced containment in the coaching relationship.

Lack of cultural awareness influenced increased role anxiety

Many participants' anxiety stemmed from their perceived lack of culture awareness. One participant stated, "I do not know much about the culture of the people I have to manage, which makes me uncertain as to how to deal with them". Because of this, participants seemed to find the task of managing such individuals difficult. One regarded this aspect of their task as "managing blindly". The idea of not knowing or being aware of the cultural factors that influence the

behaviours of their employees seemed to be linked to their perception of task difficulty. Some felt that, owing to them not knowing much about the cultural variations amongst their team members, they preferred to steer clear of making rash decisions regarding conflict management for fear that they might upset someone. This seemed to influence their avoidant behaviours.

Managing conflict is perceived by leaders to be a fundamental aspect of their role, which can be anxiety-provoking. All participants admitted that they felt it was their responsibility to manage conflict. Equally, all felt that this task was extremely challenging and that they did not have the skill set to deal with it. This is despite there being evidence to suggest that employees expect that their leaders should and will resolve conflicts between group members (Ayoko & Härtel, 2002).

(2)   Identity

The leaders' identity consciously contained their rational attachment (Rholes & Simpson, 2004) to their task of managing a multinational team and their boundary demands. However, the boundary was not purely made up of their consideration for organisational structures; each leader's culture and religion played an influential role in their identity. This was expressed in the following ways: "God gave me the power to lead, I did not ask for it" and "leadership is a calling, which stems from God's will". Despite this, and their beliefs that they are representatives or vicegerents on earth with the necessary skills to lead, participants still reported feeling insecure about their jobs, and their efforts to perform to the best of their ability were unrecognised. Some experienced performance anxiety and difficulty in complying with the demands of their role. Besides this, they seemed to be motivated by approval and were therefore overly concerned that others might perceived them as inferior, particularly with the task of having to manage conflict within a multinational workforce.

The above was interpreted as identity-based conflict (Porter-O'Grady & Malloch, 2008), which is situational and rooted in the unconscious need for dignity, recognition, control, purpose and efficiency (Cilliers, 2010). The idea of managing conflict in a multinational team being

projected by the system on to the role of global leader is an almost impossible task for which no one will ever be good enough (Klein, 1988). However, due to the leader's culture, religion and ligancy to their followers, it represents a psychological contract in which the leader commits to doing all within their power to best guide their followers (Metcalf, 2012). However, in trying to fulfil this aspect of their role, leaders' work can become unconsciously counterproductive (Fox & Spector, 2005). This can be explained by their anxiety about balancing the intellectual and religious right to lead a team and the emotional demands associated with having to manage the conflict within the team (Sievers, 2009).

(3)   Boundaries

Participants seemed to enjoy discussing and making sense of the boundary concept, and recognised the importance of having both personal and physical boundaries. Some of the comments used to capture this evidence include: "without boundaries ambiguity is left to control"; "a boundaryless environment is one without order"; "without rules, regulations, policies organisations break-down"; and "structuring the environment in such a way that everyone is clear about their roles, responsibilities and expectation is crucial – without this conflict and chaos would increase". These ideas relate to Koortzen and Cilliers's (2002) idea that time boundaries structure the work day, space boundaries structure the workplace (space) and task boundaries define the work content in terms of what is required and to what standard. As well as recognising some of the more obvious boundaries as described above, participants also identified how culture acts as a boundary in the workplace. One of the comments captured was: "leading a multinational team is a major challenge – there is no right way to do it but if you don't the signs of poor management will show. Conflict will arise." Others spoke about the difficulty experienced in having to manage their multinational teams in a way that suggests that it threatens boundaries.

Culture and religion were also identified as playing an important role in boundary management. For example, taking time out to pray or engage in religious activity is not always understood or appreciated by all.

(4)   Authority

Participants seemed to be clear that they had the right to perform the task of leading a multinational team. Much of this right seemed to be authorised by the qualifications and experience they held. This sentiment was expressed by comments such as: "I am a qualified and experienced global leader"; "had my 'God' and seniors not deemed me to be a suitable candidate for the role, they would not have selected me". Also, participants seemed adamant that management, colleagues and subordinates alike deemed them to be competent. However, much of this was based on their preconceived ideas or perceptions of what their colleagues and subordinates thought, as opposed to fact. For example, some participants mentioned that: "my colleagues respect my position and the role that I play" and "my colleagues are aware of my experience and therefore trust that I am competent in my role". From this, participants seemed to experience the informal authority of being liked by most colleagues (Brunning, 2006). As Hofestede (2010) observes, leaders from collectivist cultures are driven by religious ideology and therefore the need to act for the greater good. Besides this, Metcalf (2012) identifies that the relationship between Islamic leaders of the Middle East and their followers is usually based on trust and mutual agreement. Business leaders are seen as "corporate Khalifah", who are not only responsible for the growth of their business but also accountable to God for their actions as leaders. The primary principle governing their leadership is "maslahah" (concern for the public good and welfare). Whilst all participants upheld this view, this same standard resulted in them questioning whether they were doing a good job of leading their team. Some of the comments captured include: "sometimes I find aspects of my role challenging to the point where I wonder whether I require further training" and "I can lead but leading in a multinational team is qualitatively different from managing those from your own culture – conflict is likely to arise".

(5)   Role

Participants were clear on their normative roles (the rational job content) but less so on their

experiential and phenomenal roles (Obholzer & Roberts, 1994). In exploring their experiential

roles, participants seemed to struggle at first when talking about themselves. Whilst it is true that

many find the task of talking about themselves difficult and that may be explained by individual

difference, there is yet another perspective on this. Metcalf attributes this to culture factors

(Metcalf, 2012). The concept of discussing private troubles and emotions with a stranger runs

counter to some powerful beliefs about the notion of privacy, which Axelrod (2012) considers

characteristic of Eastern leadership practice. Some of the comments captured include: "it is

difficult to consider what my team think in terms of my ability to perform my role"; "my ability to

perform well in my role should not be based on what I think they may think of my leadership"; "I

really do not know what they think, they just accept that I am their leader and that's it"; and

"furthermore, who are they to question my leadership – they are not in the position to do so". This

provided some evidence about participants' level of awareness regarding their phenomenological

role.

(6)   Task

Participants described their primary task of global leadership with clarity and pride. As

evidenced, they referred to having to travel to and from different countries to manage systems and

operations there. There was no real mentioning of their role of having to manage staff within these

different regions, even though their management of staff was a major component of their role. A

range of defences were noted: avoidance (which manifested in their tendency to speak about the

mechanistic aspects of the role as opposed to focussing on the human element), projection (which

was expressed by them saying that their teams were not making much of an effort to understand

diversity within the team and better manage their conflict) and isolation (all participants reported

experiences of spending most of their time in their office so as to avoid having to connect with their

teams as a leader). Following a few sessions of coaching, participants realised that their defences

were promoting anti-task behaviour and detachment from their roles (Klein, 2005), which is to

connect with their direct subordinates and colleagues. Consequently, evidence was found to

support the psychodynamic claim that participants may attach themselves to the rational aspect of their role and detach from the complex dynamics of working with their introjections and projections. Coaching allowed them to explore this and work towards integration of the different aspects of their roles.

4.5   Conclusions

This section of the paper was a review of the effects of a systems-psychodynamic coaching intervention aimed at helping multinational leaders to better manage conflict situations. Feedback from the coaches revealed that, although it was a challenge to get coachees to commit to the reflective elements of the task, which did slow down the process, the longitudinal nature of the study allowed time for participants to become familiar with this. Overall, coachees reported that the sessions helped them to think differently, as they were able to "step out of their comfort zone" and confront their conflict-avoidant styles. Besides this, concordant with what was predicted, the findings from this study seem to demonstrate that a systems-psychodynamic coaching approach is appropriate for helping leaders to improve their self-awareness and manage conflict (Hedges, 2015). Despite concerns that cultural factors might interfere with the overall impact of the process, the intervention was well received and developments identified. All reported enjoying the process and both coach and coachees were able to explore the covert roots of behaviour that "lies beneath the surface". This approach enhanced coachees' insight into potentially hidden behavioural motivators, such as avoidance, which they eventually were able to own. Popular coaching approaches cannot be used to uncover such content, as they fail to reach this depth. Thus, CIBART seemed to make the job of analysing such data more manageable.

Though highly useful for consultants, as seen, systems-psychodynamic coaching takes time to work. It was partially owing to the longitudinal focus of this investigation and a skilful coach that changes were facilitated. It is therefore recommended that those interested in making use of such an approach familiarise themselves with the theory and practice upon which the process rests.

Failure to do so could pose a threat to the validity of the investigation. Further, whilst the approach cannot be used to generate universal laws or truths, it did enrich the frame of reference of the consultant. Thus, it may be more suited to occupational psychologists who have studied psychodynamic theory and are able to at least identify unconscious meaning and content, which is core to change management practice.

4.6 Reflections on the research process

My interest in undertaking this intervention process analysis research was mainly due to my exposure of working to develop executives within the Middle East region through use of systems-psychodynamic executive coaching. Having worked with executives over several years, I came to realise that conflict management is a major aspect of their role, and it is one that most refer to as a challenging element.

As a psychoanalytically informed occupational psychologist, I practise by combining elements of these approaches, which for those who see these disciplines as opposing may find difficult to grasp. Nonetheless, I remain keen and interested in finding ways in which they can be combined. Specifically, as a scientist-practitioner, I wanted to test the applicability of psychodynamic theory by assessing whether adopting this coaching approach would be effective in helping executives better manage conflict, and whether this could be measured more systematically. Specifically, I was keen to see whether data collected from this intervention could be analysed using the CIBART theoretical framework. Although aware that I could have approached this analysis in different ways – interpretivist/constructivist and perhaps the positivist/scientific paradigms – I reasoned that my plans to analyse the data fit better with post-positivist assumptions, on the premise that, while it appreciates objectivity, it also credits the influence of the researcher (Morgan, 1983). However, on reflecting on the assumptions of post-positivist the epistemology, and the dual role I played in this process as scientist-practitioner and researcher, reflectively speaking, which was at times difficult to manage owing to the boundaries not being clear-cut, I can now see how my positioning might have interfered with the research process. For example, there

were times when I questioned the idea of the researcher acting as an instrument, as if one's subjectivity could really be suspended.

Executive coaching, despite following a methodological approach, is also dependent on a rapport being built between coach and coachee. Some go as far as to say that this "rapport" is influenced by chemistry that is formed between those parties involved. For example, if a coachee does not experience ease and experience a certain amount of comfort in speaking to the coach, this may lead to disengagement and may result in them exercising their right as participants to withdraw from the process. Fortunately, I did not encounter these issues in my role as researcher. Reflecting on this, I can see how this impacts the relationship between researchers and participants, which according to positivism is supposed to be independent.

Reflecting back on my role as both a researcher/academic and coach in this study, I acted as a human instrument as I was interacting directly with participants through data collection procedures. Besides this, the themes I used were predetermined as not only did I play an active role in the research but I also used a systems-psychodynamic approach to frame my analysis. Had I taken an inductive approach to data analysis, the themes would have emerged, and my role would have been, according to Taylor and Ussher (2001), more passive. I found it difficult to free myself from my theoretical and epistemological commitments, and data are not coded in an epistemological vacuum (Morgan, 1983).

The participants in this study were not at all familiar with having to reflect in the way that was expected. Although they were keen to engage in reflective action, initially at least two of the participants expressed that they questioned whether doing this would really lead them to identify their approach to conflict, with the view to developing competence in this area. This is very different to the way I think about reflection, and what I have read about it. From my perspective, reflection is a fundamental step in any process. However, because I was so immersed in the process, and perhaps seeing myself as a consultant who has all the answers, I did not stop to consider how others might view reflection.

There is a trade-off, of course, between bringing a lot of prior theorising to the theme-identification effort and approaching it with no preconceived ideas. Prior theorising, as Charmaz (1990) said, can inhibit the forming of fresh ideas and the making of surprising connections. In examining the data from a more theoretical perspective, researchers must be careful not to find only what they are looking for. Assiduous theory avoidance, on the other hand, brings the risk of not making the connection between data and important research questions.

CHAPTER FIVE (5)

A Case Study Analysis of Employee Perceptions of "Good-Enough" Organisational Care (GEOC): The Emotional Impact of Change on Employees

5.0 Chapter introduction

This paper presents a case analysis to demonstrate how the psychodynamic approach can contribute to the study of employee commitment to the organisation. Winnicott's "good-enough" care (GEC) theory provides insight into how attachment relationships between employees and the organisation are formed and dissolved. Previous studies from social psychology have already offered a perspective on this, through their findings, which indicate that employees form an emotional attachment to organisations when they perceive support from the organisation (POS); this has a strong evidence base. However, this study extends the perceived organisational support/affective commitment literature beyond the norm of reciprocity by examining the components of care that influence employee commitment to the organisation. This approach is unique. Additionally, the similarities between POS and GEC were investigated. In addition to a survey, additional data were construed from observations, and HR records on absenteeism were used to corroborate the evidence. Winnicott's "three components of GEC care" were used as an instrument to measure and analyse data from nine lecturers, which revealed significant changes in employees' perception of the organisation pre- and post-change. Lecturers seemed to showed greater commitment to the organisation prior to the period of change, which suggests key differences in the types of care they perceived at the different points. To conclude, a reflexive statement is offered, to show awareness of the researcher's role on research outcomes, including the study design and epistemological fit.

5.1 The development of emotional and psychological relationships between employees and employers

Employees place a lot of value on the care and support they perceive from their organisation

(Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Fuller et al., 2003; Stamper et al., 2003; Aubé et al., 2007; Allen et al., 2008). Perceived organisational support (POS) defines the degree to which employees perceive their organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986; Orpen, 1994). According to Çakar & Yıldız, (2009), when employees perceive support from the organisation it is said to influence their general reactions to their job, including job satisfaction (Zumrah, 2015), job involvement (George and Brief, 1992), organisational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), intention to leave (Guzzo, Noonan & Elron, 1994) and feeling more orientated towards the organisation and their role (Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stuart & Adis, 2015).

Loi, Hang-yue and Foley (2006) found that some employees who perceive support feel indebted and respond favourably to the organisation in the form of positive job attitudes and organisational behaviours, and also support organisational goals. Others have identified links between employees' perception of organisational support and employee attendance rates (Eisenberger, Huntington & Hutchison, 1986), organisational spontaneity and in-role performance (Eisenberger et al., 2001), and extra-role behaviour (Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski & Aselage, 2009). Besides this, research suggests that many employees expect organisations to demonstrate some element of care towards them, whether this is made explicit or forms part of their psychological contract (Freese & Schalk, 2010). Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stuart and Adis's (2015) findings support this, as some employees reported that they trust that organisations will fairly compensate employees in exchange for their efforts, support their needs and make their work interesting and stimulating.

However, the most researched finding is that employees who perceive care are more likely to form an emotional attachment to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 2008; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Farh et al., 2007). Affective commitment is described as an emotional bond between employer and employee (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Arshadi & Hayavi, 2013). Employees who develop an affective commitment to the organisation are seen as having a sense of belonging and

identification that increases their involvement with organisational activities (Arshadi & Hayavi, 2013). This can be compared to the other types of commitment identified by Meyer and Allen (1991), such as "normative" commitment, whereby employees feel obliged to stay with the organisation, and "continuance" commitment, which concerns fear of loss. However, despite the monetary factors such as compensation and pay that influence normative commitment (Aubé et al., 2007), Meyer and Allen (1990) regard affective commitment as having the most impact on employees. Considering the benefits to be gained from having committed employees, including the type of care likely to influence this, the collaborating organisations and others might find this area of research relevant and particularly interesting.

However, there are alternative ways of explaining the emotional/psychological relationships that are said to form between employees and employers. For example, findings from research into "psychological contracts" have also shown that relationships form when employees perceive that their employer has met its obligations; these relationships therefore dissolve when employees perceive a breach in the contract or feel violated (Rousseau, 1989, 2001; Jermias, 2012; Allen, 1964; Albarracin, Johnson & Zanna, 2014). However, as a psychological contract breach is a subjective perceptual evaluation by an individual, it can result from various issues such as a discrepancy in the perceived obligations between the parties. This suggests that the perception of the incongruence between employee and employer is dependent on the individual and contextual factors. As Rousseau (1998) argues, the perception of mutuality rather than actual mutuality is at the heart of the psychological contract; therefore the concept is, by definition, about a belief that a reciprocal relationship exists and is mutually understood. The same can said in the case of perceived organisational support, because it is built on the idea of a belief about employer support rather than actual support. Thus, through use of an operationalisation process, this study aims to standardise the classification of these perceptions, using Winnicott's theory as a framework for analysis.

5.2   Theoretical framework

While the link between POS and affective commitment (AC) is highly supported in the literature, scholars engaged in this area of research have not reached consensus as to the nature of organisational commitment, particularly how it develops (Mercurio, 2015). Thus, little is known about how affective commitment (emotional bonds) are formed, and which type(s) of care strengthens these (Fuller et al., 2003; Stamper et al., 2003; Aubé et al., 2007; Allen et al., 2008). This has given rise to many unanswered questions about how Meyer and Allen's (1990) theory actually works when applied, and it creates a problem for practitioners who are keen to devise interventions to retain key talent (Mercurio, 2015). For example, what is it about the care employees perceive from their employer/organisation that results in the formation of an emotional bond? Why do emotions underpin this bond? Emotional bonds do not form overnight – they can take some time to form. Further clarification is therefore needed to guide future research and evidence-based practice.

Perceived organisational support draws on the social exchange theory developed by Blau (1964) to explain employee–organisation relationships. According to the theory, each party has perceptions and expectations regarding the behaviour of the other party; these perceptions and expectations govern that which both parties must render. Thus, both parties are said to benefit from the exchange because the exchange involves reciprocity (Tansky & Cohen, 2001). Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa (1986) argue that beliefs underlie employers' inferences concerning the care they offer to employees, which in turn contributes to the employees' levels of commitment to their organisations. Although the dominant approach has been to conceptualise the POS–AC link in terms of exchange and reciprocity, and empirical evidence supports the idea that these factors lie at the core of the POS–AC link (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001), alternative perspectives exist.

Some scholars have suggested that aspects of this relationship can be looked at from a social identity perspective, because POS enhances feelings of self-worth and esteem (Eisenberger &

Stinglhamber, 2011), and satisfaction of employees' socio-emotional needs such as esteem, approval and affiliation (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986; Fuller, Barnett, Hester & Relyea, 2003). More recently, Arshadi and Hayavi (2013) found evidence to suggest POS or organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE), which predicts AC. POS is also useful for socialising individuals into becoming members of that organisation, which creates greater affective commitment (Lee & Peccei, 2006). Shane, Terick, Lynch and Barnsdale (2006) identified that employees equally value emotional and social support, as they do reciprocity. Despite these theoretical propositions, empirical research has not examined social identity and how social exchange processes play a role in influencing employees' behaviour at an emotional level.

In view of the role played by emotions in the POS–AC link, this study employs psychoanalytic theory, namely that of Donald Winnicott (a leading child psychotherapist and psychoanalyst) to analyse the case. According to Winnicott, emotional bonds/attachments are formed on the basis of recipients experiencing three components of care, which make up "good-enough" care (GEC). The three elements of "good-enough" care describe the differences in the behaviours of caregivers: (a) "holding/containing" – to protect the child from unforeseen and sudden change; (b) "handling" – the child receives sensitive and responsive care from the caregiver; and (c) "object presenting" – involves presenting the outside world to the child so they can learn from it.

While Winnicott's theory offers a unique perspective of bond formation, it is not without flaws. For example, the sample was based on his independent analysis of infant/child interactions, making generalisations to other populations difficult. Besides this, Winnicott's theory was not created with the organisation in mind, nor has it been used for explaining organisational behaviours, unlike Meyer and Allen's (1991) research. Beyond this, the theory does not provide empirical evidence to support any claims that the two types of attachment relationship – GEC and POS–AC, as stated above – are comparable. Nonetheless, numerous researchers whose findings suggest a link between POS and AC, such as Meyer and Allen's (1991), is arguably an expression of the type of

care to which Winnicott refers. For example, both "good-enough" care and a positive relationship between POS and AC are found when the recipients are satisfied with the quality of care perceived/received.

This paper therefore argues, on the strength of empirical support for the POS–AC link, that Winnicott's good-enough care theory can potentially offer a new insight into the formation and maintenance of emotional bonds in the workplace. Thus, for the purpose of this research, perceived organisational support was likened to that of "good-enough" care. In an attempt to examine this linkage, GEC theories were used to illuminate the phenomenon of the bond that develops between the employer as a care provider and the employee as the recipient of care, as per the POS–AC.

Examining the parallels between mothering and employer/organisational care within these theoretical frameworks is an attempt to further illuminate the complexity and workings of employee–employer relationships. While attachment theory offers a perspective that centrally values relationship, taking a somewhat biological approach, relational theory offers a more complex, "two-person" approach, which is an alternative way of understanding these work-based relationships.

This analysis, therefore, seeks to investigate whether employees' poor perception of GEC was a factor that influenced the lecturing team's commitment to the organisation following their experience of a period of organisational change. The key assumption made is that Winnicott's theory can offer an explanation for the relationship between POS and AC. The case study is presented in the next section.

5.3   The business case for organisational change

The case study provides an example of a change management process applied by management to a London-based business school in 2012. Business School X was incorporated in 2000 and is situated within a large further education establishment in the south-west of London, offering undergraduate and postgraduate management and professional courses to over 800 home

and international students. Owing to its competitive prices, the school became a popular choice for international students. In an attempt to respond to market demand, management took the initiative to increase the provision of business courses and places to accommodate the needs of international students. Prior to the change, staff retention and satisfaction figures were reported as exceptional. This figure plummeted within the first year of the change, with employees reportedly less satisfied and committed to the organisation. The school's structure was semi-hierarchical in that there were three layers within the organisation: management, lecturers, and administrators. The administration role was to serve the purpose of managers only.

5.4   Problem definition, cause and context

The problem identified in the case study was a lack of perceived care and support from employers during the change process. In light of the findings discussed previously, employees who perceived a lack of organisational care and support during the period of change could then resist the change (Fineman, 2003). Findings further suggest that employees' perception of a lack of organisational care might also result in employees being less committed to the organisation (Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski & Aselage, 2009; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). A possible solution to this would be to (a) understand which behaviours and actions displayed by management have influenced employees' perception of a lack of care, and (b) restore employees' trust in management's handling of change initiatives. For example, the lecturing team expressed dissatisfaction regarding the way the change was handled as it impacted their roles and responsibilities in several ways. In brief, the issues for lecturers included: receiving late notification of the change initiative; being expected to manage class sizes that were greater than the capacity of the classroom, which was not only logistically incorrect but many considered this to be stressful; having to deliver and assess students with English proficiency levels lower than that recommended for enrolment on the course; and, lastly, the school having to face an internal inspection of teaching and learning soon after the change was implemented, which led to the school

being classified as "underperforming" and placed under "special measures". Immense pressure was placed on the lecturing team to ensure that improvements were made as failure to do would result in the school being closed down and being deemed "unfit" to operate. This dissatisfaction with the care and support provided by the organisation might have led employees to feel less committed to the organisation. (The full case study, based on data collected, is presented in Appendix 11.)

Winnicott's good-enough care and its relevance to affective commitment

As mentioned previously, while Winnicott's "good-enough" care theory (GEC) has earned much respect for its use and application in childcare and education contexts, particularly in terms of how attachments are formed, maintained and dissolved, there is no guarantee that it will add value and meaning when applied to the workplace. However, the vast literature in support of the relationship between perceived organisational support and affective commitment implies that employees are capable of forming emotional attachments to employees/organisations, who they perceive as caring for their well-being (Meyer & Allen, 2008). Plaisier Broese van Groenou and Keuzenkamp's (2014) findings from their research into employee-recipients' perspective of organisational care support this. They found evidence to suggest that those who felt supported by colleagues and supervisors, and who worked in supportive organisations, had higher odds of good outcomes. However, the findings imply that organisations should be explicit about their concern for workers, whilst the type of care researched in this study is not necessarily about actual "receipt" of care but rather care that is "perceived".

In light of the evidence above, suggesting a link between POS–AC, this paper argues that attachment behaviours are not exclusive to mother–infant relationships – people attach to organisations in a very similar way (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Beaton & Beaton, 1995). Employees do personify the organisation and personalise the treatment they receive accordingly (Levinson, 2005). Furthermore, Gouldner (1960) argues that employees who develop an affective attachment to the organisation do so because they perceive the organisation to be demonstrating signs of care and the treatment received is enhancing and positively influences their self-esteem,

approval, and affiliation with the organisation. Winnicott's three-component theory offers a way to measure GEC, which this research applied to a workplace setting. The three components of GEC, including commentary on how they might be expressed in a work setting, are presented below in Table 8.

Table 8

The three components of "good-enough" childcare context and work settings

Three components of "good-enough" care environments	Orthodox ideas of "good-enough care" in childcare settings and work settings
Containment or holding	This is the capacity to absorb and hold on to tensions generated by others to provide a favourable condition to allow humans to function until they are able to face up to intentions: 1) Keeping the baby safe from unpredictable and therefore traumatic events that interrupt going-on-being. 2) Caring for the baby: meeting all physiological needs through an understanding of what the baby is feeling like, i.e. through empathy. **Work settings:** protect the employee from unforeseen and sudden change
Handling	"Handling" at its best concerns the sensitive touch and responsive care of the carer, which will enable the child to experience emotional satisfaction in an integrated way. This helps the "cared for" to bring together the worlds of sensation and emotion and build a stable unity of mind and body. In the event of experiencing a "good-enough" environment, individuals become more connected: mentally, physically and emotionally, and authentic to self. **Work settings:** employee receives sensitive and responsive care from the manager/organisation
Object presenting	"Object presenting" is the way in which the outside world is presented. When this is done correctly and in consideration for one's needs, the cared for is ready to receive and explore and their independence is allowed. The "cared for" will experience some form of omnipotence and to be the author of their own success; a sense of oneness and trust in the world grown into an appreciation of both connection with others and their separateness. Individuals become confident in their ability to reach out and to make changes in the world and the infant expects to be met with understanding and responsiveness. **Work settings:** presenting the outside world to the employee so they can learn from it

Note: *adapted from Davis & Wallbridge, 1987, pp. 89–90.*

5.5   Propositions for the application of GEC theory to work settings

Based on the theorisation around Winnicott's components of GEC being able to explain the POS–AC link, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Proposition 1: Winnicott's "good-enough" care theory can be used as a framework to classify the lecturers' dissatisfaction with the organisational change, owing to the lack of care and support they perceived/received from the organisation.

Proposition 2: Winnicott's concept of "good-enough" care can be likened to and explain the concept of perceived organisational support. For example, when employees perceive a lack of organisational support this may be due to them experiencing a lack of one or more of the three components of care.

5.6   Research methodology

Participants

Nine lecturers (age range 30–65) from a London-based business school were purposively selected through an internal networking process. Purposeful sampling was used so I could ensure that all participants had been a lecturer within the business school before, during and after the change period, which would allow pre- and post-change comparisons to be made (Patton, 2002; Wittig, 2012). According to Maxwell (2005), "Purposeful sampling denotes a selection strategy in which particular settings, persons or activities are selected deliberately in order to provide information that can't be gotten as well from other choices" (p. 88). Measuring participants' perception of care from the organisation pre- and post-change within the business school was one of the study's main objectives. In terms of academic achievements, most participants had both bachelor's and master's degrees (80%). The mean tenure was five years (76.6%) and the mean salary was GBP 35,000 to GBP 40,000, as all were regarded as senior lecturers within the FE sector. Of the participants, 70% were male and 30% were female. All participants were living and working in London, United Kingdom, at the time of the investigation.

Materials

Perceived organisational commitment and affective commitment link

The survey was used at two points during the research (pre and post) to assess whether there was a difference between participants' correlated scores on two scales: "perceived organisational support" (POS) scale (Eisenberger, 1986) and "affective commitment" (AC) scale (Meyer & Allen, 1990) (see Appendix 9). The POS scale contains 36 items. The first base-assessment using this survey was in 2012, as I was engaged on an assignment to assess the level of commitment amongst members of the lecturing team and the impact of this on their perception of the organisational care. The findings back then indicated a strong, positive correlation – staff members that perceived care were more committed. However, the findings indicated full staff commitment. For this study, the same survey was used to see whether the two data sets were comparable. These data were made available for me to reinspect for the case study, as it was my intention to retest staff using the same questionnaire to identify any differences in their opinion pre- and post-change.

Face-to-face interviews

Interviews were the primary method of data collection. All interviews involved current and retrospective accounts of individual perceptions of the type and level of care they perceived from the organisation and how this perception of their employer impacted their commitment to the organisation. Retrospective accounts are widely used by management researchers and are generally regarded as valid research tools, if carefully used (Miller, Cardinal & Glick, 1997; Forgues & Vandangeon-Derumez, 1999). Golden (1992) has criticised the use of positivist, retrospective accounts on the basis of their many failures, including participants' faulty memories, over-simplification, and subconscious attempts to maintain self-esteem. Data collected from the interviews would help to establish whether anything about the way in which the change was managed had impacted the lecturing team and whether, from the lecturers' perspective, the way in which the change was managed contributed towards the school's failure. Firstly, evidence of the

three components was coded categorically so that "HC" represented components of care and "HO" represented no component of care. Thereafter, "1" was represented as a GEC component and "0" represented no GEC component identified.

Behavioural response to change

Four staff meetings were observed to understand the dynamics between management and the lecturing team, specifically around the topic of the change. The purpose of the observation was to gain further insight into employees' perception of management and their level of commitment. Specifically, I was keen to find out (a) what was happening, and (b) what was causing it. For example, there were occasions when management mentioned the change and the lecturers became quiet all at once. Lecturers became vocal again when the topic of conversation changed. This was understood to be the cause of some conflict about the topic; therefore, the observation would be that "the lecturers responded to the change by becoming quiet". Thus, group behaviour was prioritised over individual behaviour. Participants were asked whether they spoke about the change during the staff meetings. This was coded so that "1" represented an expressed behaviour in response to listening to conversations about the change, and "0" not having expressed any behaviour in response to listening to conversations about the change.

Absenteeism

Participants' personnel data were obtained from human resources. I reviewed aggregate absenteeism and sickness data on participants so as to identify any differences in participants' behaviour before and after the organisational change.

Procedures and design

A longitudinal case study design was adopted over a 10-month period, with a six-month interval between the two measurement times, particularly in the case of the survey.

Yin (2003) defines a case study as an "empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 13). The rationale for use of the case study approach therefore follows Yin's (2003) recommendations of the need to satisfy three conditions: (a) the research questions take the form of "how" and "why"; (b) the researcher is outside the "case", which according to Yin (2003) means that (c) the researcher does not have control over actual behavioural events. Apart from point (c), all assumptions were met.

Data were collected in London, UK, between September 2012 and July 2013. To approach potential participants, I emailed the head of the business school as I had previously had experience of carrying out consultancy projects for the school. It was a requirement that participant lecturers had to have been employed in their role throughout the investigation period to participate in the study. The school's administration team sent out the study invitation and informed consent document to inform all 20 lecturers within the school about the research.

To measure the impact of the change on lecturers' perception of the school/organisation as a provider of "good-enough" care for employees, data were gathered during two different time periods, which can be classified as "pre"/T1 = September 2012–December 2012 and "post"/T2 = May 2013–July 2013. At T1, Eisenberger's (1986) perceived organisational support (POS) scale and Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective commitment (AC) scale were administered. At T2, data were collected from participants via a 90-minute interview, and they were required to complete the survey again so that the impact of the change could be measured across the investigation time period. Winnicott's three-component model of "good-enough" care (GEC) was used to classify the verbal descriptions of participants collected from the interviews, which were later transcribed. In view of the extensive body of literature that supports the POS–AC link, it was assumed that a lack of perceived care could be linked to Winnicott's idea of GEC. To corroborate the evidence to test Winnicott's theory, additional data such as absenteeism records from human resources and notes taken during two staff meetings about the change were gathered for this time period. According to

Green, Camilli & Elmore (2006), a carefully conducted case study benefits from having multiple sources of evidence, which ensure that the study is as robust as possible.

Ethics

Owing to my previous working relationship with the organisation, I had to make additional ethical considerations. For example, it was possible that some participants would have already encountered me in a professional capacity, which might impact their consenting behaviour (Fischman, 2000; Blanck, Bellack, Rosnow, Rotheram-Borus & Schooler, 1992). According to Miller (2003), when faced with this situation some participants report feeling awkward about declining participation (Miller, 2003). However, to manage this, it was made clear to participants through the consent form and by me that there was no pressure for them to participate. From a more practical perspective, prior to the data collection period, participants were reminded of their right to withdraw from the study at any point. For example, in briefing participants it was made clear that they were not required to answer questions that they were uncomfortable about or did not want to answer. In addition to this, participants were reassured that any refusal to participate would not be interpreted as potentially damaging to the research and, most importantly, this would have no negative consequences for them.

Another ethical issue concerns my positioning as an "insider" researcher. According to Smyth and Holian (2008), being an insider means being embedded in a shared setting and emotionally connected to the research participants (Sikes, 2008), with an awareness of the hidden rules and culture of the organisations' functioning. While insider status may confer privileged access and information, the researcher's positioning may act as a constraint (Holian, 2008); this can pose limitations to those who are willing to participate and what is revealed (Sikes, 2008). For example, even though informed consent is reached at the start of the research relationship, there is no real guarantee that it will cover all that will be encountered throughout the study (Clandinin &

Connelly, 2000). With insider research, ethical considerations do not fade into the background once the study has been completed; sensitivities still exist, as insider researchers have to live with the consequences of their actions (Drake, 2010). Besides this, insider researchers cannot "unhear" what they have been told by participants (Heath, 2008). In view of this, and in an attempt to address this, it became a fundamental priority to brief participants to assure them that their responses would be kept under the strictest level of confidence. Additionally, it was decided that, in the event of publication, this research would be published under a pseudonym, although this would prevent appropriate recognition of me for career and professional development purposes.

Finally, another ethical issue associated with insider research concerns the idea that this familiarity between researcher and participants may be counterproductive, as an element of bias could creep in (Floyd & Arthur, 2012). For example, the choice of participants may be predisposed in favour or against the proposed intentions of the research process. Keeping a reflexive account of the research journey and sharing these reflections with readers in a separate reflexive section, similar to the one presented in relation to this study on pages 179–182 was the approach I took to address this issue.

Epistemology

I approached the investigation from a post-positivist perspective as it recognises methodological pluralism. The role I played interacting, gathering data and analysing the findings met the assumptions of post-positivism, one being that knowledge cannot be divorced from ontology (being) and the personal experience of the researcher (Wildemuth, 1993). Considering my previous engagements with the organisation and therefore my familiarity with the culture and some of its members, an approach that emphasised multiplicity and complexity in terms of the relationship between the observer and the observed was adopted.

Data analysis to test Winnicott's three components of "good-enough" care

Data were transcribed then analysed and independently coded by two coders, one of whom was myself as the researcher, as is often preferred (Baily, 2008). Using more than one researcher to perform the analysis separately and then discuss their results is one way to increase validity and ensure triangulation (Burnard, 1991; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Deductive thematic content analysis was used to conduct the analysis, as Winnicott's "good-enough" care theory was selected as the predetermined framework, on the strength of the literature discussed earlier. High reliability is assumed considering that the code list was generated deductively (Catanzaro, 1988). As Babbie (2010) posits, "deduction begins with an expected pattern that is tested against observations" (p. 52); thus, the themes identified correspond with Winnicott's three components of "good-enough" care and were labelled accordingly: holding, handling and object presenting. These three components of "good-enough care" guide my propositions. To ensure consensus between coders, each transcript was discussed ahead of data being collaboratively placed under its relevant theme heading. All coding disagreements were resolved through discussion, and 100% consensus was achieved prior to any data analysis. To facilitate the use of Winnicott's model as a practical prediction rule, the theory-based illustrations from the interview scripts and observation notes were counted and placed according to their respective labels "holding", "handling" and "object presenting".

5.7   Results

The results presented in this section illustrate participants' perception of care from the organisation before, during and after the period of organisational change. Quotations are used to support and highlight explanation of the findings, and they are organised under the corresponding theme heading; as already stated, the three themes of Winnicott's GEC were used to classify the data. The illustration concerns retrospective, collated accounts given by the group of lecturers who participated in the interviews.

Theme/GEC component 1: holding/containing

"Good-enough" environments are characteristically known to keep individuals safe by containing their anxiety and reducing stress (Winnicott, 1960). Analysis of the data collected from the lecturing team provides little evidence to suggest that the business school fulfilled the first GEC criteria. Lecturers reported that news about the change was both "sudden and unexpected". "Little information about what the plans were to introduce international students to the school and how it would affect them. By the time an update about the change was provided it had already been implemented". This was "extremely disruptive". Many felt threatened by the change and "feared that if they did not perform exactly how management wanted them to it would result in job losses". Unfortunately, management did not gather the perspectives of staff and therefore they were unaware of staff's concerns. This is not concordant with what is expected from a "holding" environment (Winnicott, 1960).

What did remain stable during the change was their "constant busy and hectic timetables, which allowed them little time to plan for future lessons, reflect on past ones and assess students' work". However, some attributed this to the fact that all members of the lecturing team were on permanent contracts so their "hours and work tasks were guaranteed". Little empathy was observed as to what the lecturers were expected to do, i.e. "teach two seminar groups at the same time" and "mark over 200 assignments in just 20 working days", which was "unreasonable" and certainly did not serve to ward off anxiety.

Theme/GEC component 2: handling

Under "good-enough" circumstances, employees should feel more connected to the environment through their employer being both sensitive and responsive to their needs (Winnicott, 1967). Sensitivity refers to the ability to be delicately aware of the feelings and attitudes of employees; responsiveness is the ability to react quickly and appropriately. Emotional bonds between employee and employer are formed on this very basis (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Unfortunately, the change gave rise to much anxiety and stress amongst members of the lecturing team. When reported stress and absenteeism rates were compared pre- and post-change, an increase was identified, indicating that staff found the current period to be more stressful than previous times. Making comparisons between different periods of change is seen as a physical measure of its impact (CIPD, 2013).

The severity of the impact of the change was also identified. For example, two permanent members of the lecturing team were off on long-term sickness, which they and their colleagues claim to be the direct result of how unpredictable the job had become and how much strain was placed on employees. It is for this reason that it is difficult to claim that the management's behaviour in relation to how the change was managed fulfilled the second criterion: "handling". Coupled with this, employees explicitly commented on experiencing a "perceived lack of organisational care", which can be likened to Winnicott's idea of there being "not good-enough care". Most of the lecturers felt that the organisation had failed to recognise and respond adequately to their needs before, during and after the period of change. As a result of this, the lecturers began to display a range of behaviours, which were not supportive of the change – many posing detrimental to the organisation's functioning.

This change in behaviour of the lecturers towards the organisation was influenced by the care they had received from the organisation. This behaviour can be explained by what is termed "the norm of reciprocity", which in this case defines a strong positive relationship between organisational care and employee commitment to the organisation. This is supported by the findings from the survey. However, unfortunately, in this case the opposite happened: owing to staff being disappointed over the way in which the change was handled, their commitment to the organisation faltered (Rhoades, 2002; Levinson, 1968).

Theme/GEC component 3: object presenting

The way in which the change was introduced "came as a shock" to the lecturing team. In view of this, it cannot be said that the behaviour of management helped to build trust between

management and staff. Rather, staff reported feeling more "mistrusting of them" as they really had not expected such a sudden change. With only one month's notice, lecturers were expected to implement the changes in their practice with immediate effect. Also, although news of the change was formally announced, it allowed for no consultation period with staff. Those worst affected were the part-time staff members because they were not invited to the meeting and therefore did not learn about the change until they saw their new timetables, which contained extra hours and additional classes.

Considering the school's roll numbers had more than doubled, the classrooms and capacity of the school were no longer big enough to accommodate them. However, this was not taken into account by management and nothing was done to correct this. The administration team responsible for the school was also struggling to manage the number of students on the books.

As well as having to deal with the demands of large class sizes, little information about the educational backgrounds of these learners was provided to the lecturing team. The reason for this was identified as being due to the management's decision to mask the fact that the language proficiency of this cohort would be lower than previous cohorts. This impacted on the lecturers' workload, as the marking of assessments required extra time so as to accommodate for such issues. At least 70% of the learners' English proficiency was poor and below the level outlined in the admission criteria. Staff discovered that management had changed the entry criteria, which was the strategy they used to increase the number of student admissions.

5.8   Discussion

This study sought to explain the reasons employees' perception of organisational support/care changed during the periods before, during, and after organisational change. In doing so, it employed Winnicott's GEC theory to analyse data from the case study to examine the role of emotional attachment in the relationship between employees' reported perception of the organisation's care (POS) and affective commitment (AC), as identified in the literature (Meyer &

Allen, 2005). Specifically, the study aimed to test whether Winnicott's "good-enough" care theory could be applied to classify and explain the development and dissolution of employee–employer attachment relationships, as research into this area is non-existent. This study therefore sought to contribute to this gap through its application of Winnicott's three components of care to analyse the data, which will be addressed in this discussion.

Overall, the findings suggest that Winnicott's "good-enough" care theory along with the three-component model of "good-enough" care was indeed useful for classifying participants' dissatisfaction with the organisational change, in terms of their perception of how the change was handled by management, and its impact on them. Data collected from the interviews, observations, archival records, and comparison of pre- and post-survey data suggest differences in participants' perceptions of organisational support following the change; namely, the analysis of interview data, which were classified using the three components of care descriptors, suggested that participants perceived the school as failing to fulfil the criteria to demonstrate "good-enough" care. This helps to explain why, during the T2 (post-change) period, analysis of survey data indicated a lack of perceived organisational care and low commitment to the organisation compared to the T1 (pre-change) period, where a strong positive relationship between POS and AC was found.

Besides this, the findings also suggest that the "good-enough" care theory can be likened to that of POS, in the sense that both concepts have been found to influence attachment-like behaviours (Fotaki, Long & Schwartz, 2012). However, further research into this unique link is required. In respect of explaining infant–mother emotional bonds, this case indicates that Winnicott's model can be considered useful for classifying alternative types of attachment behaviours, including those formed in the workplace. After all, there are many aspects of organisational life that are similar to family life: people capable of expressing emotions, boundaries, structure and care (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Fineman, 2003). However, further investigation and empirical support are required to substantiate this claim. Nonetheless, the findings suggest that, as well as valuing organisational care, employees are capable of distinguishing between different types

of care perceived or received from their employer/organisation. Employees' emotional and care needs can play a fundamental role in influencing their perspective of the organisation, as indicated by this case study.

The findings are, however, necessarily limited in this study to lecturers who were relatively well-educated professionals in skilled jobs, with potentially sustainable careers. Moreover, the participants were able to articulate the subtleties of their personal experiences and feelings about the change. There is no guarantee that a similar effect would be observed amongst participants whose credentials differ from those of the participants. Nonetheless, it is still arguable whether what manifests in verbal accounts provides data that capture the "real" context of informants (Bengtsson, 2016).

Despite the implications associated with the small sample and the impact of this on generalising the effect of perceptions of GEC, the findings from this study suggest that, when the care provided by the organisation lacked elements of the three components of care, a loss of commitment amongst employees was noted. Although Winnicott's theory was not developed to identify and solve problems in the workplace, the illustrative evidence construed from this study suggests that the "good-enough" care theory can be likened to that of the link between perceived organisational support and affective commitment, which has explanatory power, as shown in this study (Fotaki, Long & Schwartz, 2012). On a more ontological level, because the GEC concept lies within the minds of some practitioners and not their practice, generally it is explored more from a subjectivist paradigm. This suggests that perceptions of what constitutes "good-enough" care can vary significantly from one individual to the next (Bach, 1997), suggesting that one's perception and knowledge of this type of care is socially constructed and interpreted as opposed to it being regarded as a set of shared assumptions.

In view of the above, further research is required to fully investigate the link between good-enough care, perceived organisational support and affective commitment. For example, one might investigate the extent to which employee engagement/disengagement and/or high or low

performance can be explained from a Winnicottian perspective, and whether this is linked to employees' perception of care from the organisation. In addition, a next step would be to design an instrument that is capable of measuring good-enough organisational care. The full list of recommendations based on the case study findings are presented in Appendix 12.

5.9   Reflections on the research process

My interest in undertaking this research stems mainly from my past experience of advising on the management of change in academia, and designing interventions to that effect. These experiences have shaped my understanding about the detrimental impact of change, particularly when the procedure has been managed without making consideration for employee emotions. My personal experience of being an employee/academic and being exposed to a change intervention led to my colleagues and me having to deliver HE modules to large cohorts in small classrooms, assess the work of students who were recruited despite their level of English proficiency being below the accepted standard, and much more. This was a stressful period. Similarly, in the case study, apart from the logistical issues, the impact of the "ill-managed change" resulted in many of the lecturers becoming stressed or ill or showing signs of absenteeism or presenteeism, which is similar to the behaviours that I directly observed amongst my colleagues. This impacted their performance at work immensely, and it strengthened my interest and commitment to exploring inclusive ways (beneficial to employees and employers) to manage change, by examining some of the hidden psychological factors that have been found to compound it.

Thus, there are many similarities between myself and the participants described in this case study. Other than those already mentioned, similar to myself, they are HE lecturers who have encountered the harsh reality of change associated with the delivery of HE in FE institutions. Besides this, I had previous experience of working within the same institution, not just as a lecturer but also as a consultant. In view of this, I would consider myself to be more familiar with and aware of some of the organisational problems that impact employee performance and response to

change in such a context. For example, as well as consulting for the business school I have also undertaken research for the HR department. Having this "insider" outlook, I feel, has contributed to the approach I took to researching organisational behaviours within the school. I am also mindful of the similarities that exist between me and the participants, which might have resulted in me being more empathic and could arguably have impacted aspects of the research process (Hammersley, 1993). However, I made efforts to exert extra control over this to ensure that it did not bias the research process.

My role as a researcher in this process is likely to have influenced participants' views of me. I was introduced to participants as a management consultant and occupational psychologist who specialises in change and conflict at work. I considered how this background information might have shaped participants' views of me, considering my previous work engagement with the school. I recognised that, due to my previous engagement with the organisation, it is possible that some participants might have perceived me as being more of an "insider" as opposed to an independent and external consultant. This could have led some to not answer honestly or withdraw from participation. Alternatively, some participants might have interpreted my position as one that was earned as a result of the quality of my work, my "likeability" or my ability to use myself as an instrument. However, these are just my assumptions, therefore I cannot make any claim to fully understand how my role and positioning was perceived by participants. I could have made effort to seek out this information, however I did not think that it would be appropriate and may have introduced further issues into the research process.

My relationship with the participants is also something to reflect on, considering the post-positivist assumptions I made about the research. Despite my intention to remain objective, I cannot be certain that this objective was met. For example, I used semi-structured interviews to gather employees' perspectives of the impact of change. This was facilitated through face-to-face interactions between the participants and me, which may have allowed further biases concerning identity to enter the process. Besides this, one cannot claim purity of paradigm because the

potential or actual impact of the researcher's behaviour and position is likely to play an influential role in this (Cottrell, 2014). Although the approach taken in this study was balanced by collecting quantitative information about participants, such as their absenteeism records, one cannot argue that it was completely "value-free". I used Winnicott's components of "good-enough care" (GEC) – holding, handling and object presenting – to assess whether they could help to explain employee dissatisfaction with the change, and I analysed the data using themes based on these components. Arguably, this provides evidence against polarisation (Bryman, 1989; Martin, 1990; Silverman, 1985). Nonetheless, because the data were analysed in a deductive way to test theories, I cannot claim that my position as researcher was independent of the data collection process, as positivism assumes. The decision I made about the appropriateness of what constitutes reliable and valid data was also based on my choice, and feedback obtained from my supervisors.

In conclusion, I am mindful of how my ethics, personal integrity and social values, as well as the complexity of my relationship with the organisation, might have influenced the research process (Greenbank, 2003, p. 278). For example, as indicated by Cottrell (2014), the researcher's world view and their epistemological positioning can be governed by their values and beliefs, which is in line with the assumptions of post-positivism (Hammond & Wellington, 2012). In view of this, I am aware and accept that very little research in the social and education sector can be value-free (Carr, 2000).

CHAPTER SIX (6)

Epilogue

6.0   Chapter introduction

This chapter serves to conclude the findings of the full thesis. In attainment of this, the reader is reminded of the initial objectives of the research, including a discussion of the methodological, theoretical and philosophical implications associated with the design in a reflexive manner. While the findings from the four investigations in some way demonstrate how organisational behaviours can be examined and understood through a psychoanalytic lens, these findings cannot be considered in isolation of the factors that might have influenced them: ontology, epistemology and the researcher's "positioning".

My initial question that prompted this research was: if practitioners were made aware of potentially hidden (unconscious) and emotional psychological processes that influence behaviour in the workplace, including appropriate measuring tools and instruments, would this aid their understanding of people management? Because I was keen to measure the impact of "below-the-surface" motivations on specific organisational behaviours, I adopted a combination of positivist and post-positivist approaches, particularly in Chapter 3 because the design of my research seemed to meet the assumptions that organisational realities have objective existence and could be studied scientifically using mainly quantitative techniques (Al-Habil, 2011). However, this approach, I discovered, is different from the interpretivist school of thought, which argues that organisational realities are not separate from those who work within them. As a result of my engagement in this research process and the challenges I encountered around objectivity, I have developed a greater awareness and understanding of those (e.g. Alvesson and Spicer, 2012) who have questioned the positivist approach and argue that value-free science is impossible on the premise that there are always some subjective reasons behind our decisions and actions. However, this realisation and greater awareness did not develop all in one go – at each stage of this research process I was

exposed to a different challenge that prompted me to think about the philosophical choices I had made.

In Chapter 3 I examined relevant literature as a way to introduce and demonstrate how systems-psychodynamic tools such as ORA and CIBART have been used to enable access to and insight into uncovering hidden psychological processes that influence behaviour. As well as discussing how these tools might enrich practitioners' enquiries, I suggested how useful they might be for designing self-development and staff-induction initiatives. However, most of what is known about psychoanalytic coaching methods is based on research findings that have been approached from an interpretivist perspective.

The empirical study presented in Chapter 3 indicated the role of hidden psychological processes, such as immature psychological defence mechanisms, on employees' propensity to resist change, and how this linkage is partially mediated by core self-evaluation. As my engagement with participants in the empirical study was kept to a minimum (in light of the survey-based nature of data collection), and statistical analysis was used to analyse the data, I felt my positioning had a lesser impact on the research process when compared to how I felt when I was engaged with the research I conducted for Chapters 4 and 5, for reasons that will follow. The findings from the intervention process analysis study in Chapter 4 seem to have confirmed that a predominantly Western tool such as systems-psychodynamic coaching was effective in assisting multinational leaders to (a) acknowledge and confront their avoidant behaviours and (b) be able to better manage conflict within their multinational teams. However, having reflected on my engagement in this research, I am more aware of how my positioning might have influenced this because, in using myself as a research instrument (role of coach), it was a struggle for me to remain objective. Although I followed a script when it came to asking questions, participants had varying answers and further questions, which I felt compelled to acknowledge. Last, Chapter 5 applied Winnicott's theory of "good-enough" care to further understanding of the relationship between employees' perception of organisational care (POS) and affective commitment (AC) to the organisation. The

findings show that the perceived organisational support (Meyer & Allen, 1997) instrument could be likened to the concept of "good-enough care", as a close match between its factorial structure and the "characteristics of GEC" as identified by Winnicott was found. Furthermore, the findings offer reasoning on how a lack of POS could hinder affective commitment – it offers insight into how increased levels of POS might positively influence employees' affective (emotional) commitment to the organisation. However, in a similar way to how I felt about my engagement in the research from the previous chapter, I struggled to maintain my objective stance in this research, which I attribute to the fact that I had prior knowledge and a working relationship with the organisation and some of its senior members (although they were not recruited as participants). For example, I was aware of some of the organisational issues that employees/participants were faced with.

Following the critical gaze I received from my examiners at my viva, although I can now see how my research could have been approached from more of a critical realist perspective, I still believe that my philosophical approach was appropriate. While critical realism recognises that all observation is fallible and has potential for error, all theory is also revisable, and because of this, therefore, our constructions must be imperfect (Morgan, 1993). Although positivist and post-positivist approaches are different mainly in terms of their perspective on how knowledge can be obtained, e.g. through direct observations, post-positivism accepts that phenomena such as emotions, or more specifically "below-the-surface" motivations, can be measured indirectly, and adopts a triangulation approach to measuring it. Post-positivism also recognises that there are limits to research. For example, post-positivism values other forms of enquiry, and it promotes the development of a reflexive attitude amongst researchers. Such an attitude will result in the researcher sticking with the process through the contradictions and tensions that arise during the course of research and not flinching from the challenges inherent in them. On reflection, I feel that I have achieved this.

Reflecting on the content of the thesis is testament to my awareness that management practitioners have a long tradition of examining, researching and identifying the more conscious

aspects of organisational behaviours, and I am interested in whether psychoanalysis can be used to balance this through its recognition of the role of emotions and unconscious factors in individual behaviours in the workplace. In saying this, I recognise and appreciate that some orthodox, management practitioners and scholars who focus on using "hard" HR approaches may still struggle to see how psychoanalytic concepts, such as unconscious psychological defences, can shape organisational dynamics. In addition, I recognise that psychoanalytic theory can be contested and problematic. However, at the very least, it may help those who work in this area to develop a more rounded picture of organisational influences, in particular the underlying dynamics of organisational change. I am not suggesting that occupational psychologists and management practitioners should become pseudo-psychoanalysts; rather, I am recommending that an eclectic approach be taken to view organisational behaviours, which could be gained through awareness and knowledge of psychoanalytic theory. Personally and consequentially, what I have learned is that much more work is needed before psychoanalysis can be considered useful for informing specific occupational psychology theory and practice.

6.1   Next steps

To sum up, psychoanalysis potentially has much to offer organisation and management studies – its unique claim of being able to access the roots behind organisational behaviours is testament to this. However, as is emphasised throughout the thesis, it is important to consider the "real" value of this approach, considering the range of conceptual, theoretical and methodological issues surrounding it. In addition, any attempt made to employ such an approach requires the researcher/practitioner to constantly reflect on their positioning throughout the process, including the philosophical stance they take, because there remains much controversy around the application of psychoanalysis and some of its concepts, which cannot be measured directly. Despite the anticipated challenges ahead with the opportunity ahead of putting psychoanalytic theory and its application to management on an equal footing to that of critical social theory, neuropsychology,

environmental science, sociology and philosophy, there are many benefits to be gained from understanding "below-the-surface" motivations. For this reason, I am still keen to continue in my efforts to explore more robust ways of measuring such phenomena to assess the value of organisational psychodynamics to the practice of people management; however, I will approach this in a more reflective and less biased way.

I will begin with designing customised self-development tools that might enable practitioners to access and examine hidden psychological motivators, with a view to facilitating the development of a deeper knowledge of self. Not only might this serve to advance management thinking and practice but it also has the potential to build awareness and resilience amongst individuals and groups at work. Furthermore, psychoanalytic-based theories offer fertile ground for investigating the interaction between emotional and unconscious factors and organisational behaviours (Arnaud, 2012). Therefore, if management science claims to inform us of the best practice ways to manage people, then stakeholders should be aware of the possible factors that have the power to influence behaviour, including those that are hidden and unconscious, as research has indicated (Fotaki, 2012). Furthering understanding of such motivators offers a "third alternative" to the science of managing people, including the methodological tools available to fully investigate organisational behaviour.

In addition to raising awareness, I am keen to design a series of tools and interventions that practitioners could use for working with clients at a deeper level in the workplace. Currently, I am working to complete a group coaching intervention entitled "The Beneath Tool", which potentially can be used to explore hidden defence mechanisms, build core self-evaluations and offer a psychoanalytic perspective on the possible reasons why individuals resist change in organisations. For the academic community, I have been delivering short courses and workshops on psychoanalytic methodologies for use in business, which will include ORA, CIBART, Winnicott's "good-enough" theory, GELI and the systems-psychodynamic coaching approach, which commenced in September 2016. As a senior lecturer/module convenor of organisational behaviour,

it is my plan to embed aspects of psychoanalytic theory into at least two mainstream business management programmes, one undergraduate and one postgraduate level, again to offer an alternative perspective to orthodox management thinking. However, in view of the learning that I have obtained from this doctoral process about the implications associated with psychoanalysis, I will approach this with caution.

Currently, I am writing up two practitioner reports that report on the effectiveness of a defence mechanism awareness course aimed at banking and finance professionals. In addition to this, I am in the process of designing an emotional management/hidden psychological influences e-learning programme that will hopefully soon be rolled out to the public-sector staff groups for whom I currently work and design services.

In terms of my personal/professional developmental objectives, this doctorate process has enabled me to think more critically and develop awareness about my own biases around "best practice" and my preference for the psychoanalytic approach. In view of this, I plan to make a conscious effort to ensure that in my future practice and writing as a practitioner-scientist I will watch out for this weakness, as I now recognise the importance of maintaining a neutral, disinterested stance when presenting my work. In addition to this, I recognise that it can be difficult to maintain objectivity as a researcher, which is why I will ensure that from this point onwards I will take a more reflexive approach to the research process so that all stakeholders (including myself) will be more informed of the factors that have influenced my scientific and researcher positioning.

## 6.2	Final reflections on the research process and professional development

My interest in applying psychoanalytic theory to understand organisational behaviour has been strengthened by my practical and academic experiences; this journey has left me feeling more aware of the critical issues and tensions between psychoanalysis, occupational psychology and organisational/management theory. I have come to recognise that, despite my interest in and

preference towards psychoanalytic perspectives, my own opinion and practitioner-based experiences are not enough to satisfy claims that "below-the-surface" motivations exist. Despite efforts made by adherents of psychoanalytically informed practice to showcase its explanatory power, psychoanalytic concepts remain difficult to test. This awareness represents growth in my thinking and understanding of psychoanalysis, particularly the arguments concerned with placing unconscious motivations on an equal footing to structural and technical motivators of behaviour. For example, although I have argued that scientist-practitioners cannot claim to have a comprehensive understanding of life in the 21st-century workplace, particularly in these turbulent times, without acknowledgement of the role played by "below-the-surface" motivations, the problem of measuring these must be acknowledged, even if they are reported as fact or "truth". While it is true that the modern-day workplace and its staff members are riddled with uncertainty and change, it would appear that management still have a preference for utilising methods that can bring about tangible outcomes, which is where psychoanalysis falls short. However, owing to the lack of consensus regarding the status of the unconscious, many remain sceptical about making claims that suggest its impact on organisational behaviours. My awareness of this issue stems from the critical accounts I have read on psychoanalysis, and the perspectives of management I have obtained through my involvement and engagement with the participants with whom I liaised during this doctoral process. This represents a change in my perspective because, unlike before, I now fully accept and acknowledge that my role as a scientist-practitioner is not to expend efforts to "convince" others that psychoanalysis or, more specifically, "below-the-surface" motivation can explain organisational behaviour; rather, my role is to take an objective and critical stance into investigating the evidence base behind such claims.

In view of the reflections above, this doctoral journey has contributed to furthering my knowledge of the challenges and tensions practitioners may encounter in their efforts to work at a "below-the-surface" level. For example, practitioners may question how feasible it is to work at such depth considering the scientific standing of psychoanalysis (Fotaki, Long & Schwartz, 2012).

Practitioners who are less familiar with working in a psychoanalytic way may hold the belief that consulting at this depth is limited to only those who are qualified, highly skilled and experienced in this area. While this is true in some instances, this does not mean that psychoanalysis cannot offer unique explanations of organisational behaviours, as this thesis has shown. Also, despite my efforts to share my reflections of my encounters of working in a psychoanalytic way, there is no guarantee that fellow practitioners will encounter some of the difficulties I have faced. However, what might be shared amongst those who work in this way is the difficulty in trying to remain objective. Adopting a psychoanalytic approach for working with clients requires that practitioners get involved and engage with clients/participants, which is different from the scientific-enquiry approach. In fact, many question whether it is possible for practitioners to work at such a level without influencing research outcomes. For example, I struggled most when I was conducting the intervention process analysis (Chapter 4) and the case study analysis (Chapter 5) because I had to physically engage with participants to elicit data. During these periods, I questioned how much my researcher positioning would interfere with my interaction with participants, and my interpretation of data, which I considered would threaten my objectivity and conflict with the choices I made about my scientific positioning (i.e. positivism and post-positivism). Collectively, these experiences have made me recognise how important it is to approach future psychoanalytic-based intervention research from either a mixed-method or critical realist perspective. These perspectives are sensitive to both the subjective and objective elements that might influence the research process, and their assumptions are made on the premise that no paradigm can be applied in a pure form.

6.3   Reflexivity

My research journey has been remarkable and challenging – one that I can never forget. I have always shown some readiness to be challenged, and this doctoral process has certainly taught me a lot about my personal, professional and academic strengths, and the areas that I will need to work on to develop as a scientist-practitioner. For example, while I enjoyed the active elements of

negotiating access to participants and the data collection process, I struggled when it came to making clear choices about my philosophical positioning, and ensuring objectivity when writing up my thesis. At first, I found it difficult to write critically and objectively about something that I was subjectively a part of, e.g. Chapter 4, the intervention process analysis, and Chapter 5, the case study. I felt that the only way to report on my findings in an objective way would be to divorce myself from my involvement in the research process, and the influence I had on this, which I now know is no easy task. In fact, some argue that this task is impossible to achieve (Morgan, 1983).

Thus, from my perspective, this doctoral journey has differed from what I experienced at master's and bachelor's levels. Owing to the scale of the research, I have learned much more about the importance and implications of my philosophical assumptions, and how this can impact a researcher's decision-making and involvement in the process. At my viva, I discovered more about my examiners' critical gaze on my research, which made me feel the need to reflect on my knowledge of philosophy, which was an invaluable part of this research process that has certainly changed (for the better) my understanding of and perspective on methodology. For example, this process enabled me to reflect on my positioning, which helped me to discover more about my strong preference for psychoanalytic theory, thus helping me to reflect on how this impacted my efforts to remain objective. Although this preference developed from my past academic and practitioner experiences, I now know that, irrespective of my interest, my core responsibility as a scientist-practitioner is to ensure neutrality and base my argument on the evidence base. However, the struggle I faced to write objectively about the role of "below-the-surface" motivations might help to explain the reason I decided to adopt positivist approaches, as I felt that this was a strategy for dealing with the value-laden or personal interests in my decision-making. Had I not reflected on this, I doubt whether I would have developed an awareness of the difficulties posed by doing so, particularly in light of those (e.g. Morgan, 1983) who argue that value-free science is impossible. Such reflections have helped me to understand more about and accept the influential role played by my past practitioner experiences and my preference for investigating "below-the-surface"

motivations. In fact, considering the topic of this thesis, I have questioned whether these influences could themselves be treated as "below-the-surface" motivations, because at first I was unaware of how these subjective experiences had influenced my decisions and behaviour as a researcher in this process. Lincoln and Denzin (2000) recognise how difficult it is for oneself to perform the role as researcher, both within the data-gathering process and in the construction of research findings.

On further reflection of the above, I now understand why I struggled to step back from "blanket" defending of my positioning and interest in psychoanalysis, particularly in the initial write-up of my thesis and in my communication of the findings. Without realising, I seemed to have developed some form of "attachment", as it were, to the psychoanalytic theory, which seemed to prevent me from viewing some of my arguments and the evidence base in a critical manner. Lacan (1977) argues that subjectivities are constructed unconsciously, and are highly influential in the research process. Others might explain this failure to critique the theory as an expression of my resistance to changing my way of thinking about the topic in question (Foucault, 1972). Had I not followed the advice from my supervisors and the examiners, who strongly advised that I reflect on this, I doubt whether I would have understood how important it is to reflect. This experience has certainly been helpful for reminding me about the purpose and value of reflection. Reflecting in this way has made me more inclined to believe that individuals can develop emotional attachments not just to subjects, as is the focal point of attachment theory, but also to objects such as work/tasks or theoretical perspectives. However, despite this insight, I am reminded that the subjective perspectives of both participants and researcher will play a role in shaping this, because I accept that concepts such as "below-the-surface" motivations are socially constructed. Going forward, rather than sliding over the delicate issue of emotion within the research process, I will confront it through reflection, considering what I have learned from this research process.

Pre-viva, I defended the psychoanalytic approach and specifically "below-the-surface" phenomena as if they existed independent from my subjective viewpoint in such a way that, without realising, I had given it "ontology-realist" status, which is not possible considering the nature of the

phenomena. Although I assumed that the organisation is "real" and in many ways objective from

its members, it is difficult to acknowledge the role of unconscious motivation in isolation from its

constructed and subjective influences. Discussing this with my examiners at my viva, and then

having to work towards correcting this issue in my write-up, has taught me a very important lesson.

The effort I expended to explain and classify "beneath-the-surface" motivations led me to adopt the

positivist and post-positivist approaches as I believed them to be appropriate for achieving the

above, compared to the interpretivist paradigm. At the time, I seemed to think that taking a

positivist approach would provide me with tangible evidence for my findings, and refer to

unconscious or "below-the-surface" motivations as if they were "real", without showing awareness

for the view that such phenomena is constructed from subjective influences (Royer, 2013). At my

viva, this gave the impression of a rather biased perspective, and highlighted my limitation in

critiquing the phenomena. I now understand that the priority status I had given to positivism was

not at all justified.

By taking a positivist/post-positivist approach to my research, I suppose I was hoping that

this would reduce or even eradicate any form of subjectivity, which on reflection I now know is

more self-justifying than it is correct. For example, interpretivists could argue that subjective

reality is all that matters, on the premise that knowing the subject is most important. Although both

of the viewpoints above give the impression that priority status can be awarded to either of these

approaches, according to Feyerabend (1973), this is not accepted on the premise that "anything

goes", because all knowledge of the social world is to some degree socially constructed.

The above reflections and viewpoints help to explain why some critics of positivism

challenge the assumption that research can be value-free because there are always some subjective

reasons behind a researcher's decisions and actions (Al-Habil, 2011). For example, Wellington and

Bathmaker (2005) argue that an individual's view or position is not pure; it is "coloured" by one's

values and beliefs such as gender, sexuality, race, social class, political allegiance, religiosity and

geography. Scholars such as Soros (2008, 2009, 2010, 2012) offer an explanation for this

viewpoint by stating that individuals cannot understand the world and themselves separately because intrinsically we are a part of the world that we are seeking to understand.

The strong defence I put forward in favour of positivism and post-positivism (mainly the former) as opposed to pragmatism or even critical realism is problematic for various reasons. Prior to starting this research journey, my overall/philosophical outlook suggested a strong preference for understanding the world and the events within it from what I have come to realise is a misleading either/or form: i.e. an objectivist or subjectivist perspective. Despite my research focus on "below-the-surface" motivations, which essentially is a subjective experience, I was adamant that using predetermined themes and taking a deductive approach would help to distance myself from the process and let go of unimportant information that did not correspond to the study aims. Taking this approach lends support for a dichotomous way of understanding and explaining behaviour, such as making clear distinctions between that which is "subjective" and that which is "objective". I treated these dichotomies as actual boundaries and I thought that by adopting positivism and being rigid in my research approach I could separate myself from participants to ensure that the objective criteria of positivism was achieved. I suppose, in some way, I was attempting to "stay true" to the text and to achieve trustworthiness, as discussed by some research (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992; Morse & Richards, 2002; Patton, 2002; Silverman, 2001). However, as I engaged in the process fully, and now having reflected on my experiences, I can see that this is not possible. Research, particularly the relationship between researcher and participants, is more of a continual process whereby, for example, at one extreme, my chosen objective approach allows me to exert control over the research process; at the other extreme, however, I am definitely not in control, because my positioning is impacting the research process, and the positioning of participants could also be impacting me. I observed instances of this mainly when I was engaged in conducting the IPA and case study research, presented in Chapters 3 and 4.

Given the above discussion, I accept that I expended effort to remain objective in my approach; however, having learned much more about the rigidity of philosophical positions, I am no

longer convinced that my approach was completely value-free. Following the feedback I received

at my viva, and having reflected on my positioning, I have greater awareness of how factors about

my past, including the assumptions I make, can interfere with the research process. I am much

more aware of how my role as researcher might have be influenced by issues such as transference

and counter-transference, which are important issues to consider as they recognise that emotions

and feelings can be transferred between researchers and participants.

Another important lesson I learned from this process concerns my researcher-practitioner

positioning and the assumptions I made about the value and importance of my knowledge, which at

first I perceived to be sound. For example, when I am propositioned for consultancy-based

fieldwork, I am regarded in some way as an "expert", or at least as somebody who knows how to

design, implement, evaluate and manage occupational psychology projects. This is supported on

the basis of my knowledge around people management, my credentials, and my experience within

the field. Over the years I seem to have accepted, through a process of internalisation, that the

factors above are permanent facets of my professional identity. The problem with this is that I

mistook it to mean that my plight to project a somewhat "expert positioning" may hold up well in

most situations where my take on things is considered to add value in a community where thinking

in this way is a rarity; however, after reflection on my role and responsibilities as a scientist-

practitioner, I have learned that knowledge is fluid and what constitutes "truth" is always

contestable, including the perspectives with which I align myself, "best practice" and my own

subjective viewpoint. However, I agree with those (e.g. Rupp & Beal, 2007) who argue that best

practice provides ideals to strive for. For example, at my viva and from the examiners' report that

followed it, I learned about my biases and defensive approach in relation to psychodynamic

perspectives. Owing to my failure to reflect on these biases fully, they were acting in a similar way

to an extraneous or confounding variable; my defence for psychoanalysis came across quite

strongly, although at the time I was unaware of this. At my viva, I discovered how important it was

to see my research and myself as "work-in-progress" – doctorate-level study should be a valuable

learning experience where "nuances are expected and explored". I have updated my

personal/professional development plan (see below) so that it includes the critical thinking skills

and reflective and reflexive stance I will need to work on to aid my development as per the

scientist-practitioner model to which Hodgkinson (2006) refers.

Table 9. Evaluation of theoretical and practitioner contribution of studies

Evaluation criteria	Supports	Extends	New	Practitioner contribution and professional development
Chapter Two (2): Literature Review Working below the surface: a review of organisational role analysis (ORA) CIBART, and CIBART models.	Supports the views of system-psychodynamic theories, which emphasise the use of ORA and CIBART for accessing hidden behavioural motives.	Develops knowledge & understanding of ways to work at a "below-the-surface" level with clients.	New review of empirical evidence and theory on two systems-psychodynamic models and tools (ORA and CIBART) for use by practitioners keen to work at an unconscious level. An evaluation of the problems they may encounter is also provided.	Demonstrates how systemic tools might be used to discover the links between the individual, the role, and the organisation. Illustrates how individuals internalise the organisation, and how this mental representation shapes their perspective. However, this idea is likely to be debated philosophically. I am in the process of facilitating a series of workshops to aid practitioners to develop an awareness of these representations. Conducting this study has helped to build my literature reviewing skills, which is a great achievement.
Chapter Three (3): Quantitative Study Linking immature defences to employee	Supports Bovey and Hede's (2001) study regarding the relationship between	Extends Bovey and Hede's (2001) study on psychological defence mechanisms and resistance to change.	New theorising and empirical evidence of the link between immature defence mechanisms and the propensity to resist change,	Develops an understanding of hidden psychological motivators and resistance to change, to uncover the root dysfunction rather than its manifestations. I have

resistance to organisational change: the mediating role of core self-evaluation.	psychological defences and resistance to change.	Extends Judge et al.'s (2010) theory that CSE correlates positively with positive behaviours and it correlates negatively with negative behaviours.	through CSE.	developed my practice as an occupational psychologist to offer consultation on unconscious behaviours at work. However, in light of what I have learned from my doctoral journey I will now approach this from a critical perspective. I am contributing a chapter about this for a leading publication. I will continue working to develop my research and statistics skills as a means to further build my confidence to undertake advanced statistical analysis.
Chapter Four (4): Intervention Process Analysis The use of systems-psychodynamic coaching for managing conflict in multinational teams.	Systems-psychodynamic coaching.	Systems-psychodynamic coaching can be used to help leaders become aware of their conflict styles, and adapt them accordingly.	New empirical evidence to demonstrate that systems-psychodynamics can be used to coach local leaders from the Middle East. The findings present a different picture of the predominant behavioural tools use in this region.	Offers an alternative tool to manage conflict avoidance using SPC. However, I will commit to sourcing alternative ways to evaluate the effectiveness of systems-psychodynamic interventions.
Chapter Five (5): Case Study Analysis A "good-enough"	Supports Meyer and Allen's (1997) study of the relationship	Extends previous findings from POS–AC studies, indicating that POS may be weighed by ones understanding of what is "good	This study explores the possibility that Winnicott's (1967) good-enough care theory can be aligned with	Demonstrates to practitioners how orthodox ideas around attachment can help to explain the

organisation.

between POS and AC.

enough".

Meyer and Allen's perceived organisational support. What makes for GEC is similar to that which makes employees perceive support from their organisation.

relationship between employees and employers. I am conducting further research to explore POS and AC relationships in the workplace and how the findings can be used to develop interventions to improve employee well-being and engagement initiatives.

Reflexivity and positioning: I discovered more about the impact of my positioning on the research outcomes. Therefore, when conducting future investigations I will commit to engaging in reflective and reflexive practice.

Epistemology and ontology: critical analysis; flexible/mixed-method approach such as post-positivism, critical realism and pragmatism.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Research Information Letter and Consent Form

Researcher: Michelle Hunter
Academic supervisors: Dr Karin Powderly-Hahn & Gary Pheiffer

Title of study: 'The relationship between psychological defence mechanisms and resistance to change: the mediating role of core self-evaluation'.

Research Information Letter and Consent Form

Date:

Dear participant

Re: Participation is doctoral research

I am Chartered Psychologist and postgraduate research student at London Metropolitan University undertaking a research to explore the role of psychological defence mechanisms on resistance to change amongst relational professionals, such as academics, medical professionals, healthcare and social workers. The study is being supervised by Dr Karin Powderly-Hahn and Mr Gary Pheiffer from the School of Psychology, Holloway Road.

As your organization has recently undergone a change, I am interested in your views about this change, particularly your feelings and the impact of it on you. In order to do this, with your permission I would like you to complete a survey about a range of psychological factors that influence this. I expect that the survey would take around 15-20 minutes to complete.

If you would like to partake in this study, I would appreciate it if you could indicate this, however, please see attached some further information about the aim of the study and why it is taking place. If after reading the information provided you decide to take part in the study, please sign and return the consent form to us in the envelope provided (for completion of hard copy of survey only) or click continue (of accessing the survey via Survey Monkey). If you do not wish to proceed with your participation in the study please ignore this letter and I will not contact you again about this.

Thank you for giving up a small amount of your precious time to assist me with my study. Your contribution is very much appreciated. Please be assured that all information collected will be treated in confidence and no names will appear on any publications that may arise from this study. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you would like any further information on the study.

I look forward to hearing from you

With best wishes

Michelle Hunter
Postgraduate Research Student

Email: mih0367@my.londonmet.ac.uk

Appendix 2: Participant information sheet

Study title: 'The relationship between psychological defense mechanisms and resistance to change: the mediating role of core self-evaluation'.

I would like to invite you to take part in this research study that is being undertaken as part of my doctoral programme by a research student, namely Michelle Hunter. The following information explains how you would be involved if you decide to take part. Please feel free to show this information sheet to others and discuss your involvement if you wish.

Purpose of the study
The purpose of the study is to identify the role of psychological factors in employee resistance to change. The study will involve you reporting on your coping strategies, your beliefs about your abilities and how you would generally respond to change. This will enable me to understand more about the less obvious factors that may lead to support or resistance to change. To date little research has been conducted within this area.

Why have I invited you to participate?
Specific organisations from the "relational" professional fields, such as education, nursing, social work, medical and health care who have undergone a period of change will be invited to participate. Your current organization has kindly agreed to assist us with the research process. Specifically, they have agreed for us to collect data from employees who are keen to participate in the process. As you were employed at the time when your department/organization experienced change, I would like to invite you to take part in a survey.

The results of the survey will assist in assessing individual differences in response to organizational change.

Questions you may have

Do I have to take part?
No, taking part in this research is voluntary. You may decide after reading this information sheet that you do not wish to take part in this study. You are free to withdraw from the study at any stage without reason.

What happens if I take part?
If you decide to take part in the study, you will be required to provide the researcher with an email address for you so that a link to the survey can be sent to you. The medium that is being used for this survey is 'Survey Monkey'. You are not required to use your work address – you can use any address that will allow you access to the survey. Once you access the link, the survey will take no longer than 20 minutes to complete. However, if you experience any technical problems please do not hesitate to contact me: mih0367@londonmet.ac.uk. You will not be required to reveal any of your personal details, such as your name or date of birth. At the end of the survey, you will be asked to respond to a further four questions, which are aimed to capture demographic data, none of which will be identifiable to you. Rest assured that the survey material will be totally confidential.

What are the possible advantages and disadvantages of taking part in the study?

Advantages – understanding individual differences in response to organizational change is important. It is important for organisations to recognize that change impacts people differently. If this fact is known, organisations can use a range of strategies for informing employees of change.

Disadvantage – the study will require all those who consent to take part in the study to respond to an online survey, for around 20 minutes.

What happens to the data collection?
Data will be stored securely and will only be accessible to the researcher and her academic supervisors. It will be retained for a period of two years by the researcher. The data will be destroyed after this time.

What happens when the research study period ends?

The research findings will be included in the researcher's doctoral thesis, which will be completed in December 2015. In addition, at the end of the study the results will be disseminated to the London Metropolitan University supervisory team within the School of Psychology.   The results of the study will also be submitted for publication in professional, management, and scientific journals so that learning can be shared. You will be emailed the abstract of the study if you choose to share your email address with the researcher at the end of the survey.

Is the research funded?
No, there is no external funding for this study. Any research costs will be funded by the researcher.

Who has reviewed the study?
The study has been reviewed by the university's ethics committee team.

Further information and contact details
Further information regarding this research can be obtained from:

Name of researcher:	Michelle Hunter
	Email: mih0367@my.londonmet.ac.uk
	Telephone no. 07951 733 298
1st Academic supervisor:	Dr Karin Powderly-Hahn
	Email: k.powderly-hahn@londonmet.ac.uk
2nd Academic supervisor:	Mr. Gary Pheiffer
	Email: g.pheiffer@londonmet.ac.uk

Making a complaint about your involvement in the research

If you wish to make a complaint about your involvement in the research, please contact Dr. Karin Powderly-Hahn or Mr. Gary Pheiffer, School of Psychology, Faculty of Life Sciences & Computing, London Metropolitan University, London

Appendix 3: Participant consent form

Title of study: 'The relationship between psychological defense mechanisms and resistance to change: the mediating role of core self-evaluation'.

Researchers name: Michelle Hunter
Academic supervisors: Dr Karin Powderly-Hahn & Gary Pheiffer

I have read the participant information sheet and purpose of the research has been explained to me. Yes/No

I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it. Yes/No

I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the research project at any stage and doing so will have no impact on me now or in the future.

I understand that aspects of the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal details will remain confidential.

I understand that I may contact the researcher if I require further information about the research and that I may contact the academic supervisor at London Metropolitan University if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement in the research.

I agree to take part in the study.

Signed……………………………………………………………………….(Research participant)

Print name……………………………………………………………………Date:……………………….

Name of researcher obtaining consent: Michelle Hunter

Contact details: 07951 733 298 / email: mih0367@my.londonmet.ac.uk

1st Academic supervisor: Dr Karin Powderly-Hahn
2nd Academic supervisor: Mr Gary Pheiffer

Appendix 4: Online survey downloaded from Survey Monkey

Title of study: 'The relationship between psychological defence mechanisms and resistance to change: the mediating role of core self-evaluation'.

Dear Respondent,

Have you experienced organisational change in the last 12 months? For example, you may have experienced one or more of the following changes that has led to changes to your role, responsibilities, organisations culture, technological advancements, processes, policies or strategy? If so, we would like you to invite you to take part in our survey.

We are conducting a cross-sectional investigation into the role played by emotion and cognition in individual response to organisational change. We would be grateful if you could spare us 10 - 15 minutes of your time to complete the following survey.

RATIONALE

Improving the way in which change is introduced into the workplace is a fundamental necessity. Change, can have a detrimental impact on individuals, which can interfere with performance and productivity. Management are not always aware of the psychological factors that might influence how individuals respond to change, how they make sense of it, and how it affects each employee differently. Maybe, if such information were made more available, introducing change would be handled more delicately, from an employee perspective.

SO, WHAT WILL PARTICIPATION INVOLVE?

The survey comprises a total of three questionnaires. It will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete the entire survey, and there is no need for you to provide us with any personally identifiable information. Therefore, your responses will be kept confidentially; as a participant you have the right to withdraw at any point. The success of this study depends on the contributions made and the accuracy and honesty of respondents. The data collected will be used to inform change management education and practice.

SOME POINTS TO BARE IN MIND WHEN COMPLETING THE SURVEY:

There are no right or wrong answers, and there are no '"trick" questions.
For the results to be useful, it is important that you answer honestly and openly, to the best of your knowledge. Please indicate what you think/feel/do and not what you should be doing.

Please answer **ALL** questions, even if it takes a little longer than expected. The questionnaires can only be scored correctly if all the questions are answered.

Are you ready to proceed?

If you can confirm that (a) you have read and understood the information above and (b) you are over 18 years of age, click the "next" button below to get started, and thank you for taking part!

Michelle Hunter - Researcher

Postgraduate Research Student
London Metropolitan University

Email: mih0367@my.londonmet.ac.uk

Survey starts here….

The following questions will ask you questions about how you see yourself. It is important that you answer honestly.

1) I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

2) Sometimes I feel depressed.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

3) Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

4) When I try, I generally succeed.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

5) I complete tasks successfully.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

6) Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.

○ Strongly disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly agree

7) Overall, I am satisfied with myself.

◯ Strongly Disagree
◯ Disagree
◯ Neutral
◯ Agree
◯ Strongly Agree

8) I am filled with doubts about my confidence.

◯ Strongly disagree
◯ Disagree
◯ Neutral
◯ Agree
◯ Strongly agree

9) I determine what will happen in my life.

◯ Strongly disagree
◯ Disagree
◯ Neutral
◯ Agree
◯ Strongly agree

10) I do not feel in control of my success in my c areer.

◯ Strongly disagree
◯ Disagree
◯ Neutral
◯ Agree
◯ Strongly agree

11) I am capable of coping with most of my problems.

◯ Strongly disagree
◯ Disagree
◯ Neutral
◯ Agree
◯ Strongly agree

12) There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.

◯ Strongly disagree
◯ Disagree
◯ Neutral
◯ Agree
◯ Strongly agree

The following questions will help you to explore how you respond to change. Please answer them candidly and honestly.

13) I generally consider changes to be a negative thing.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

14) I'll take a routine day over a day full of unexpected events any time.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

15) I like to do the same old things rather than try new and different ones.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

16) Whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to change it.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

17) I'd rather be bored than surprise.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

18) If I were to be informed that there's going to be a significant change regarding the way things are done   at work, I would probably feel stressed.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

19) When I'm informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

20) When things don't go according to plans, it stresses me   out.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

21) If my boss changed the criteria for evaluating employees, it would probably make me feel uncomfortable even if I thought I'd just as well without having to do any extra work.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

22) Changing plans seems like a real hassle to me.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

23) Often, I feel a bit uncomfortable even about changes that may potentially improve my life.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

24) When someone pressures me to change something, I tend to resist it even if I think the change may ultimately benefit me.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

25) I sometimes find myself avoiding changes that I know will be good for me.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

26) Once I've made plans, I'm not likely to change them.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

27) I often change my mind.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

28) Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

29) I don't change my mind easily.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

30) My views are very consistent over time.

◯ Strongly disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Neutral ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly agree

The following que stions aim to explore your feelings and thoughts in relation to change. Change can be disruptive and unsetting; and, believe it or not, for some, it can be experienced as refreshing. How does change make you feel?

31) I get satisfaction from helping others and if this were taken away from me I would get depressed.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

32) I am able to keep a problem out of my mind until I have time to deal with it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

33) I work out my anxiety through doing something constructive and creative like painting or woodwork.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

34) I am able to find good reasons for everything I do.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

35) I am able to laugh at myself pretty easily.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

36) People tend to mistreat me.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

37) If something mugged me and stole my money, I'd rather he be helped than punished.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

38) People say I tend to ignore unpleasant facts as if they didn't exist.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

39) I ignore danger as if I was Superman.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

40) I pride myself on my ability to cut people down to size.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

41) I often act impulsively when something is bothering me.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

42) I get physically ill when things aren't going well for me.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

43) I'm a very inhibited person.

Strongly disagree	disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

44) I get more satisfaction from my fantasies than from my real life.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

45) I've special talents that allow me to go through life with no problems.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

46) There are always good reasons when things don't work out for me

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

47) I work more things out in my daydreams than in my real life.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

48) I fear nothing

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

49) Sometimes I feel like an angel and sometimes I feel like a devil.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

50) I get openly aggressive when I feel hurt.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

51) I always feel that someone I know is like a guardian angel.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

52) As far as I am concerned, people are either good or bad.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

53) If my boss bugged me, I might make a mistake in my work or work slowly so as to get back at him.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

54) There is someone I know who can do anything and who is absolutely fair and just

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

55) I can keep the lid on my feelings if letting them out would interfere with what I am doing.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

56) I'm usually able to see the funny side of an otherwise painful predicament.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

57) I get a headache when I have to do something I don't like.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

58) I often find myself being nice to people who by all rights I should be angry at.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

59) I am sure I get a raw deal from life

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

60) When I experience a difficult situation I try to imagine what it would be like and plan ways to cope with it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

61) Doctors never understand what is wrong with me.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

62) After I fight for my rights, I tend to apologise for my assertiveness.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

63) When I am depressed and anxious, eating makes me feel a lot better.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

64) I'm often told that I don't show my feelings.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

65) If I can predict that I'm going to be sad ahead of time, I can cope better.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

66) No matter how much I complain I never get a satisfactory response.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

67) Often I find that I don't feel anything when the situation should warrant strong emotions

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

68) Sticking to the task at hand keeps me from feeling depressed or anxious.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

69) If I were in a crisis, I would seek out another person who had the same problem.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

70) If I have an aggressive thought, I feel the need to do something to compensate for it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

The following questions will ask you to state your gender and age category. You will not be asked to state your name. Thank you!

71) Which category below includes your current age?

◯ 18-20
◯ 21-29
◯ 30-39
◯ 40-49
◯ 50-59
◯ 60 or older

72) What is your gender?

◯ Female ◯ Male

73) Which of the following best describes your current occupation?

◯ Education and Training Occupations
◯ Healthcare Practitioners and Technical Occupations
◯ Healthcare Support Occupations
◯ Social Care, Social Services and Social Work Occupations

74) What is your job role?

◯ Social Carer/Support Worker ◯ Administrator (L1)
◯ GP/Practitioner ◯ Teacher/Lecturer (L2)
◯ Team Lead ◯ Manager (L3)
◯ Senior Manager ◯ Regional Manager ◯ Partner (L4)
◯ Owner/Head (L5)

Other (please specify)

Thank you very much for your time!
Should you wish to contact us regarding this survey or about the nature of the investigation, please do not hesitate to contact me mih0367@my.londonmet.ac.uk

Appendix 5: SPSS output

Title of study: 'The relationship between psychological defense mechanisms and resistance to change: the mediating role of core self-evaluation'.

A.

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6343.163	2	3171.582	49.553	.000[b]
	Residual	7360.430	115	64.004		
	Total	13703.593	117			

a. Dependent Variable: total RTC+ reverse

b. Predictors: (Constant), total CSE + reverse, TotalImmature

B.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	74.398	8.338		8.922	.000
	TotalImmature	.076	.030	.242	2.560	.012
	total CSE + reverse	-.757	.146	-.490	-5.175	.000

a. Dependent Variable: total RTC+ reverse

C.

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Age	2.25	1.46	118
Gender	1.83	1.765	118
Job role	2.19	1.371	118
Tenure	2.6610	.74214	118
total RTC+ reverse	54.6271	10.82242	118
TotalImmature	116.5593	34.54628	118
total CSE + reverse	37.8305	7.00708	118
ProjTotal	4.2881	2.42177	118
DisplTotal	3.5085	1.72585	118

Correlations

		Age	Gender	Job role	Tenure	total RTC+ reverse	TotalImmature	total CSE + reverse	ProjTotal	DisplTotal
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	.017	-.049	.096	.335**	.439**	-.383**	.138	.250**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.856	.595	.302	.000	.000	.000	.135	.006
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	250.373	5.085	-11.593	12.169	621.186	2593.220	-459.915	57.356	73.746
	Covariance	2.140	.043	-.099	.104	5.309	22.164	-3.931	.490	.630
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Gender	Pearson Correlation	.017	1	-.192*	-.057	-.140	-.186*	.277**	-.366**	.200*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.856		.038	.538	.130	.043	.002	.000	.030
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	5.085	364.610	-54.271	-8.780	-313.458	-1328.814	400.610	-183.237	71.169
	Covariance	.043	3.116	-.464	-.075	-2.679	-11.357	3.424	-1.566	.608
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Job role	Pearson Correlation	-.049	-.192*	1	-.021	-.230*	-.228*	.163	.045	-.232*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.595	.038		.818	.012	.013	.079	.625	.012
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-11.593	-54.271	219.898	-2.542	-399.797	-1262.305	182.729	17.661	-64.186
	Covariance	-.099	-.464	1.879	-.022	-3.417	-10.789	1.562	.151	-.549
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Tenure	Pearson Correlation	.096	-.057	-.021	1	.098	.001	.014	-.050	.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.302	.538	.818		.291	.990	.885	.592	.458
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	12.169	-8.780	-2.542	64.441	92.085	3.373	8.220	-10.475	10.339
	Covariance	.104	-.075	-.022	.551	.787	.029	.070	-.090	.088
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
total RTC+ reverse	Pearson Correlation	.335**	-.140	-.230*	.098	1	.581**	-.657**	.346**	.627**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.130	.012	.291		.000	.000	.000	.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	621.186	-313.458	-399.797	92.085	13703.593	25424.610	-5833.458	1061.678	1369.373
	Covariance	5.309	-2.679	-3.417	.787	117.125	217.304	-49.859	9.074	11.704
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
TotalImmature	Pearson Correlation	.439**	-.186*	-.228*	.001	.581**	1	-.692**	.777**	.497**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.043	.013	.990	.000		.000	.000	.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	2593.220	-1328.814	-1262.305	3.373	25424.610	139633.085	-19595.814	7607.983	3467.441
	Covariance	22.164	-11.357	-10.789	.029	217.304	1193.445	-167.486	65.025	29.636
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
total CSE + reverse	Pearson Correlation	-.383**	.277**	.163	.014	-.657**	-.692**	1	-.541**	-.379**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.079	.885	.000	.000		.000	.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-459.915	400.610	182.729	8.220	-5833.458	-19595.814	5744.610	-1074.737	-536.331
	Covariance	-3.931	3.424	1.562	.070	-49.859	-167.486	49.099	-9.186	-4.584
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
ProjTotal	Pearson Correlation	.138	-.366**	.045	-.050	.346**	.777**	-.541**	1	.238**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.135	.000	.625	.592	.000	.000	.000		.010
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	57.356	-183.237	17.661	-10.475	1061.678	7607.983	-1074.737	686.203	116.212
	Covariance	.490	-1.566	.151	-.090	9.074	65.025	-9.186	5.865	.993
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
DisplTotal	Pearson Correlation	.250**	.200*	-.232*	.069	.627**	.497**	-.379**	.238**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.030	.012	.458	.000	.000	.000	.010	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	73.746	71.169	-64.186	10.339	1369.373	3467.441	-536.331	116.212	348.492
	Covariance	.630	.608	-.549	.088	11.704	29.636	-4.584	.993	2.979
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

D.

E.

Regression coefficients indicating strength of the mediating role of core self-evaluation in the relationship between ImmD and PtRC

	R	R2	Change	Beta
Analysis One:				
PtRC on ImmD	.581	.338**		.581**
Analysis Two:				
CSE on ImmD	-.692	.479**		.680**
Analysis Three:				
Step 1: PtRC on CSE	-.657	.432**		-.490**
Step 2: PtRC on ImmD	.680	.463**	.031	.242**

G.

A summary of Baron and Kenny's steps

Step	Path	Estimate 95%	CI	Beta	p
1	c	0.083	0.025 – 0.142	0.029	0.001
2	a	0.811	1.138 – 0.485	0.165	0.001
3	b	0.122	0.146 – 0.098	0.012	0.001
4	c'	0.099	0.25 – 0.146	0.019	0.005

Appendix 6: Coaching intervention study

Michelle Hunter Doctoral Student
Dr Karin Powderly-Hahn Supervisor

Title of study:

I am Chartered Psychologist and postgraduate research student at London Metropolitan University undertaking a research to assess the impact of a specific coaching intervention to improve awareness behavioural motives, and improve performance. As you were a recent candidate of an assessment centre process at XXXX, and gave your permission to be contacted for research and intervention opportunities, I am contacting you to see whether you would be keen to participate in further research concerning the effectiveness of a coaching intervention. In order to do this, I am seeking your participation in the study, which will require you to engage in a few tasks.

In the case of the MBTI measure: INFP's and ISFP's are considered to be the types that avoid conflict (Johnson, 1997; Percival, Smitheram & Kelly, 1992; Myers, 1998; Butt, 2005), which is why leaders' whose profiles suggest this were chosen. Kets de Vries 'Global Executive Leadership Inventory' (GELI) was used to identify each leader's potential ability and competence in managing multinational teams, which is measured by the extent to which they are reported as having a "global mindset" (Kets de Vries, 2009). GELI is also a systems-psychodynamic tool.

The Coaching Intervention procedures: A series of five 90-minute coaching sessions was conducted, preceded by a diagnostic phase, a feedback session, and an evaluation session was used. The intervention ran over a period of ten months, with equal intervals of two weeks between communication or sessions. The intervention was carried out in three inter-connected stages: 1) discussion based on diagnostics, which comprised data gathered about the individual leader's make-up: personality preference, learning style, conflict management style and, a measure of their global mindedness; an Organisational Role Analysis (ORA) was also carried out in the first session, as advised by Newton (2006) to identify interrelationship between the individual, role and system; 2) coaching sessions and reflection; and, 3) evaluation and 'Total' feedback.

Following the coaching intervention, you will be asked to write a three-page commentary of your experience of the coaching session, and how it has helped you, if at all. Specifically, you will be asked to reflect on the personal impact of the process. Each participant was asked to: The commentary should be sent electronically.

I look forward to hearing from you

With best wishes

Michelle Hunter

Postgraduate Research Student

Email: mih0367@my.londonmet.ac.uk

Appendix 7: IPA Sample participant essay

Write an essay of about 2 pages on your experiences of the coaching and the coaching relationship. Please ensure that you make reference to how you feel the intervention has help you to manage conflict within your team.

A) The coaching experience and relationship

At first I was a little unclear about what to expect from the coaching experience. I thought that it would provide me with an opportunity to speak about my work experiences per se. although this expectation was partially met, I realized that the focus of the coaching was on my awareness of the conflict within my team, and my approach to managing it. This meant that I had to focus on my personal experiences, which involved me looking into self, which is something that I hardly would find time for. The role of a leader is no easy job and although one may be aware that there are problems within teams, there never seems to be enough time during my hectic day to understand the reasons for this. Besides this, even if I did try to make sense of these problems, there is no way guarantee that my understanding of it would be accurate. It if for this reason why I enjoyed being given the opportunity to speak to a professional coach who is experienced about this type of thing.

The relationship that developed between my coach and I was unexpected. Usually, in this part of the region management can be quite harsh, which is the reason I appreciate the soft approach that the coaching I gained through my engagement in this process, offered. Specifically, some of the questions my coach asked me where very deep, and at first difficult to answer. However, as time when by, I found myself reflecting on the answers to these questions and understanding why these answers were crucial to my development.

B) How the coaching has helped me to manage conflict within my team

Despite the fact that I have played the role of leader for many years, I have come to terms with the fact that managing conflict in a multinational team is not comparable to any other form of management. It involves having to deal with people from a range of backgrounds, and in many cases their work ethic is influenced by their culture and religion. Some of my team constantly seek my approval, which I consider to be bizarre because people should enjoy what they do at work as it is a calling from God, and God only grants those who possess the right skills to do the job. In fact, I am one who believes that had my God and seniors not deemed me to be a suitable candidate for the role, they would not have selected me. This is the reason why I struggle to understand those who need the approval of others to do their job. Prior to this process, I would not know how to deal with team members who think in this way – there have been occasions where I would avoid having any conversation or confrontation with them because I feared that we were too different for any consensus to be achieved.

However, as a result of this process, I have discovered that people are different and their behaviours can be driven by a range of factors. I used to think that there is no right or wrong way of managing a multinational team as I could not find a single text that provides information about this. Besides this, none of the training programmes that have been offered to me during my time in this role make no reference to multinational team management. Had there been some resources available, this would provide an opportunity for boundaries to be set and measured. For example, all those whose roles concern managing this type of team would have a clearer idea about some of the challenges that they are expected of leading within this capacity and context. As a result of this process, I learned that boundaries can help to remove ambiguity, which is what I have suffered for a long time now. Simply getting the chance to speak to a professional about these issues has helped me to understand that even when no boundary exists there is still a reason to behave in a way that will ensure that the organization will meet its objectives.

Although it was difficult at first having to speak to a stranger about my role, it helped to clarify my understanding of my role.

Appendix 8: Informed Consent Letter

<u>**Re: An invitation for you to participate in occupational psychology research**</u>
Contact info: PO Box 55429, Clapham, London SW4 0WX, Contact: 07940 099 247
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Dear Potential Participant,

My name is Michelle Hunter. I am Consultant Business Psychologist. Currently, I am conducting research to explore the relationship between perceived organisational support and affective commitment to the organisation. At present, I am in the process of recruiting participants; I would like to invite your participation in this study.

Should you decide to participate, you will be asked to either complete some surveys *or* meet with me for an interview in relation to your perception of, and your relationship with the organisation. In the case of you being interviewed, this will take place at a mutually agreed time and place, and should last about **30 minutes**. (Questionnaires however will take approximately **15 minutes** and can be completed via email communication). The interview will be audio taped so that I can accurately reflect on what is discussed. The tapes will only be reviewed by myself and my assistant who will transcribe and analyse them. They will then be destroyed

Participation is confidential. The results of the study will be reported but your identity will not be revealed.
Taking part in the study is your decision. You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. You may also withdraw from participation in the study at any time or decide not to answer any question you are not comfortable answering.
I will be happy to answer any questions you have about the study. You may **contact me on 07940 099 247 or via email: goodenoughorg@hotmail.co.uk** . if you have study related questions or problems. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may wish to consult the British Psychological Society 'Code of Ethics' which can be accessed via their website: <u>www.bps.com</u>.

Thank you for your consideration. If you would like to participate, please inform the researcher of your decision, or please find enclosed the relevant survey materials. Please note that your willingness to participate in the investigation and submission of your completed questionnaire will be interpreted as your informed consent. On completion, please hand your questionnaire to your representative or post it to the address documented at the header of this letter.

Thank you for your participation and look forward to sharing the outcomes of this investigation with you.

With kind regards,

Michelle Hunter
Consultant Business Psychologist

Appendix 9 – Pre and post Questionnaire booklet

Survey Booklet

INFORMATION…PLEASE READ:

Throughout this questionnaire booklet you will be **asked to think about 'your organisation'**. When answering please consider your current organisation.

INSTRUCTIONS:

A) On the next several pages are a **series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company/organisation** for which you work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organisation for which you are now working please **indicate the degree of agreement with each statement** by circling one of the alternatives below each statement.
When answering, please refer to the **7-point scale on your questionnaire booklet (e.g., 1 = "disagree strongly"; 7 = "agree strongly").**

B) **Your answers are confidential**. When you are done, please insert your questionnaire in the envelope provided, seal it, and return it to either the researcher, or your internal representative who is _____.

C) Please return your completed questionnaire booklet in the envelope provided.

Questionnaire:

SECTION 1: Demographics

1) What is your age ?   _____ years old.

2) What is your gender (please tick)?

Male			Female	

3) How long have you been working with your employer? _____

4) Tenure (the type of contract you hold with your employer)? Please tick.

Permanent		Temporary		Contractual	

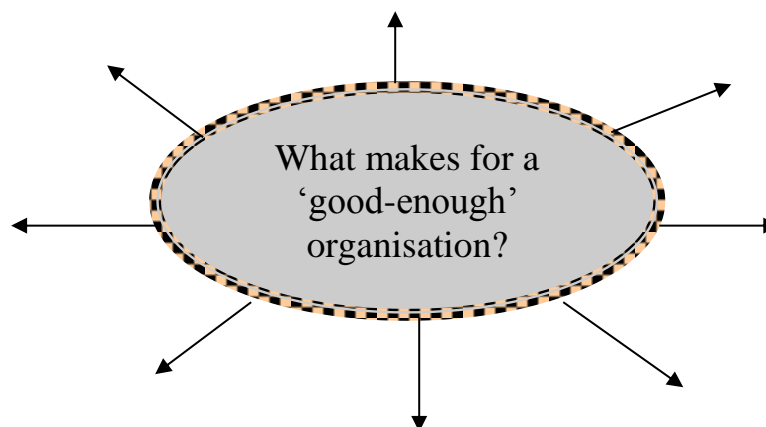## SECTION 2: Your perspective of what a good organisation looks like

What characteristics would expect a 'good-enough' organisation to possess? Using the spider-chat below, brainstorm your thoughts regarding what you think, makes for a good-enough organization, particularly in terms of their treatment of staff?

What makes for a 'good-enough' organisation?

INFORMATION – Please read!

Listed below and on the next two pages are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working for your organisation. Once you have carefully read each statement, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the number that best represents your point of view about your organisation.

SECTION 3: Organisational support

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Undecided	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

5) The organisation values my
contribution to its well-being.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

6) The organisation fails to appreciate
any extra effort from me.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

7) The organisation would ignore any
complaint from me.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

8) The organisation really cares about
my well-being.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

9)   Even if I did the best job possible,
the organisation would fail to notice. 1   2   3   4   5   6   7

10) The organisation cares about my
general satisfaction at work.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

11) The organisation shows very little
concern for me.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

12) The organisation takes pride in my
accomplishments at work.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

_____**P.T.O**

SECTION 4: Affective organisational commitment

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Undecided	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

13) I do not feel like a part of a family at my organisation.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

14) I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

15) I feel personally attached to my work organisation.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

16) I am proud to tell others I work at my organisation.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

17) Working at my organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me.
    7

1   2   3   4   5   6

18) My organisation deserves my loyalty.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

19) I would be happy working for my organisation until I retire.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

20) I really feel that problems faced by my organisation are also my problems.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

21) I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside of it.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

P.T.O

SECTION 5: Work effort and employer care/treatment

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Undecided	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree

22) An employee's work effort should
depend partly on how well the organisation
deals with his or her desires and concerns.   1   2   3   4   5

23) An employee who is treated badly by the
organisation would lower his or her work effort.   1   2   3   4   5

24) How hard an employee works should not be
affected by how well the organisation
treats him or her.   1   2   3   4   5

25) An employee's work effort should have
nothing to do with the fairness of his
or her pay.   1   2   3   4   5

26) The failure of the organisation to appreciate
an employee's contribution should not
affect how hard he or she works.   1   2   3   4   5

Please state the following:
Job Title: _____
Sector: _____

Thank you very much for your participation!

Appendix 10 – Interview Scripts

Age:
Gender:
Length of time in current employment:
----

1. What is your job title?

2. How long have you been working within your organization?

3. Do you enjoy working for your organization? Why?

4. Would you deem your organization to be caring/supportive to the needs of its employees (well-being, health etc)? Tell me about this?

5. What are some of the things you appreciate about the support you receive/perceive from your organization?

6. If afforded the opportunity, what improvements would you make to improve the employer care/support?

7. How much do you value care/support from your organization?

8. Why do you think care/support from the organization is so important to employees?

9. How might employee's perception of employer support/care impact on willingness to reciprocate care toward the organization?

10. Does the way in which your organization treats you (perceived/received) contribute toward sustaining your level of commitment to the organization?

Change specific questions

1. Tell me about your experiences of the recent change that took place in your organisation. How did it impact you?

2. What is your opinion of how the change was introduced and handled by management? How was it managed?

3. How well did management/organisation do in terms of supporting you or your colleagues around the time of change? In what way did the support and care you received from management/organisation impact your response to the change?

4. Did the way that the change was managed provide you with enough time to adapt to it? What adaptations did you have to make?

5. Did you experience resistance to change and in your opinion was this due to your concerns over the way in which the change was managed and implemented?

6. What could the organisation do differently to better manage the change

Appendix 11: Case study

Figure 2. A Good-enough Organisation, or not? Business School X and the impact of its management of change

Business School X, was incorporated in 2000 and forms part of a large further education establishment. Traditionally, the School renowned for its provision of full and part-time higher education and professional management courses to students from the UK. In response to the global competition, in September 2009, it extended its portfolio to accommodate an international market of students. This marked the School's first encounter of working with international markets. Following a successful marketing campaign, the school became a popular choice for international students, and it gained "trusted status" from the United Kingdom Boarder Agency. Despite the School offering HE courses, the School was not a university. Rather, it was classified as a "HE-in-FE" institution (HEFEC, 2009). Unlike university-based lecturer timetables, which allow greater flexibility and opportunity for scholarly activity, 'HE-in-FE' lecturers were expected to work up to twenty-four hours per week, exclusive of administration time compared to that of university lecturers who are expected to work at least half of that.
 	
         In attempt to address the high demand of international students who were applying for HE courses in 2010, the School opened its doors to an extra 300 international students. The change took place over a period of 10 months: between April 2011 through to February 2012. The HE courses opted for Included MBA's, HR, Business Management and Strategic Leadership and Management. A fraction of this sum was set aside for the recruitment of Agents to assist in the marketing of such courses - they were located in Indian and African sub-continents such as Bangaladesh, India, Pakistan, Camaroon and Nigeria. Their primary role of the agents was to sell the Schools academic programmes; they were paid on a commission basis.
 	
         The team of lecturer's claim that they were notified of the change only one month before the enrolment and admission process would start. Though an official announcement was made, there was no evidence to suggest that any prior consultation with staff took place. A further claim made by the team is that the change was identified on noticing an increase in teaching hours on their timetables at the start of the academic year.
 	
         The capacity of the classrooms was not big enough to accommodate the large cohort of students. As well as having to deal with the demands of a large class size, little information about the educational backgrounds of these learners was made available. However, following a series of assessments it became obvious that at least 70% of the learner's had one thing in common - their English proficiency was poor and below the level outlined in the admission criteria. Despite this, their ILETS score indicated compliance. Besides this, just two administrators and a senior administrator managed the administration team.
 	
         The level of courses being delivered ranged between 4 -7 (postgraduate masters courses). Due to a range of factors including some of those outlined previously, achievement rates plummeted and digress was more common than progress. Student complaints increased about the service they were receiving, and the conditions they were made to encounter.
 	
         One month into the change, the School faced an Internal inspection. While it is standard practice for educational establishments to undergo rigorous inspection processes, it was unusual for a higher education institution to face inspection. However, management justified this by stating that the HE provision is being delivered within a FE institution, thus making it just as acceptable for it to have to face inspection.
 	
         Considering that there is no official inspection framework for HE institutions, employees were informed that the standard Ofsted principles would be used to rate performance. Those who took up the roles of inspectors included Heads of Department from other Schools within the college, and the Team of Consultants who led this initiative were ex-Ofsted Inspectors. While 'Teaching and Learning' conduct was on the agenda, 'Management' conduct was not.
 	
         The observation of teaching and learning began with lecturer's receiving a warning letter giving them a three-day window in which one of their classes would be inspected. The letter provided them with details of a range of documents that they would need to present to the observer at the point of them entering the classroom. This was a major challenge as most were teaching for up to twenty-seven hours per week, which would mean they would need to prepare paperwork for each class that fell within the three-day window. The inspection period lasted one working week. A total of nine lecturers' were observed either during lectures and tutorials.
 	
         One-week post the inspection, the results was shared with the senior management team. In brief, the School received a 'level 4' for teaching and learning, which is the lowest of all ratings. For this reason the "School's Failures" led to it being placed under OFSTED's "Special Measures" category. The consequence of this was that the team of lecturers was deemed to be "unfit" to practice their primary roles independently, therefore all lecturers were faced with a series of planned rigorous inspections/observation of their teaching and learning duties. This represented a further change for the organization, particularly in terms of how the lecturing team was being managed. An increase in absenteeism and sickness rose by at least 70%. Presenteeism, was also observed, however it was difficult to measure. In July 2013 the School was closed and members of the lecturing team were made redundant.

Appendix 12: IPA recommendation table to ensure a GEC approach is used to manage future change within the organisations

Recommendation for managing future change	Action to be taken	By whom	Time frame	Result/Evaluate
Lecturer development	Identify the competencies or behaviours the School wants lecturers to adopt, based on change-based needs	HR should liaise with lecturers and management to discuss competencies and change.	Prior to change	A competency framework will be created and the effectiveness of these will be reviewed with employees, and management in a group meeting.

	Assess resistance to change and provide coaching for those who are likely to show less support for change	Occupational Psychologist, executive coaching in agreement with management	Prior, during and after change	A list of those who are likely to resist and show support for change will be produced.
	Training on international students in higher education to allow lecturers to adjust to changes in their roles and responsibilities	Experienced trainer and representative from HR	Prior to the change	This can be measured through evaluation form feedback from delegates following the training. A follow-up survey could be arranged 3, 6, 9 and 12 months thereafter
Employee voice	Middle management and change agents should have 1-2-1 meetings with members from the lecturing team to collect their opinions	Management, change agents	Weekly meetings	Employees will feel more valued and should indicate that they feel managers act on their ideas and recognize their contribution.
Commitment to improving employee care and well-being	Contain (be responsive) employees anxiety about organizational changes, ensuring that such realities are managed sensitively in the organization until employees are able to ready to face up to intentions.	HR department, change agent and line managers	Prior, during and after the change	Employees are likely to feel more committed to the organization and provide support even during difficult periods such as change. Employees will perceive their organization to care for their well-being.
Improving whole organization knowledge	Raise organizational members awareness of the psychological and emotional challenges that stem from change, and the impact of this on key stakeholders, including the lecturers	Occupational Psychologist and/or trainer	Prior to and during the change	This can be measured through use of an evaluation form. A follow-up survey could be arranged 3, 6, 9 and 12 months thereafter. A top-up component of the course could be offered