Examining the Relationship Between Organizational Culture and Change Fatigue

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ABSTRACT

Since standardization and stability gave way to flexibility and adaptability, organizational change has become a cornerstone of modern business strategy. While a certain amount of change is healthy for an organization and may be necessary to remain competitive, too much change can lead to unhealthy outcomes for both the organization and its employees. Change fatigue is a new construct focused on the impact of excessive organizational change. The current study examines how the Person-Environment Model applies to change fatigue. Effects on two negative work outcomes were also examined. Results indicated certain organizational culture-types (group and rational), as measured through the Competing Values Framework, and internal work locus of control are related to perceptions of change fatigue. Change fatigue is negatively related to organizational commitment and positively related to turnover intentions. These relationships were found to be partially and fully mediated through emotional exhaustion, respectively. Implications and future research are discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER I: LITERATURE REVIEW

As an inherent process, change is inevitable, and in today's business environment, this idea is more prominent than ever. In fact, many organizational values and mission statements center on concepts such as continuous improvement and learning, which emphasize change as an integral part of an organization's culture and strategy (Orlikowski, 1996). As a result, contemporary organizations are finding themselves in a constant state of flux as they strive to remain competitive and relevant in an increasingly volatile and ever-growing market.

Although organizational change is a current fixture of the business landscape, it has not always been so heavily emphasized. Historically, organizations valued stability, standardization, routinization, and control, which place the change process in a more periphery location relative to strategy (Orlikowski, 1996). However, several environmental factors, such as an increasing globalization of the market and rapid advances in technology, forced organizations to reconsider the purpose of organizational change (Dawson, 2003). As a result, it soon became viewed as an essential element for competitive advantage.

One such discernible shift occurred in the 1980s as traditional organizations, long viewed as established and successful, started to waiver in their roles as leaders in their field. An especially relevant example includes the automobile industry. United States automakers, such as General Motors and Ford, dominated the automobile market for several decades following the inception of the Model T. However, Japanese automakers rapidly gained a notable reputation as quality leaders and acquired an impressive market

share, which eventually forced United States' automakers into a role of playing catch up (Dawson, 2003). In response to these types of trends, the organizational cornerstones of stability and standardization swiftly gave way to the ideas of flexibility and adaptation (Dawson, 2003; Orlikowski, 1996). This change in focus is also reflected in the academic literature of that era, as the concepts of organizational climate, organizational culture, and organizational development, although previously studied, became increasingly popular subjects (Beer & Walton, 1987; Pettigrew, 1979).

An additional impetus for the increasing attention to organizational change has been the rapid pace of technological advances, which forced organizations to adapt or become irrelevant (Dawson, 2003). Advances in technology related to many different areas have affected organizations, particularly the advent and rapid progress of information technology, which caused organizations to experience a compounding pressure to implement new processes and systems to remain strategically competitive (Dawson, 2003). For example, many organizations found it necessary to transition from keeping records solely in paper formats to keeping electronic and paper copies, or simply moving to a completely paperless environment. In terms of more extensive change, increases in information technology also led to some organizations undergoing major restructuring as some positions were able to be automated, or even eliminated.

As organizations began driving changes more rapidly and frequently, it became apparent that organizational change can potentially result in adverse outcomes if it is not managed in a systematic way. Some of these adverse outcomes include increased stressors and strain experienced by employees, resistance to change initiatives, and job

burnout. This, in turn, can lead to poor organizational performance related to employees' affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions, such as decreased job satisfaction and increased turnover (Bruckman, 2008; Hansson, Vingård, Arnetz, & Anderzén, 2008; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

Change Fatigue

More recently, researchers are beginning to examine a specific adverse outcome related to employee perceptions of excessive change initiatives and processes described as change fatigue (Bernerth, Walker, & Harris, 2011; McMillan & Perron, 2013; Stensaker, Falkenberg, Meyer, & Haueng, 2002). Although the construct of change fatigue shares several similarities with the work-related concepts of stress, burnout, and emotional exhaustion (Bernerth et al., 2011), change fatigue is, in fact, distinguishable by its unique connection with organizational change. The other concepts are generally more global in relation to an organizational environment.

At this time, there is no consensus in the literature regarding the definition of change fatigue, but there are common elements found across various studies. Change fatigue is often described as a resigned and passive attitude toward change (Elving, Hansma, & De Boer, 2011; McMillan & Perron, 2013) stemming from a "feeling of being depleted or overextended beyond one's capability to handle workplace demands" (Bernerth et al., 2011, p. 323). Change fatigue has been found to significantly correlate with several negative employee reactions, including findings of lowered organizational commitment, higher turnover intentions, lower motivation, and increased uncertainty (Bernerth et al., 2011; Stensaker et al., 2002). These types of negative reactions are

associated with a higher probability of change initiative failure and decreased

organizational performance (Spector, 2008). In this respect, it is important to fully

understand the concept of change fatigue, and its potential contributing factors, in order

to take proactive steps to mitigate or eliminate the potential harm that it could impose.

Contributing Factors

Contributing factors to change fatigue can be analyzed from two different

perspectives: the individual and the organization. Addressing contributing factors from

individual and organizational perspectives aligns with the Person-Environment Fit

Model. In general, person-environment fit refers to how employees perceive themselves

as compatible with their work environment (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson,

2005). The work environment may encompass an employee's job, supervisor, or the

organization as a whole (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Tak, 2011). When there is a high

level of perceived compatibility, research has found moderate to strong correlations with

employee attitudes and reactions, such as higher job satisfaction, organizational

commitment, and lower turnover intentions (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). To the

contrary, when perceived compatibility is low, employees are likely to experience their

work environment as stressful and are more likely to exhibit turnover intentions (Tak,

2011). This model may be of particular relevance when trying to understand how the

combination of individual differences and organizational context may contribute to the

levels of stress experienced by employees due to continual change.

From an individual level, several factors, such as demographics, change

experience, tenure, and locus of control have been found to influence change fatigue

and/or closely related employee reactions such as emotional exhaustion (Elving et al., 2011; Maslach et al., 2001; Stensaker et al., 2002; Wang, Bowling, & Eschleman, 2010). In terms of demographics, female employees and single or divorced employees are more likely to experience change fatigue (Stensaker et al., 2002). Additionally, employees with less tenure and/or less change experience report higher frequencies of change fatigue than their more senior and/or more experienced counterparts (Stensaker et al., 2002). Furthermore, there are some conflicting findings regarding age as it relates to change fatigue and emotional exhaustion, where at least one study found a positive correlation (Elving et al., 2011), but generally, there have been negative relationships found between the two variables (Boyas, Wind, & Kang, 2012; Maslach et al., 2001; Wu, Zhu, Wang, Wang, & Lan, 2007).

In terms of the negative relationship between age and change fatigue, Maslach et al. (2001) asserted that age was one of the most consistently linked characteristics to burnout. In their study, younger employees were more likely to experience higher levels of burnout compared to employees who were over thirty or forty years of age (Maslach et al., 2001). This trend is supported by similar research relating emotional exhaustion to age (Boyas et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2007). In fact, even with supervisory support, one study found younger employees still experienced emotional exhaustion more frequently than older workers in their organization (Boyas et al., 2012). This was an unexpected outcome, and the researchers speculated two possible explanations: either employees experiencing emotional exhaustion were more likely to receive supervisory support, or unpleasant supervisory support could be generating burnout (Boyas et al., 2012).

On the other hand, Elving et al. (2011) found younger employees were less susceptible to change fatigue than older employees. The researchers attributed this difference to younger employees' better ability to adapt to new job function demands caused by change, compared to older employees. Due to potential confounding variables associated with age, such as change experience, work experience, and mastery level, it's important to take into consideration the concept of survival bias. This is where older employees may generally seem to exhibit lower levels of burnout, because employees who experienced burnout at an earlier age are more likely to leave their respective organizational role (Maslach et al., 2001).

Finally, locus of control is another variable which may have impact on perceptions of too much change taking place in an organization. General locus of control is commonly defined as the extent to which an individual believes events are controlled by themselves or by the environment (Rotter, 1966; Spector, 1982). Individuals who exhibit an internal locus of control believe outcomes are a result of their own behavior. On the other hand, individuals who exhibit an external locus of control believe outcomes are a result of other factors beyond their control. Originally, measures of locus of control examined general perceptions of control. However, researchers have examined more domain-specific aspects of the construct, such as work locus of control (Spector, 1988; Wang et al., 2010), which focuses on the extent to which individuals perceive they control work outcomes.

Work locus of control has been strongly linked to work-related outcomes. In a meta-analysis, Wang et al. (2010) found work locus of control has a significantly stronger

relationship with work-related criterion, such as affective commitment (Mean $r = .32$), burnout (Mean $r = -.38$), turnover intention (Mean $r = -.20$), and role ambiguity (Mean $r = -.23$), than general locus of control. Additionally, regression analysis showed work locus of control uniquely explained more variance in work-related criterion, such as burnout ($\beta = -0.45$, $p < .001$), affective commitment ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < .001$), and turnover intentions ($\beta = -0.45$, $p < .001$), than general locus of control. These findings may also have implications for change fatigue, in that individuals with more internal work locus of control may experience less change fatigue. Although individual factors are relevant, it is also beneficial to assess organizational contributing factors, as they are more encompassing and potentially easier to modify.

Organizational-level Factors

Contributing factors at the organizational level concern how different aspects of an organization's focus, alignment, and processes may impact the frequency of change fatigue experienced by employees. While many of the studies on person-environment fit have focused on the employee-side of the model, organizations play a pivotal role in influencing the environmental-side of the model. Specifically, it has been found that environmental factors related to an organization's communication, leadership, structure, and culture have the capacity to impact employee's perceptions of too much change (Frahm & Brown, 2005; Rahman & Zanzi, 1995; Stordeur, D'hoore, & Vandenberghe, 2001; Marchand, Haines, & Dextras-Gauthier, 2013). Understanding how these aspects of an organization's environment interact with organizational change is imperative in finding proactive ways to positively influence employee reactions to the change process.

Organizational communication is concerned with "why and how organizations send and receive information in a complex systemic environment" (Zaremba, 2006, p. 15). In general, communication can be characterized as intentional or unintentional, verbal or nonverbal, and is considered a phenomenon that is irreversible and contextual (Zaremba, 2006). During organizational change, appropriate communication is, therefore, vital for implementation and sustainability of change outcomes. When a lack of communication or miscommunication exists, adverse outcomes related to the change process become much more probable. These types of poor communication lead employees to exhibit increased negative reactions, such as higher levels of perceived ambiguity, uncertainty, and distrust (Frahm & Brown, 2005). If the organizational changes are also perceived as excessive by employees, there may be an increased risk for change fatigue to be experienced, as well.

Leadership is acknowledged as one of the driving forces of organizational change, and therefore, plays a pivotal role in how employees perceive excessive change. Although leadership has been defined in numerous ways, one broad definition describes leadership as "the process of influencing an organized group toward accomplishing its goals" (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2009, p.6). In terms of stress, leadership can act as a buffer or can be viewed as a contributing factor. For instance, leaders who empower employees by allowing them to participate in decision-making processes, encourage dialogue between top- and lower-level employees, and communicate in clear ways, are more likely to have fewer employees experiencing emotional exhaustion (Stordeur et al., 2001). On the other hand, leaders who manage by exception, where they are trying to

detect potential mistakes by close monitoring, are likely to have more employees experience emotional exhaustion (Stordeur et al., 2001). In any organizational context, leaders must be cognizant of the potential repercussions their behavior may have on their subordinates, but this is even more applicable during times of organizational change, due to potential negative organizational and employee outcomes.

Structure, at both the organizational and job levels, has also been linked to potential implications for change fatigue. Typically, organizations are structured around products or functions and contain either many or few managerial layers, characterized as hierarchical or flat, respectively ("Organizational structure," 2006). Hierarchical organizations are usually considered to be formalized and standardized, whereas flat organizations are depicted as flexible and responsive. In general, an organization's structure has been connected to performance, job satisfaction, and job-related stress (Rahman & Zanzi, 1995). In terms of excessive organizational change, the rigidity of organizational rules has been found to correlate with a higher frequency of emotional exhaustion among employees (Gaines & Jermier, 1983). At a micro-level, job structure plays a prominent role in relation to emotional exhaustion. Such factors as role overload, role boundary, role insufficiency, and role ambiguity have moderate to strong positive correlations with emotional exhaustion (Sears, Urizar, & Evans, 2000; Wu et al., 2007). Specifically, role overload shows the strongest correlation with emotional exhaustion, with some correlations as high as $r = .60$ (Sears et al., 2000). As a result, job demands seem especially relevant to implications for change fatigue.

Finally, organizational culture can be considered a type of meta-factor when considering organizational change. In fact, communication, structure, and leadership all influence and are influenced by organizational culture, especially during change management (Nahmias, Crawford, & Combe, 2010). Organizational culture is commonly distinguished by the following three components: artifacts, espoused values and beliefs, and basic underlying assumptions (Schein, 2010). Typically, artifacts refer to the sensory environment of an organization, such as its physical environment, the language of the group, and observable rituals and ceremonies (Schein, 2010). Espoused values and beliefs refer to the ideals, goals, and aspirations the organization holds. It is important to note, however, there may be discrepancies between espoused and actual values and beliefs, such as touting teamwork as an organizational value, but actually reinforcing individual competitiveness (Schein, 2010). Lastly, basic underlying assumptions tap into unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs and values of the organization, which are extremely difficult to change due to their engrained nature (Schein, 2010). When taken together, these three components of organizational culture guide and direct the behavior and attitudes of the employees and the organization.

Researching organizational culture is rather difficult due to the complexity and ambiguity that the construct embodies. In attempts to study organizational culture, researchers have created different frameworks focused on different aspects of culture, such as the Multidimensional Model of Organizational Culture (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990), Denison & Mishra's (1995) Theoretical Model of Culture Traits, and Quinn & Rohrbaugh's (1981) Competing Values Framework. In particular,

the Competing Values Framework has been widely used to study organizational culture, because it is able to succinctly integrate the dimensions of other models (Yu & Wu, 2009), along with implicitly addressing areas such as organizational communication, structure, and leadership.

Competing Values Framework

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) developed the Competing Values Framework out of efforts to better understand organizational effectiveness. The model involves grouping clusters of organizational effectiveness indicators into a quadrant formed by two main axes, internal focus versus external focus and flexibility versus stability (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981), as illustrated in Figure 1 of Appendix A. An organization which is internally focused typically concerns itself with the maintenance of its social and technical systems, such as employee relations and training. In contrast, an externally focused organization is more concerned with its outward environment, such as competitors and the economic market (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Furthermore, organizations emphasizing flexibility prefer the ability to change and adapt, whereas organizations emphasizing stability prefer predictability and efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). These dimensions form the framework upon which organizational profiles can be created and used to identify and align the organization in such areas as culture and organizational change.

When looking at the framework more closely, each quadrant represents what is valued from an organizational performance perspective, and can include effectiveness indicators related to such areas as leadership, structure, and interpersonal relations (Quinn

& Rohrbaugh, 1981). Originally, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) labeled the quadrants based upon which organizational theory their position in the framework best represented: the Human Relations Model, Open Systems Model, Rational Goal Model, and Internal Process Model. Yet, as other researchers applied the framework to different organizational variables, succinct terms became increasingly prominent. Specifically, when investigating organizational culture, the following terms are oftentimes correspondingly used (as indicated in Figure 1 of Appendix A): Group, Developmental, Rational, and Hierarchy (Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001). It is important to note that although multiple labels exist for the different quadrants, the basic underlying values remain constant.

Culture-Type Descriptions

A group culture is characterized by an internal orientation and flexible structure. Successful leaders in a group culture are typically viewed as mentors and facilitators, while the structure of the organization supports teamwork and decentralized decision-making (Zammuto et al., 2000). In terms of interpersonal relations, group cultures foster relatively high levels of trust, morale, and leader credibility, and lower levels of conflict and resistance to change (Zammuto et al., 2000). Cohesion, morale, and development of human resources are valued most in terms of effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). In brief, the group culture promotes a view of the organization as an extended family, where employee relations drive organizational strategy.

Similarly, a developmental culture is characterized by a flexible structure, but differs from the group culture by emphasizing an external orientation. Innovators,

visionaries, and entrepreneurs usually thrive as leaders in this culture, and the structure is characterized as flat, supporting horizontal communication. Interpersonal relations follow the same pattern indicated in the group culture, while effectiveness criteria include cutting-edge output, creativity, and growth (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). As a result, the developmental culture embraces change as integral to the organization's competitive advantage.

While the rational culture is externally focused like the developmental culture, it differs by preferring a structure which supports stability and control. Leaders focusing on competition and production are generally successful, and centralized decision-making is customary of the structure (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). In contrast to the group and developmental cultures, the rational culture results in interpersonal relationships which display relatively lower levels of trust, morale, and leadership credibility, and higher levels of conflict and resistance to change (Zammuto et al., 2000). Criteria related to effectiveness include market share and goal achievement (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). In short, rational cultures reinforce its organizational strategy with values based upon bottom-line results.

The hierarchy culture is internally focused, especially in terms of rules and procedures, and emphasizes a stable structure. Leaders are mainly concerned with monitoring and coordinating, and the structure is heavily formalized, promoting vertical communication (Zammuto et al., 2000). Interpersonal relations mirror those of the rational culture, and effectiveness is gauged by efficiency, timeliness, and smooth

functioning (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Basically, the hierarchy culture models the classic concept of a bureaucracy.

These cultures are considered archetypes, and organizations are not expected to exhibit characteristics of only a single culture type (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). In fact, organizations which focus on a single quadrant may start to negatively affect their organizational performance (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Instead, an appropriate balance between all four quadrants, depending upon the competitive environment, is advisable to maintain organizational effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Overall, the Competing Values Framework offers a parsimonious model in which to compare organizational culture types across multiple industries and research interests. Empirically, the model has been tested and yielded promising results. The model, however, is not without its challenges. Specifically, different conclusions have been reached regarding the validity of the model (Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011; Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999; Marchand et al., 2013). Hartnell et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis which found modest support for the nomological validity of the framework. The researchers made four hypotheses concerning the group, developmental, and rational cultures. Two of the hypotheses were supported. Specifically, the group culture was positively related to employee attitudes, and the rational culture was positively related to financial effectiveness. However, the other two hypotheses only received limited support. Specifically, it was expected that the developmental culture would be positively related to innovation, but the rational culture was actually more strongly positively related to innovation. The rational culture was expected to be

positively related to quality of products and services, but the group culture was found to be more strongly positively related to quality of products and services. The researchers concluded the nomological validity of the framework only received modest support overall.

On the other hand, other researchers have found the Competing Values Framework to be nomologically valid. For example, Marchand et al. (2013) found the nomological validity of the Competing Values Framework was supported in their study. Additionally, Kalliath et al. (1999) found, with one exception, support for the Competing Values Framework. Their study found the cultures along each superordinate axis (i.e., flexibility/stability and internal/external orientation) were positively correlated as hypothesized. They also tested the correlation in opposing culture quadrants (i.e., group vs. rational and hierarchical vs. developmental) and expected to find zero, or close to zero, correlations. This held true for the group and rational cultures, but not for the hierarchical and developmental culture. The researchers explained this apparently contradictory finding by offering a number of explanations, including the fact that the sample (the American health care industry) was undergoing a lot of turbulent change during the study which could account for the multiple emphases on stability and flexibility. While it is acknowledged that organizational culture is inherently difficult to measure, this study will hopefully provide further clarity regarding the question of the Competing Values Framework's validity as an instrument.

Currently, there is limited research focusing specifically on organizational culture and employee work-related stress variables, and even fewer which directly use the

Competing Values Framework. However, in the occupational health literature, there are studies examining the effects of healthy work environments, which have organizational culture implications, and how they relate to employee well-being and stress (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). Healthy work environments typically exhibit lower levels of stress and turnover rates, and higher levels of employee organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). In an effort to integrate these two fields, there are at least two studies which examine quality of work life and occupational health using the Competing Values Framework directly (Goodman et al., 2001; Marchand et al., 2013).

In a study of hospital obstetrics' staff, a significant difference was found between cultures, in terms of certain employee attitudes (Goodman et al., 2001). Staff working in the group culture reported significant positive correlations with organizational commitment ($r = .49$), while also reporting a negative relationship with turnover intention ($r = -.49$) compared to staff working in other cultures. On the other hand, staff working in hierarchical and rational cultures reported negative associations with organizational commitment, $r = -.40$ and $r = -.14$, respectively, while also reporting moderately positive relationships with turnover intentions, $r = .34$ and $r = .27$, respectively, compared to staff working in other cultures. There were no significant results relating the developmental culture to employee attitudes. Based on these findings, it seems the group culture may be more likely to exhibit a healthy work environment, and the hierarchical and rational cultures may potentially foster unhealthy work environments.

In terms of occupational stress and well-being, another study used the Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) to measure the culture types associated with the Competing Values Framework (Marchand et al., 2013). How different organizational culture types are predictive of health outcomes—psychological distress, depression, emotional exhaustion—and well-being were examined. Using multilevel analysis, it was found that organizational culture type was related to these outcomes, with some culture types exhibiting stronger associations than others. Specifically, the group culture was found to be the most consistent and have the strongest association with the health outcomes. The group culture was found to be negatively related to higher scores on psychological distress, depression, and emotional exhaustion while positively related to higher scores on well-being. On the other hand, the rational culture was found to be consistently related to negative health outcomes, but not the well-being measure. The two remaining cultures, hierarchical and developmental, were both significantly associated with only one health outcome, well-being and emotional exhaustion, respectively. Based on these findings, change fatigue may be more likely to occur in the rational culture, and less likely to occur in the group and hierarchical cultures.

In terms of the relationship between organizational culture and change fatgiue, the Marchand et al. (2013) results show the group, rational, and developmental cultures may best distinguish this measure across workplaces. In their multi-level analysis, Marchand et al. (2013) found that after controlling for certain individual and organizational variables, the group, rational, and developmental cultures still explained a significant

portion of the variance in emotional exhaustion scores. While the hierarchy culture did

not significantly explain variance in emotional exhaustion, the Goodman et al. (2001)

study reveals the hierarchy culture may still be positively related to change fatigue. This

is exhibited through the relationship found between the hierarchy culture and

organizational commitment and turnover intentions, which reflect the same relationship

found betweeen change fatigue and the same variables (Bernerth et al., 2011).

Due to the complex nature of the organizational culture construct and the novelty

of the change fatigue constuct, it is worth exploring this relationship for two main

reasons. The first reason for further consideration takes into account the Person-

Environment Fit Model, where many studies have researched the person-side of the

model, but more environmental-side research needs to be explored. Research using

organizational culture as a variable helps satisfy this need for more environmental work.

The second reason for further consideration recognizes the necessity of building the

research examining change fatigue, directly, in order to further support the reliability and

validity of the construct.

Purpose and Hypotheses

Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to examine how specific aspects

related to the person and the environment relate to perceptions of too much change.

From the individual perspective, internal work locus of control is expected to be

negatively related to change fatigue. From an environment perspective, organizational

culture-types are expected to be related to change fatigue. Specifically, the group and

developmental cultures are expected to be negatively related to change fatigue, while the

rational and hierarchy cultures are expected to be positively related to change fatigue.

Furthermore, the current study seeks to confirm previous relationships found

between change fatigue, emotional exhaustion, and employee reactions, in terms of

organizational commitment and turnover intentions (Bernerth et al., 2011). It is expected

that change fatigue will be positively related to emotional exhaustion. Additionally,

change fatigue will be positively related to turnover intentions and negatively related to

organizational commitment; this relationship is expected to be mediated by emotional

exhaustion. Organizational commitment is also expected to be negatively related to

turnover intentions.

Finally, it is expected that type of organizational culture will also moderate the

strength of the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational

commitment. Specifically, it is expected that the group and developmental culture-types

will have a reducing, or buffering, effect on the negative relationship between emotional

exhaustion and organizational commitment. The hierarchy and rational culture-types are

expected to enhance the negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and

organizational commitment. See Figure 2 of Appendix A for a diagram of all

hypothesized relationships.

For the purpose of the current study, it will also be beneficial to ascertain

individuals' perceptions of the type of organizational change taking place, since this

could potentially impact perceptions of too much change. Therefore, a 6-item measure

developed by Rafferty & Griffin (2006) will be used to measure perceptions of

transformational change and planned change. In addition, demographics and potential covariates, such as age, work experience, and organizational position will be measured through survey responses. By attempting to extend the results found in previous studies conducted by Bernerth et al. (2011), Marchand et al. (2013), and Goodman et al. (2001), this study can significantly contribute to the change fatigue literature.

Hypothesis 1: Internal work locus of control will be negatively related to change fatigue.

Hypothesis 2: Organizational culture-type will be related to change fatigue.

2a: The group culture will be negatively related to change fatigue.

2b: The developmental culture will be negatively related to change fatigue.

2c: The rational culture will be positively related to change fatigue.

2d: The hierarchy culture will be positively related to change fatigue.

Hypothesis 3: Change fatigue will be positively related to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 4: Change fatigue will be positively related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5: Change fatigue will be negatively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6: Emotional exhaustion will mediate the relationship between change fatigue and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 7: Emotional exhaustion will mediate the relationship between change fatigue and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 8: Organizational commitment will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 9: Organizational culture-type will moderate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment.

> 9a: The group culture will have a buffering effect on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment.

> 9b: The developmental culture will have a buffering effect on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment.

> 9c: The rational culture will have an enhancing effect on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment.

> 9d: The hierarchy culture will have an enhancing effect on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment.

CHAPTER II: METHOD

Participants

Participants in this study included 404 United States employees currently working at least 25 hours per week for the past eight (8) months at their current organization. Amazon's Mechanical Turk (AMT) was used for online recruitment of participants. AMT is an online marketplace that allows individuals to choose tasks to complete for compensation. For participating in the study, participants received compensation of $0.20. AMT is beneficial as a sampling tool, because it allowed access to a broad demographic of workers which helped ensure a representative sample. Additionally, AMT offered a more secure level of anonymity, which helped with collecting honest responses.

A total of 472 participants completed the survey. However, 68 participants were screened out of the data. Twenty-five (25) participants did not answer at least 75% of the manipulation checks (3/4) correctly. The remaining 43 were screened out due to no variability across the four culture-types.

Demographic information was collected at the end of the survey (see Table 2 of Appendix B) for purposes of sample description. Of the 404 participants, 56% were female, 44% were between the ages of 25 and 34, 71% identified as White/Caucasian, 45% were married or in a domestic partnership, 37% indicated Bachelor's degree as the highest level of education completed, 33% indicated working as an analyst/associate, and 54% worked for a for-profit organization.

Measures

Change fatigue. A six-item change fatigue measure ($\alpha = .84$) developed by Bernerth et al. (2011) was used to assess change fatigue perceptions. Initial validity studies were conducted, which found evidence to support constuct validity. Items include statements, such as "Too many changes are introduced at my organization" and "I am tired of all the changes in this company" (see Appendix C). In general, this measure assesses a general impression that too much change is taking place. The measure uses a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree."

Organizational culture. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), a six-item measure developed by Cameron & Quinn (1999), was used to determine an organizational cultural profile. This instrument measures each of the four culture types (group, developmental, rational, and hierarchy) as separate variables. Four independent studies conducted by the following researchers, Kalliath, Bluedorn & Gillespie (1991), Quinn & Spreitzer (1991), Yeung, Brockbank, & Ulrich (1991), and Zammuto & Krakower (1991), provide reliability coefficients for each culture-type (as cited in Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The group culture reliability coefficient ranged from .74 to .90. The developmental culture reliability coefficient ranged from .79 to .83. The hierarchy culture reliability coefficient ranged from .67 to .80. And finally, the rational culture's reliability coefficient ranged from .71 to .83.

In terms of the measure itself, six items are used to assess the extent to which each culture-type is perceived as descriptive of the organization (see Appendix D). Respondents divide 100 points between each of the four culture-type alternatives,

depending on the extent to which each alternative represents their organization. Each alternative is then averaged across the six items to calculate a score for each culture-type.

Organizational change. A change survey developed by Rafferty & Griffin (2006) assesses perceptions of change in terms of frequency of change, planned change, transformational change, and psychological uncertainty. For the purposes of the current study, the change scales relating to transformational change and planned change were used (see Appendix E). Both change scales contain three items and are measured using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (a great deal). Initial reliability for each change scale was determined from two samples. Transformational change had a Cronbach's alpha of .89 and .87 for Samples 1 and 2, respectively. Planned change had an alpha of .76 and .90 for Samples 1 and 2, respectively.

Work locus of control. A modified work locus of control measure developed by Gupchup & Wolfgang (1997) assesses perceptions of control over work outcomes. There are 20 items, and individuals rate the degree to which they agree with each statement (see Appendix F). A five-point Likert scale was used to determine extent of agreement, with 1 corresponding to "strongly disagree" and 5 corresponding to "strongly agree." Using Cronbach's alpha, reliability of the scale was found to be .88. Additionally, the scale demonstrated convergent validity when correlated with job dissatisfaction and personality measures of extraversion, conscientiousness, and neuroticism.

Emotional exhaustion. A nine-item measure developed by Maslach & Jackson (1981) was used to measure emotional exhaustion. The measure is a subscale of a larger burnout inventory (see Appendix G). The emotional exhaustion measure assesses the

perceived frequency of emotional exhaustion. Frequency was measured on a six-point

Likert scale, with 1 corresponding to "A few times per year" and 6 corresponding to

"Every day." Individuals can also choose "Never," which is coded to 0.

Reliability for the frequency scale is .89. Convergent validity was demonstrated

in multiple ways with the larger burnout inventory. This included correlating the

measure with behavioral ratings made by an independent rater who was close to the

subject, correlating the measure with job characteristics expected to contribute to

burnout, and correlating the measure with various outcomes which were hypothesized to

be related to burnout.

Organizational commitment. The short version of the Organizational

Commitment Questionnaire, developed by Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979), was used to

measure organizational commitment (see Appendix H). Nine statements were rated on a

seven-point Likert scale, with 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree." Bernerth

et al. (2011) found reliability of the scale to be .87 and .83 in two separate studies. An

example statement is "I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is

normally expected in order to help this firm be successful."

Turnover intentions. A five-item measure from Wayne et al. (1997) was used to

assess intentions to leave an organization (see Appendix I). Individuals respond to the

items with a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 =

"strongly agree." One item, "I think I will be working at my current employer five years

from now" was reverse scored. Cronbach's alpha for the measure was found to be .89.

Procedure

A survey was developed through Qualtrics, and a link to the survey instrument was made available on AMT. At the beginning of the survey instrument, participants were provided with a brief description of the study and completed an electronic informed consent in order to proceed with the survey. A manipulation check, including items such as "answer neutral for this item," was included in the survey. Participants were excluded from data analysis if at least 75% (3/4) of the manipulation check questions were not answered correctly. Participants answered 61 items rating their perceptions of change characteristics, organizational culture, work locus of control, change fatigue, emotional exhaustion, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Each scale related to each construct was asked together, e.g. all items related to change fatigue were grouped together. Next, participants answered demographic questions related to age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, highest education level, job title, organizational tenure, organizational role, and type of organization. After completion of the survey, participants received a code to provide the AMT system to receive the $0.20 compensation.

CHAPTER III: RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive statistics were ran on all quantitative variables, and frequencies were obtained for the demographic information. Descriptive statistics for all quantitative variables can be found in Table 1 of Appendix B. Frequencies on demographics can be found in Table 2 of Appendix B. Reliability analyses were conducted on scales used in the survey. Reliability was adequate for all scales, and ranged from 0.81 to 0.95 (see Table 3 of Appendix B). Due to the ipsative nature of the organizational culture measure, no reliability estimates were conducted. Additionally, Pearson's correlations ($\alpha = .05$) were conducted between variables of interest. A correlation matrix summarizing the bivariate relationships is provided in Table 4 of Appendix B.

Correlational Analyses

In order to test the hypotheses, there were two major types of analyses used, bivariate correlation and multiple regression. Pearson's correlation ($\alpha = .05$) was used to test Hypothesis 1 and examined the relationship between internal work locus of control and change fatigue. Results indicated internal work locus of control is significantly and negatively related to change fatigue ($r = -.29$, $p < .001$), providing support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 expected organizational culture-type (group, developmental, rational, and hierarchy) would be related to change fatigue. Because each organizational culture-type is a dichotomous variable, a point-biserial correlation ($\alpha = .05$) was used to test the hypotheses. Hypotheses 2a and 2b expected change fatigue to be negatively

related to the group and developmental cultures, respectively. Results indicated a significant negative relationship exists between change fatigue and the group culture-type (r_{pb} = -.30, p < .001), supporting Hypothesis 2a. There was no relationship found between the developmental culture and change fatigue (r_{pb} = -.06, p = .21); therefore, Hypothesis 2b was not supported. Hypotheses 2c and 2d expected change fatigue to be positively related to the rational and hierarchical cultures, respectively. Results indicated a significant positive relationship exists between change fatigue and the rational culture-type (r_{pb} = .28, p < .001), supporting Hypothesis 2c. There was no significant relationship found between the hierarchy culture and change fatigue (r_{pb} = .05, p = .29); therefore, Hypothesis 2d was not supported.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 expected change fatigue to be positively related to emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions, respectively. Pearson's correlation (α = .05) indicated significant positive relationships existed between change fatigue and emotional exhaustion (r = .52, p < .001), and change fatigue and turnover intentions (r = .38, p < .001), supporting Hypotheses 3 and 4.

Pearson's correlation (α = .05) was also used to analyze Hypotheses 5 and 8. Hypothesis 5 examined the relationship between change fatigue and organizational commitment. A significant negative relationship was found between change fatigue and organizational commitment (r = -.38, p < .001), supporting Hypothesis 5. Hypothesis 8 expected organizational commitment to be negatively related to turnover intentions. A significant negative relationship was found between organizational commitment and turnover intentions (r = -.69, p < .001), providing support for Hypothesis 8.

Analysis of Mediated Relationships

The mediating effects of emotional exhaustion were analyzed to test Hypotheses 6 and 7. The three-step mediation process described by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used to determine the extent of mediation. Hypothesis 6 expected emotional exhaustion to mediate the relationship between change fatigue and organizational commitment. Change fatigue was found to be significantly related to both the proposed mediator, emotional exhaustion [$r = .52$, $F(1, 402) = 146.83$, $MSE = 1.84$, $p < .001$], and the dependent variable, organizational commitment, [$r = -.38$, $F(1, 402) = 66.72$, $MSE = 1.69$, $p < .001$]. To test for mediation, a multiple regression analysis ($\alpha = .05$) was conducted with both change fatigue and emotional exhaustion entered as predictors of organizational commitment. Results indicated the overall regression model was significant, $F(2, 401) = 97.97$, $MSE = 1.33$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .33$. In order for full mediation to occur, change fatigue should no longer predict organizational commitment when controlling for the effects of emotional exhaustion. Results of the multiple regression analysis indicated change fatigue was still a significant predictor of organizational commitment, $\beta = -.12$, $t(403) = -2.44$, $p = .02$. The indirect effect of change fatigue on organizational commitment is estimated at -.23, which approaches a large effect size. To test if the indirect effect is significantly greater than zero, a Sobel test was conducted which indicated the indirect effect is statistically significant ($p < .001$). This provides evidence that emotional exhaustion partially mediates the relationship between change fatigue and organizational commitment, which provides partial support for Hypothesis 6. See Figure 3 of Appendix A for a model of the results.

The same three step process was used to test Hypothesis 7, which examined the mediating effects of emotional exhaustion on the relationship between change fatigue and turnover intentions. Change fatigue was previously found to be significantly related to emotional exhaustion, $r = .52$, $F (1, 402) = 146.83$, $MSE = 1.84$, $p < .001$. Change fatigue was also significantly related to the dependent variable, turnover intentions, $r = .38$, $F (1, 402) = 66.95$, $MSE = 2.84$, $p < .001$. To test for mediation, a multiple regression analysis ($\alpha = .05$) was conducted with both change fatigue and emotional exhaustion entered as predictors of turnover intentions. Results indicated the overall regression model was significant, $F (2, 401) = 123.29$, $MSE = 2.06$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .38$. Emotional exhaustion fully mediated the relationship between change fatigue and turnover intentions as indicated by the non-significant regression coefficient for change fatigue, $\beta = .08$, $t (403) = 1.80$, $p = .07$. The indirect effect of change fatigue on turnover intentions is estimated to be .34, which is considered a large effect size. The Sobel test indicated the indirect effect was significantly greater than zero ($p < .001$). These results provide support for Hypothesis 7. See Figure 4 of Appendix A for a model of the results.

Analysis of Moderated Relationships

Hypothesis 9 examined if organizational culture-type (group, developmental, rational, and hierarchy) moderates the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment. In order to test this hypothesis, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. To dummy code the categorical variable of organizational culture-type, effect coding was used with the group culture-type as the reference group.

Additionally, interaction terms between emotional exhaustion and each dummy code were created.

A three-stage hierarchical regression analysis was conducted with organizational commitment as the dependent variable. Emotional exhaustion was entered at stage one of the regression. The organization culture-type dummy variables were entered at stage two, and the interaction terms were entered at stage three.

The hierarchical regression analysis ($\alpha = .05$) revealed emotional exhaustion significantly contributed to the regression model at stage one, F (1,402) = 187.67, $MSE = 1.35$, $p < .001$, and accounted for 32% of the variation in organizational commitment. By adding organizational culture-type in stage two, an additional 4% of the variance in organizational commitment was explained, and this change in R^2 was significant, $F\varDelta$ (3, 399) = 8.31, $p < .001$ when controlling for emotional exhaustion. The addition of the interaction terms minimally changed the amount of variance explained in organizational commitment, and therefore did not add significantly to the regression model, $R^2\varDelta = .01$, $F\varDelta$ (3, 396) = 1.79, $p = .15$. These results indicate organizational culture-type does not moderate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment. Hypothesis 9 was not supported.

Additional analyses were ran to examine if the different culture-types had either a buffering effect or an enhancing effect on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment. Hypotheses 9a and 9b expected the group and developmental cultures, respectively, to have a buffering effect on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment. Hypotheses 9c and 9d

expected the rational and hierarchy culture-types, respectively, to have an enhancing

effect on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment.

To test these hypotheses, a Z test was conducted examining whether the

correlation between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment was

significantly lower in the group and developmental cultures when compared to the

rational and hierarchy cultures. First, the group culture was compared to the rational and

hierarchy cultures, respectively. Results indicated the correlation between emotional

exhaustion and organizational commitment was similar for the group ($r = -.52$, $n = 138$)

and the rational ($r = -.58$, $n = 123$) cultures, $Z = -.68$, $p > .05$. Additionally, results

indicated the correlation between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment

was similar for the group ($r = -.52$, $n = 138$) and hierarchy ($r = -.48$, $n = 120$) cultures,

$Z = .37$, $p > .05$. Hypothesis 9a was not supported.

Next, the developmental culture was compared to the rational and hierarchy

cultures, respectively. Results indicated the correlation between emotional exhaustion

and organizational commitment was similar for the developmental ($r = -.41$, $n = 23$) and

rational ($r = -.58$, $n = 123$) cultures, $Z = -.88$, $p > .05$. Results also indicated the

correlation between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment was similar for

the developmental ($r = -.41$, $n = 23$) and hierarchy ($r = -.48$, $n = 120$) cultures, $Z = -.33$,

$p > .05$. Hypothesis 9b was not supported. Since the correlation between emotional

exhaustion and organizational commitment was not significantly higher for the rational or

hierarchy cultures when compared to the group and developmental cultures, Hypotheses

9c and 9d were not supported.

CHAPTER IV: DISCUSSION

Findings from this study suggest change fatigue is related to certain aspects of organizational culture and also to specific negative work outcomes. There are several key findings from this research. First, organizational culture does seem to be linked to perceptions of too much change. Specifically, the group culture-type, characterized by fostering supportive employee relations, is strongly associated with lower levels of change fatigue. This is consistent with findings from Goodman et al. (2001) and Marchand et al. (2013), which both found the group culture to be linked to positive employee outcomes, such as increased organizational commitment and lower levels of emotional exhaustion. Additionally, the rational culture, which emphasizes competition and bottom-line results, is strongly related to increased levels of change fatigue. This is also consistent with previous findings, which found the rational culture to be associated with negative work outcomes, such as emotional exhaustion.

Both the developmental and hierarchical culture-types were not found to be related to perceptions of too much change taking place in an organization. Due to a low sample number for the developmental culture-type, which has a strong focus on innovation, there was likely not enough power to detect a potential relationship. Therefore, future research may continue to explore the possibility of change fatigue being related to the developmental culture-type.

The hierarchical culture-type, with its emphasis on bureaucracy, was also not found to be related to change fatigue. This finding is consistent with similar results obtained by Marchand et al. (2013) which studied the relationship between the hierarchy

34

culture-type and a similar construct, emotional exhaustion. However, this study expected to find a negative relationship due to the hierarchical culture-type being associated with negative employee work attitudes, such as turnover intentions (Goodman et al., 2001). One possible explanation for the current study's finding is that while the hierarchy culture-type may be viewed as inflexible and rigid, it also may act as a source of stability. Future research might explore how an employee's perceptions toward burearcracy may be related to perceptions of too much change.

A second key finding from this study exists in the validation and expansion of change fatigue's nomological network. This study found similar results documented by Bernerth et al. (2011) which found initial validity evidence for the change fatigue construct. As in their study, change fatigue was found to be linked with higher levels of emotional exhaustion and worked through emotional exhaustion to impact organizational commitment and turnover intentions. In the current study, these relationships were found to be fully and partially mediated through the effects of emotional exhaustion.

This study expanded the nomological net of Bernerth et al. (2011) in multiple ways. It was previously found that internal work locus of control is related to lower levels of emotional exhaustion. This study expected a similar relationship to be found with change fatigue and internal work locus of control. As expected, change fatigue was found to be associated with lower levels of internal work locus of control (external locus of control). This means employees who feel more in control of their work outcomes, such as promotions and raises, are less likely to experience perceptions of too much

change. This finding represents a first step in exploring potential personal characteristics associated with change fatigue.

Finally, organizational culture was not found to be a moderator of the relationships between change fatigue and organizational commitment or turnover intentions. Detecting potential relationships with organizational culture can be challenging due to difficulties with measuring such an expansive, multicomponent construct. Additionally, there was no buffering or enhancing effect based on the type of culture. It is recognized that organizational culture is an inherently difficult construct to measure and potentially makes it challenging for relationships to be detected. A further complication in detecting a moderating effect is the low power associated with the test when continuous variables are entered into the model (McClelland & Judd, 1993). Therefore, while there may be a compelling case for the existence of a moderating effect of culture-type on levels of change fatigue, this may be difficult to examine due to methodological artifacts. Future research might continue to explore this relationship with different measures of organizational culture, such as the Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

Overall, there is currently limited knowledge regarding change fatigue and its potential relationships with other variables of interest. Therefore, more research is needed to help establish further evidence of the construct's validity and its nomological network. Future research might focus on additional potential contributing factors to change fatigue. Some variables of interest which were not able to be included in this study include variables related to individual differences, such as personality, tolerance for ambiguity,

and stress. Additional organizational factors, such as leadership style, role clarity, and role ambiguity, might be considered, as well. Measuring organizational culture is particularly difficult, therefore, future research might consider using a different measure of culture and examine its effects on change fatigue.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
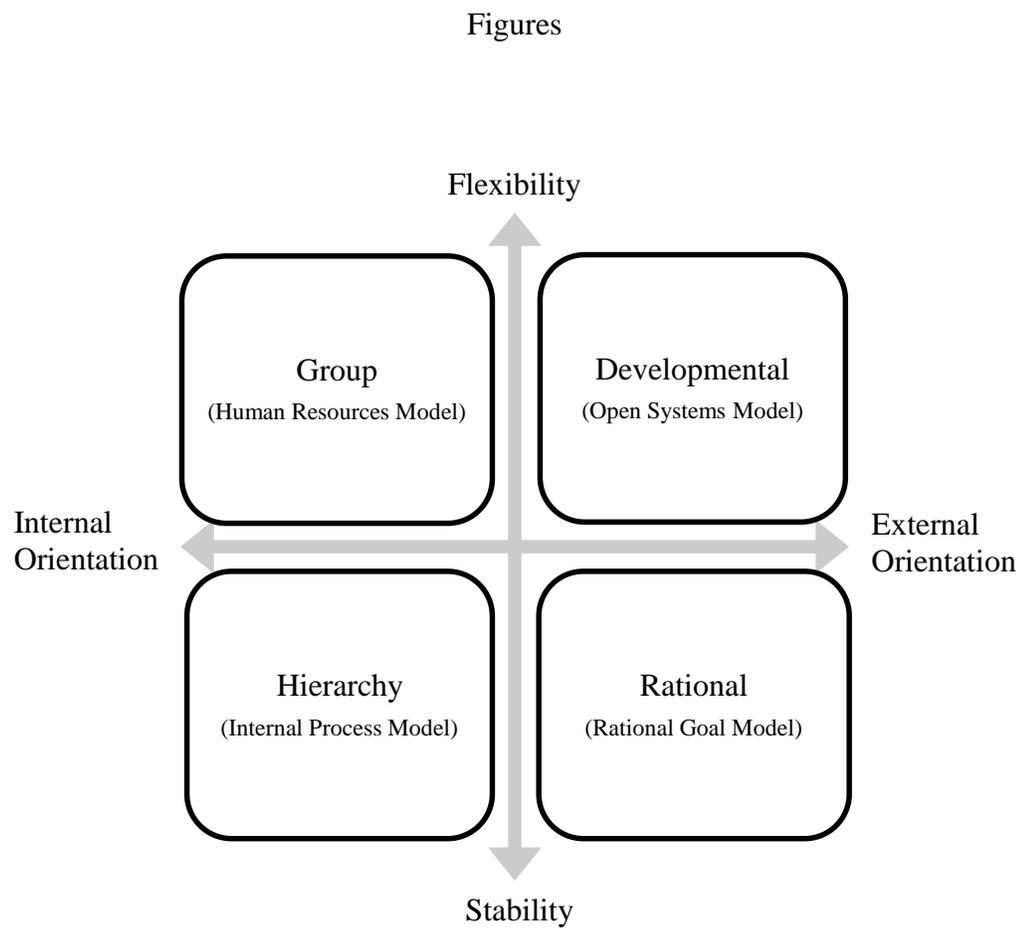
Figures

Figure 1. Competing Values Framework.
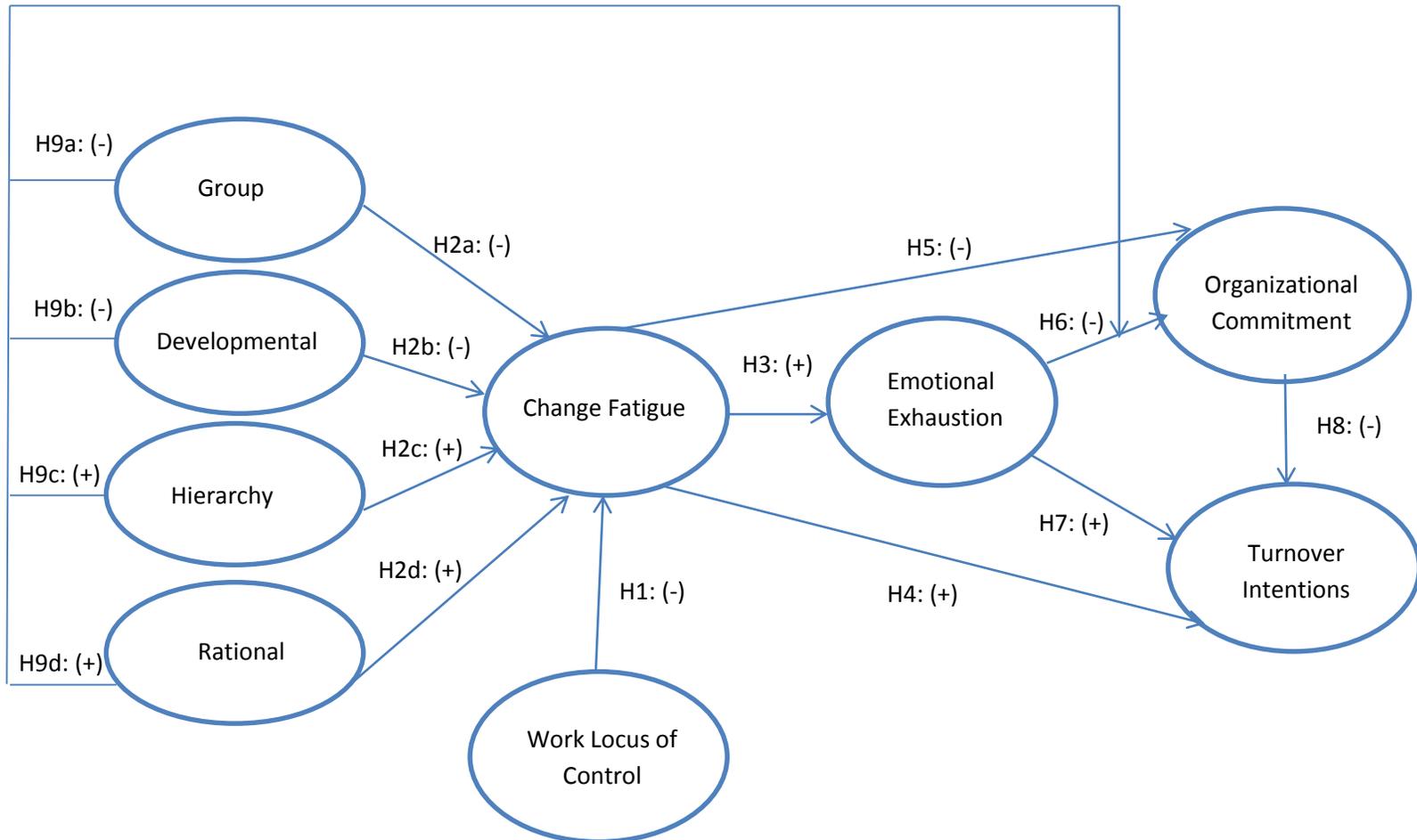
Figure 2. Diagram of hypothesized relationships.

Change Fatigue → Organizational Commitment — .38**

Emotional Exhaustion .52** → Change Fatigue -.50** → Organizational Commitment -.12*
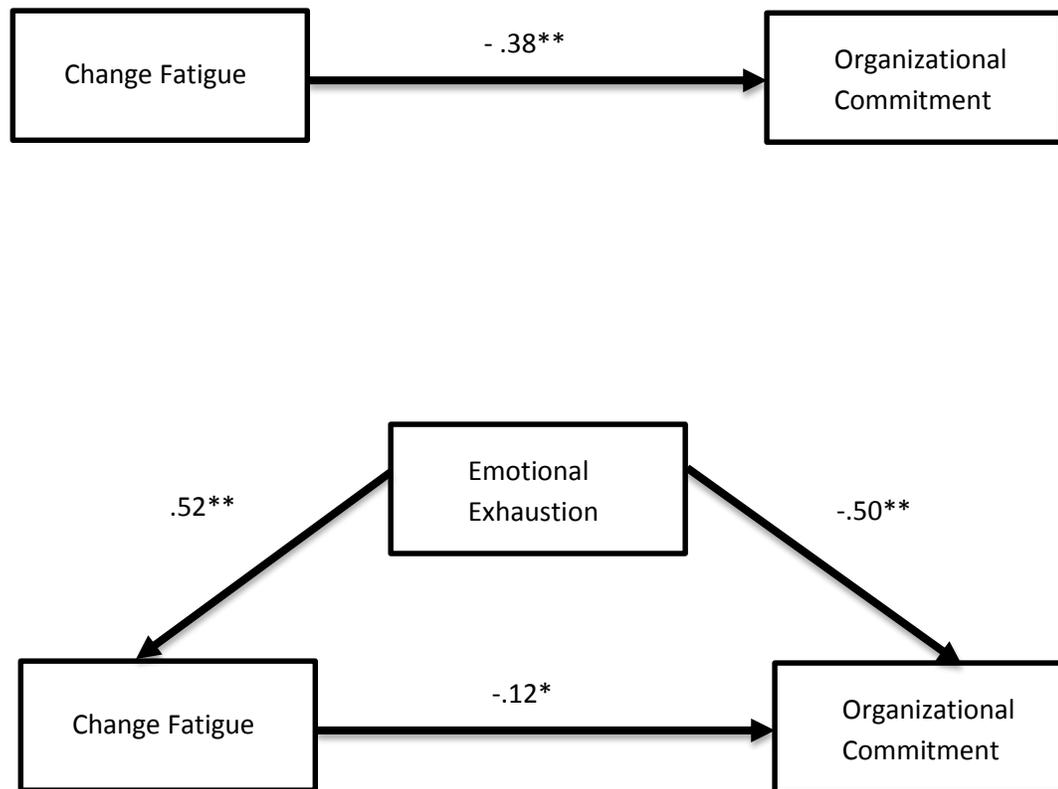
Note. **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$

Figure 3. Model of mediation between change fatigue, emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment.
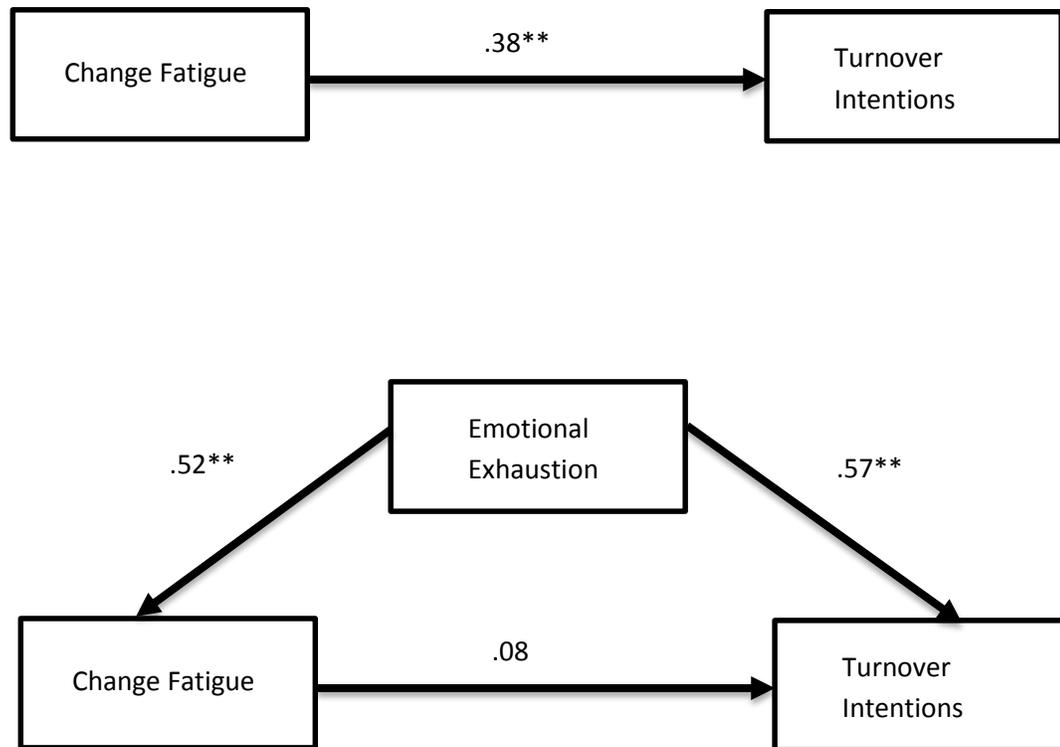
Note. **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$

Figure 4. Model of mediation between change fatigue, emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions.

APPENDIX B

Tables

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for All Quantitative Variables

	M	*SD*	Min	Max
Change Fatigue	4.05	1.59	1.00	7.00
Work Locus of Control	3.48	0.60	1.40	4.95
Emotional Exhaustion	3.88	1.58	1.00	7.00
Organizational Commitment	4.60	1.40	1.00	7.00
Turnover Intentions	3.85	1.81	1.00	7.00
Planned Change	4.22	1.33	1.00	7.00
Transformational Change	4.09	1.47	1.00	7.00
Years Working[a]	14.67	11.36	1.00	47.00

Note. n = 404, [a] *n* = 403

Table 2

Frequencies of Organizational Culture & Demographic Variables

Variable		Frequency	%
Dominant Organizational Culture	Group	138	34.16
	Developmental	23	5.69
	Rational	123	30.45
	Hierarchy	120	29.70
Age	18-24	68	15.70
	25-34	191	44.11
	35-44	78	18.01
	45-54	59	13.63
	55-64	35	8.08
	65-74	2	0.46
	75+	0	0.00
Gender	Male	189	43.55
	Female	245	56.45
Ethnicity	White/Caucasian	310	71.43
	Hispanic/Latino	25	5.76
	Black/African American	47	10.83
	Native American/American Indian	6	1.38
	Asian/Pacific Islander	39	8.99
	Mixed	7	1.61
Marital Status	Single, never married	184	42.40
	Married or domestic partnership	197	45.39
	Widowed	9	2.07
	Divorced	37	8.53
	Separated	7	1.61

Table 2

Frequencies of Demographic Variables (continued)

Variable		Frequency	%
Highest education level	Some high school, no diploma	2	.46
	High school graduate, GED	58	13.36
	Some college credit, no degree	104	23.96
	Trade/Technical/Vocational diploma	9	2.07
	Associate's degree	44	10.14
	Bachelor's degree	161	37.10
	Master's degree	36	8.29
	Professional degree	9	2.07
	Doctorate	11	2.53
Job title	Intern	3	.69
	Entry level	97	22.35
	Analyst/Associate	145	33.41
	Manager	83	19.12
	Senior Manger	6	1.38
	Director	12	2.76
	Vice President	1	.23
	Senior Vice President	2	.46
	C-level Executive	0	0.00
	President	2	.46
	Owner	3	.69
	Other	80	18.43
Organization type	For profit	237	54.48
	Non-profit	24	5.52
	Government	39	8.97
	Health Care	56	12.87
	Education	41	9.43
	Other	38	8.74

Table 3

Scale Reliabilities

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Change Fatigue	0.95	6
Work Locus of Control	0.89	20
Emotional Exhaustion	0.94	9
Organizational Commitment	0.94	9
Turnover Intentions	0.91	5
Planned Change	0.81	3
Transformational Change	0.87	3

Table 4

Intercorrelations between all Quantitative Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Change Fatigue	–							
2. Work Locus of Control	-.29**	–						
3. Emotional Exhaustion	.52**	-.49**	–					
4. Organizational Commitment	-.38**	.50**	-.56**	–				
5. Turnover Intentions	.38**	-.45**	.61**	-.69**	–			
6. Planned Change	.14**	.04	.12*	.13**	-.04	–		
7. Transformational Change	.51**	-.26**	.34**	-.22**	.26**	.36**	–	
8. Years Working	.08	.04	-.03	-.02	-.01	-.04	.004	–

Note. $n = 403$ for Years Working, all other variables $n = 404$; $**p < .01$, $*p < .05$

APPENDIX C

Six-Item Measure of Change Fatigue

1. Too many change initiatives are introduced at my organization.

2. I am tired of all the changes in this company.

3. The amount of change that takes place at my organization is overwhelming.

4. We are asked to change too many things at my organization.

5. It feels like we are always being asking to change something around here.

6. I would like to see a period of stability before we change anything else in this

company.

APPENDIX D

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

Directions: Below are six items relating to organizational culture, with each item containing four alternatives. Think of your organization's current culture, and divide 100 points between the four alternatives. Give the alternative most like your organization's culture the highest number of points. When added together, the four alternatives' points should equal 100.

1.	Dominant Characteristics	Now
A.	The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves	
B.	The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	
C.	The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.	
D.	The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	
	Total	100

2.	Organizational Leadership	Now
A.	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.	
B.	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.	
C.	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.	
D.	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.	
	Total	100

3.	**Management of Employees**	Now
A.	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	
B.	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	
C.	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driven, competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	
D.	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.	
	Total	100

4.	**Organization Glue**	Now
A.	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.	
B.	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being at the cutting edge.	
C.	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.	
D.	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.	
	Total	100

5.	**Strategic Emphasis**	Now
A.	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.	
B.	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	
C.	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.	
D.	The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.	
	Total	100

57

6.	Criteria of Success	Now
A.	The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	
B.	The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.	
C.	The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.	
D.	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.	
	Total	100

APPENDIX E

Type-of-Change Scales

Table C1

Planned Change Scale

	Items
1.	Change has involved prior preparation and planning by my manager or unit
2.	Change has been the result of a deliberate decision to change by my manger/unit
3.	Change has occurred due to goals developed by my manager or unit

Table C2

Transformational Change Scale

	Items
1.	To what extent have you experienced large scale changes which significantly change your work unit's goals
2.	To what extent have you experienced changes that affect your work unit's structure
3.	To what extent have you experienced changes to the values of your work unit

APPENDIX F

Work Locus of Control Measure

1. My job is what I make of it

2. On my job, I can pretty much accomplish whatever I set out to accomplish

3. If I know what I want out of a job, I can find a job that gives it to me

4. If I were unhappy with a decision made by my boss, I would do something about it

5. Getting the job I want is a matter of luck*

6. Getting a salary raise is generally a matter of good fortune*

7. I'm capable of doing the job well if I make the effort

8. In order to get a really good job, I would need to have family members or friends in high places*

9. I believe that promotions are usually a matter of good fortune*

10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who I know is more important than what I can do*

11. I would be given a promotion based on how well I perform on the job

12. In order to get a salary raise, I would have to know the right people*

13. For me to be an outstanding employee on most jobs, it would take a lot of luck*

14. Getting rewarded on my job would depend on how well I perform

15. When required, I can have a good deal of influence on my supervisor

16. When I make plans on my job, I am almost certain to make them work

17. Although I might have the necessary abilities, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power*

18. It's not always wise for me to plan ahead on the job because things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune*

19. When I get what I want on a job, it's because I worked hard for it

20. Whether or not I advance on the job depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time*

*Reverse Scored

APPENDIX G

Emotional Exhaustion Measure

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work

2. I feel used up at the end of the workday

3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job

4. Working with people all day is really a strain for me

5. I feed burned out from my work

6. I feel frustrated by my job

7. I feel I'm working too hard on my job

8. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me

9. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope

APPENDIX H

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help my organization be successful.

2. I talk up my organization to my friends as a great place to work.

3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for my organization.

4. I find that my values and the organization's value are very similar.

5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of my organization.

6. My organization really inspires my best job performance.

7. I am extremely glad that I chose my current organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.

8. I really care about the fate of my organization.

9. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

APPENDIX I

Turnover Intention Measure

1. I am actively looking for a job outside my current employer.

2. As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my current employer.

3. I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.

4. I often think about quitting my job at my current employer.

5. I think I will be working at my current employer five years from now.*

Reverse scored

APPENDIX J

IRB Approval Letter

**MIDDLE
TENNESSEE**
STATE UNIVERSITY

7/21/2014

Investigator(s): Crystal Perel, Dr. Patrick McCarthy
Department: Psychology
Investigator(s) Email Address: cdt2x@mtmail.mtsu.edu; patrick.mccarthy@ mtsu.edu

Protocol Title: Examining the Relationship Between Organizational Culture and Change Fatigue

Protocol Number: #15-011

Dear Investigator(s),

Your study has been designated to be exempt. The exemption is pursuant to 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) Educational Tests, Surveys, Interviews, or Observations.

We will contact you annually on the status of your project. If it is completed, we will close it out of our system. You do not need to complete a progress report and you will not need to complete a final report. It is important to note that your study is approved for the life of the project and does not have an expiration date.

The following changes must be reported to the Office of Compliance before they are initiated:
- Adding new subject population
- Adding a new investigator
- Adding new procedures (e.g., new survey; new questions to your survey)
- A change in funding source
- Any change that makes the study no longer eligible for exemption.

The following changes do not need to be reported to the Office of Compliance:
- Editorial or administrative revisions to the consent or other study documents
- Increasing or decreasing the number of subjects from your proposed population

If you encounter any serious unanticipated problems to participants, or if you have any questions as you conduct your research, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Sincerely,

Lauren K. Qualls, Graduate Assistant
Office of Compliance
615-494-8918