

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

**Leadership Style and Employee Resistance to Change:
The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction and Organisational
Commitment**

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by

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Abstract

Although many scholars have recently indicated that an enormous number of organisational change initiatives fail due to several reasons, it has been argued that resistance to organisational change is one of the foremost reasons, if not the main reason, for failure of these initiatives. Surprisingly, this phenomenon has not been received adequate attention from researchers. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the effects of two leadership styles, leader-member exchange (LMX) and transformational leadership (TL), on resistance to organisational change both directly and indirectly through the mediation effects of two work-related attitudes, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Furthermore, it sought to examine the relationship between some demographic characteristics (age, tenure, qualifications, and job level) of participants and their resistance to organisational change.

Instruments used in the current study were adopted from previously validated scale measures published in top academic journals. Data were collected from employees and their immediate managers at three Saudi organisations under process of organisational change. Of 753 questionnaires distributed, 449 questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 59.6%, and of these, 414 responses were usable. SmartPLS software was used to empirically test and estimate both the measurement and the structure of the proposed theoretical model.

As expected, the findings found evidence that the two leadership styles, leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment were correlated negatively to resistance to organisational change. Moreover, as hypothesised, the results of statistical data analysis showed that job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediated the relations of these two leadership's styles with resistance. What is more, the study revealed that organisational commitment mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance, and also LMX mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance. Furthermore, unexpectedly, it was found that participants' age, education, and their level of job negatively correlated with resistance to organisational change, whereas their tenure did not influence resistance.

Further analysis conducted showed interesting results such as that job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and LMX are correlated directly and

negatively with the three sub-dimensions of resistance (affective, cognitive, and behavioural). However, they have the strongest relationship with participants' behavioural resistance and the weakest relationship with cognitive resistance. On the other hand, TL was found related negatively with only the behavioural component of resistance. Moreover, it was found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment were mediators between the two leadership styles mentioned and the three components of resistance, and LMX was a mediator between TL and behavioural resistance. In addition, it was found that there were no differences between groups regarding the effects of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership on resistance to organisational change. Finally, the theoretical and practical implications of the findings are presented and future research directions are discussed.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to the mainstays in my life:

- My wonderful parents, Medari and Hamdah, my pride.

For their endless encouragement, support, sacrifices, and daily prayers throughout my life, and for their patience during the long wait for me to finish this work. I definitely could not have done it without them.

I think that no one has felt the pain of separation during my study abroad, and the bitterness of waiting more than them.

- My beautiful and amazing wife, Majedah Alharthi, who has always stood beside me.

For her patience with me in difficult times and continuing to support me.

- My beloved children, Fares, Ahmed, Jana, Mohammed, and the little boy Yaser.

For their endurance and patience during the last five years, which were filled with continuous work at the expense of having fun time with them.

My utmost gratitude and love are sent out to all my family members who walked with me through this long and challenging journey. I pray and hope Allah will protect them and give them more than they wish for in their lives.

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Table of Contents

Abstract	I
Dedication	III
Acknowledgement	IV
Table of Contents	V
List of Tables	XI
List of Figures	XIII
List of Appendices	XIV
Chapter 1: Background of the Study.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Aims and Objectives of the Research	4
1.3 Research Questions	5
1.4 Significance of the Research and its Contributions	5
1.5 Summary	8
Chapter 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	9
2.1 Introduction	9
2.2 Section One: Theoretical Review.....	9
2.2.1 Resistance to Organisational Change (ROC).....	9
2.2.1.1 Historical Background of ROC.....	10
2.2.1.2 An Overview of ROC	11
2.2.1.3 Definition of ROC.....	12
2.2.1.4 ROC as a Multidimensional Construct	13
A. Cognitive Component of ROC.....	16
B. Affective Component of ROC	16
C. Behavioural Component of ROC.....	17
2.2.1.5 Types of ROC	19
2.2.1.6 Reasons for Resisting Organisational Change.....	21
2.2.1.7 Advantages of ROC	24

2.2.1.8 Dealing with ROC.....	25
2.2.2 Leadership in the Context of Organisational Change	29
2.2.3.1 Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX).....	33
2.2.3.2 Transformational Leadership Theory (TL)	38
2.3 Section Two: Conceptual Framework.....	45
2.3.1 The Impact of Organisational Change on Contemporary Organisations.....	45
2.3.2 The Relationships between Main Variables.....	49
2.3.2.1 Job Satisfaction and Resistance to Organisational Change.....	49
2.3.2.2 Organisational Commitment and Resistance to Organisational Change	54
2.3.2.3 Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment.....	58
2.3.2.4 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Resistance to Organisational Change	61
2.3.2.5 LMX and Job Satisfaction.....	63
2.3.2.6 LMX and Organisational Commitment	64
2.3.2.7 Transformational Leadership and LMX	66
2.3.2.8 Transformational Leadership and Resistance to Organisational Change	67
2.3.2.9 Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction.....	69
2.3.2.10 Transformational Leadership and Organisational Commitment.....	70
2.3.3 The Role of Mediators.....	71
2.3.3.1 Job Satisfaction as a Mediator	71
2.3.3.2 Organisational Commitment as a Mediator	73
2.3.3.3 LMX as a Mediator.....	75
2.3.4 The Relationships between Demographic Factors and Resistance to Organisational Change.....	78
2.3.4.1 Age and Resistance to Organisational Change	78
2.3.4.2 Tenure and Resistance to Organisational Change	79

2.3.4.3	Level of Education and Resistance to Organisational Change	80
2.3.4.4	Level of Job and Resistance to Organisational Change.....	80
2.4	Summary	85
Chapter 3: Methodology		87
3.1	Introduction	87
3.2	Methodology of the Study.....	87
3.2.1	Research Philosophy and Paradigm.....	88
3.2.2	Research Approach	90
3.2.3	Research Method.....	91
3.2.4	Types and Levels of Investigation	92
3.3	Strategy Selected for Data Collection	94
3.4	The Research Context	95
3.4.1	Rationale for Reform Policy in Saudi Arabia	95
3.4.2	Main Issues Related to Organisational Change in Saudi Arabia	98
3.4.3	Stages of Organisational Change in Some Saudi Organisations	99
3.4.3.1	Saudi Arabia Airlines (SAUDIA).....	100
3.4.3.2	Saudi Railways Organization (SRO)	101
3.4.3.3	Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC)	102
3.5	Population and Sampling Strategy	102
3.6	Data Analysis	105
3.6.1	Factor Analysis.....	106
3.6.2	Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).....	107
3.6.3	Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM).....	109
3.7	Ethical Issues.....	110
3.8	Summary	112
Chapter 4: Questionnaire Development.....		113
4.1	Introduction	113
4.2	First Step: Choosing Measures Used for Collecting Data	113
4.2.1	Questions in Section A (Respondents' Demographic Profiles).....	117

4.2.2	Questions in Section B (Resistance to Organisational Change)....	118
4.2.3	Questions in Section C (Leader-Member Exchange)	119
4.2.4	Questions in Section D (Transformational Leadership)	120
4.2.5	Questions in Section E (Job Satisfaction).....	122
4.2.6	Questions in Section F (Organisational Commitment).....	123
4.3	Second Step: Designing and Pre-Testing of the Questionnaires	124
4.3.1	Translation of Questionnaire Items.....	126
4.3.2	Pre-Testing the Questionnaires	127
4.3.3	Conducting a Pilot Study	128
4.3.4	Testing Goodness of Measures	130
4.4	Third Step: Administering the Main Study.....	134
4.5	Response Rate	135
4.6	Summary	136
Chapter 5: Data Description and Treatment		137
5.1	Introduction	137
5.2	Descriptive Analysis	137
5.2.1	Job	139
5.2.2	Organisation	140
5.2.3	Age	141
5.2.4	Tenure	141
5.2.5	Duration of Supervision by Current Manager	142
5.2.6	Qualification.....	143
5.2.7	Number of Persons that Managers Supervised	144
5.2.8	Duration of Managing the Department	145
5.3	Internal Reliability of Measures.....	146
5.4	Data Preparation and Screening	147
5.4.1	Missing Data	148
5.4.2	Outliers.....	149
5.4.3	Testing the Most Important Statistical Assumptions	151

5.5	Dyadic Data Treatment	155
5.6	Summary	156
Chapter 6: Data Analysis and Findings		157
6.1	Introduction	157
6.2	Assessment of the Suitability of the Data for Factor Analysis	157
6.3	PLS-SEM Analysis Results.....	162
6.3.1	Assessing PLS-SEM Measurement Model Results	162
6.3.2	Assessing PLS-SEM Structural Model Results	167
6.4	Results of the Structural Model.....	175
6.5	Testing Direct and Indirect Effects	177
6.6	Further Analyses	185
6.6.1	The Direct Effects of the Main Constructs on the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change	185
6.6.2	The Indirect Effects of the Main Constructs on Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change	186
6.6.3	Multi-Group Analysis	188
6.7	Summary	191
Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusion		192
7.1	Introduction.....	192
7.2	Discussion of the Role of Main Constructs in Resistance to Organisational Change.....	192
7.2.1	The Role of Job Satisfaction in Resistance to Organisational Change	192
7.2.2	The Role of Organisational Commitment in Resistance to Organisational Change.....	194
7.2.3	The Role of Leader-Member Exchange in Resistance to Organisational Change.....	197
7.2.4	The Role of Transformational Leadership in Resistance to Organisational Change.....	199
7.3	Discussion of the Role of Mediators in Resistance to Organisational Change.....	200

7.3.1	Job Satisfaction as a Mediator	200
7.3.2	Organisational Commitment as a Mediator	203
7.3.3	Leader-Member Exchange as a Mediator between TL-ROC	206
7.4	Discussion of the Role of Demographic Factors in Resistance to Organisational Change.....	207
7.4.1	Age and Resistance to Organisational Change	208
7.4.2	Tenure and Resistance to Organisational Change	209
7.4.3	Level of Education and Resistance to Organisational Change	209
7.4.4	Level of Job and Resistance to Organisational Change.....	210
7.5	Discussion of Further Analyses Results	211
7.5.1	The Direct Effects of the Main Constructs on the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change	211
7.5.2	The Indirect Effects of the Main Constructs on Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change	214
7.6	Summary of Findings.....	218
7.7	Implications.....	219
7.7.1	Theoretical Implications	220
7.7.2	Practical Implications.....	223
7.8	Limitations and Directions for Future Research.....	226
7.9	Conclusion.....	228
7.10	Summary	230
	References	231
	Appendices.....	270

List of Tables

Table 2.1: Methods for Dealing with Resistance to Change.....	29
Table 3.1: The Study Paradigm’s Assumptions.....	90
Table 3.2: Population and Sample Size of the Study.....	105
Table 4.1: Measures Used for Collecting Data and Rationales for Choosing them in the Present Study	114-116
Table 4.2: Resistance to Organisational Change (ROC) Sub-scales (15 items).....	119
Table 4.3: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Sub-scales (7 items).....	120
Table 4.4: Transformational Leadership Behaviour (TL) Sub-scales (22 items).....	121-122
Table 4.5: Job Satisfaction (JS) Sub-scales (20 items).....	123
Table 4.6: Organisational Commitment (OC) Sub-scales (18 items).....	123
Table 4.7: Comments and Actions made According to Pre-Test and Pilot Study.....	129-130
Table 4.8: Internal Consistency Reliability of the Measurements (Pilot Test).....	132
Table 4.9: Population, Sample Size, and Responses Rate of the Fieldwork....	136
Table 5.1: Demographic Description of Managers and Employees.....	138-139
Table 5.2: Number of Persons that Managers Supervised.....	144
Table 5.3: Period as a Manager.....	145
Table 5.4: Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of All Constructs Used in This Study.....	147
Table 5.5: Results of Mahalanobis Distance Measurement for Detecting Outliers.....	151
Table 5.6: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks Tests for Normality.....	152
Table 5.7: Test of Homogeneity of Variance.....	154

Table 5.8: Test of VIF and Tolerance to assess the Multicollinearity Assumption.....	155
Table 5.9: Correlation between LMX-Managers and LMX-Employees.....	156
Table 6.1: KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Scales (N=410).....	158
Table 6.2: Factors Loading, Mean, Standard Deviation, and Reliability of each scale (N=410).....	159-161
Table 6.3: Results for Measurements Model.....	165-166
Table 6.4: Fornell-Larcker Criterion.....	167
Table 6.5: Collinearity Assessment.....	168
Table 6.6: Significance Testing Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients.....	171
Table 6.7: Results of the Effect Size f^2	173
Table 6.8: Results of Q^2 Values.....	174
Table 6.9: Results of q^2 Effect Sizes.....	175
Table 6.10: Significance Testing Results of the Total Effects.....	176
Table 6.11: Significance Testing Results of the Indirect Effects in the Full Model.....	177
Table 6.12: Results of Testing the Hypotheses from 1 to 4.....	178
Table 6.13: Analysis of Mediating Effects of All Mediators.....	181
Table 6.14: Results of Testing the Hypotheses from 5a to 7 (The Mediators).....	182
Table 6.15: Results of Testing Hypotheses 8a, b, c, d.....	183
Table 6.16: Analysis of Mediating Effects of All Mediators between the main Constructs and Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change.....	187
Table 6.17: Multi-group Comparison Test Results.....	188-189

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Following the Research Stages.....	1
Figure 2.1: Following the Research Stages.....	9
Figure 2.2: Components of Resistance to Organisational Change.....	18
Figure 2.3: Types of Resistance to Organisational Change.....	20
Figure 2.4: The Theoretical Framework of the Study.....	83
Figure 3.1: Following the Research Stages.....	87
Figure 3.2: The Research Process Onion.....	88
Figure 4.1: Following the Research Stages.....	113
Figure 5.1: Following the Research Stages.....	137
Figure 5.2: Percentage of Participants According to their Job	139
Figure 5.3: Number of Participants According to Organisation.....	140
Figure 5.4: Number of Participants According to Age Category.....	141
Figure 5.5: Number of Participants According to Tenure Category.....	142
Figure 5.6: Number of Participants According to Duration of Supervision....	143
Figure 5.7: Number of Participants According to Qualification.....	144
Figure 5.8: Percentage of Persons that Managers Supervised.....	145
Figure 5.9: Period as a Manager by Percentage.....	146
Figure 6.1: Following the Research Stages.....	157
Figure 6.2: PLS-SEM Results of R ² Value.....	169
Figure 6.3: PLS-SEM Results of Path Coefficients.....	172
Figure 6.4: Results of Examining the Hypotheses of the Present Study.....	184
Figure 7.1: Following the Research Stages.....	192

List of Appendices

Appendix A: Formal Letter Received from SAUDIA Confirmed Number of Administrative Staff.....	270
Appendix B: Formal Letter Received from SRO Confirmed Number of Administrative Staff.....	271
Appendix C: Number of Administrative Staff at SWCC	272
Appendix D: The Consent of SAUDIA to Conduct the Field Research.....	273
Appendix E: The Consent of SRO to Conduct the Field Research.....	274
Appendix F: The Consent of SWCC to Conduct the Field Research.....	275
Appendix G: Hull University Business School (HUBS) Approval for Conducting the Field Work.....	276
Appendix H: Managers' Questionnaire (English Version).....	277-287
Appendix I: Employees' Questionnaire (English Version).....	288-297
Appendix J: Managers' Questionnaire (Arabic Version).....	298-306
Appendix K: Employees' Questionnaire (Arabic Version).....	307-315

Chapter 1: Background of the Study

Figure 1.1: Following the Research Stages

Number of Chapter	Title of Chapter	Page
Chapter One	Background of the Study	1
Chapter Two	Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	9
Chapter Three	Methodology	87
Chapter Four	Questionnaire Development	113
Chapter Five	Data Description and Treatment	137
Chapter Six	Data Analysis and Findings	157
Chapter Seven	Discussion and Conclusion	192

1.1 Introduction

The most prominent feature of contemporary life is rapid change; therefore, the surrounding environment can be described as dynamic with unpredictable changes. As a result of this situation of constant change, there has been noticeable emergence of many phenomena and issues that have brought substantial numbers of opportunities and challenges for individuals, organisations, and societies. This in turn has influenced work life and has compelled organisations to revisit their strategies (Sims and Sims, 2002).

In the midst of this turbulent and complex environment, change has become inescapable and imperative for organisations. Perhaps more importantly, contemporary organisations are immersed in high levels of uncertainty and therefore it is paramount to prepare for change; otherwise they will die (Beer and Nohria, 2000). This implies that, in the light of this environment, organisations must devote more strenuous efforts to adapting to change constantly or it will be imposed on them (see e.g., Liu and Perrewé, 2005; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008).

Lee and Alexander (1999) indicated that, based on structural inertia theory coined by Hannan and Freeman (1984), core or radical change often addresses many organisational aspects such as an organisation's mission, identity, competence, and strategic orientation. As a result, relations within work groups are restructured, daily routines are revised, lines of communication in the organisation are reshaped, and the mix of resources used is changed (Lee and Alexander, 1999). Lee and Alexander (1999) emphasized that this type of fundamental change tends to encounter greater resistance from organisational

constituencies, and hence is relatively rare and costly. According to Lozano (2013), this type of change creates high levels of resistance, and may cause instability if not managed properly. Jarvenpaa and Stoddard (1998: 16) note that radical change “changes the deep structure of the organization. Such a change unfolds rapidly and alters fundamentally the basic assumptions, business practices, culture, and organizational structure. High levels of identity crisis, disorder, and ambiguity are associated with radical change”. Examples of radical change that face organisations are restructuring, re-engineering, mergers, acquisitions, and privatisation.

As a result of such changes, employees are often plagued by challenges and experience tremendous stress, and organisations are full of fear and uncertainty about the future (Bordia *et al.*, 2004; Cunha and Cooper, 2002; Fugate *et al.*, 2012; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). Transformation, as Nutt and Backoff (1997) claimed, makes it hard for staff to adapt easily to a new environment that is largely undefined. Therefore, negative individual reactions and emotions are a highly likely consequence of such a situation (Fugate *et al.*, 2012; Smollan, 2012). These negative, divergent and contradictory feelings during organisational change undoubtedly are considered an environment that creates unwillingness to accept change or may be conducive to the emergence of resistance to change (Klarner *et al.*, 2011; Mossholder, *et al.*, 2000). Therefore, it is not surprising that understanding individuals’ reactions to a planned organisational change is an important concern for many contemporary organisations (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008).

Although considerable efforts have been made by many organisations to implement organisational change initiatives, they have faced a major challenge in the form of resistance to these initiatives by managers and employees alike. Further, it is widely believed and acknowledged that resistance to change is the primary reason for aborting and failure of a significant number of organisational change initiatives or is regarded as a main barrier to change (see e.g., Abdul Rashid *et al.*, 2004; Bovey and Hede, 2001b; Pardo del Val and Fuentes, 2003; Sims and Sims, 2002; Van Dijk and Van Dick, 2009). Moreover, the literature suggests that resistance to change is a very likely situation in any initiative for organisational change. For example, Kuipers *et al.* (2014) indicate with reference to literature that resistance to change is still an important issue in change management studies. Similarly, Mathews and Linski (2016) argue that resistance to organisational change remains an important topic in the

organisation and management literature, given the dynamic nature of our world and the necessity for organisations to be adaptive to change. Day and colleagues (2017) argue that having a better understanding of resistance to change may help to provide insight into the success or failure of change, and thus, it is a productive avenue for future research.

In exploring this phenomenon, this study starts from the premise that leaders have a prominent role in the success of organisational change initiatives (Kuipers *et al.*, 2014). This vital role derives its importance from leaders' ability of providing a vision of and identifying the need for change, implementing and managing the change itself, giving direct support and accurate information about change to followers, and embodying an appropriate model of behaviour during the change (Fugate, 2012; Gilley *et al.*, 2009; Jones *et al.*, 2008). This environment leads to reduce individuals' confusion and uncertainty about the future and ultimately they will be less likely to resist change.

Specifically, high quality leader-member exchange (LMX) minimizes negative and increases positive attitudes and behaviours in the workplace (Stringer, 2006). Leaders and subordinates who have good feelings of respect, trust, and supportive relationships, as the main focus of high-quality LMX, report more positive attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2012). In this regard, Georgalis *et al.* (2015) and Van Dam *et al.* (2008) found evidence that LMX is correlated negatively to resistance to organisational change.

There is also reason to believe that leadership style may be significant. Specifically, transformational leadership is likely to be especially effective during times of change through fostering positive employee reactions to organisational change at the workplace in general and through their effective role in reducing individuals' resistance to the change in particular (e.g., Oreg and Berson, 2011; Tyssen *et al.*, 2013; Zhao *et al.*, 2016 among others). Carter *et al.* (2013) suggest that, because of such leadership influence, employees are more likely to react favourably toward change, both attitudinally and behaviourally.

Recognizing that a variety of different processes may be involved in leader-member exchange (LMX) and transformational leadership (TL) (Avolio *et al.*, 2004), the current study will examine the underlying process through which these two different leadership styles influence individuals' resistance to organisational change, by focusing on job satisfaction (JS) and organisational

commitment (OC) as potential mediators. In practical terms, this study seeks generally to shed light on how these factors contribute to alleviating the phenomenon of resistance, especially in some Saudi organisations undergoing organisational change. In the following sections, this chapter presents the research aims and objectives and its questions, as well as the significance of the research and its contributions.

1.2 Aims and Objectives of the Research

This research aims to:

- Contribute to the body of knowledge in the field of organisational change by investigating the complex relationships between resistance to organisational change, LMX, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment, in the context of organisational change.
- Contribute to practice by identifying the factors that may influence resistance to organisational change and examining their effects on individuals in the workplace and on organisational change programmes in particular.

According to these aims, the current study seeks to meet the following objectives:

- Examine the role that is played by two leadership styles, leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, and two work-related attitudes, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, in reducing resistance to organisational change in the Saudi context.
- Investigate the role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment as potential mediators between the relationships of leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand.
- Examine the relationship between some demographic characteristics (age, tenure, qualifications, and job level) of managers and employees in Saudi organisations and resistance to organisational change.

1.3 Research Questions

This research is intended to answer the following questions:

- Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between job satisfaction (JS) and resistance to organisational change?
- Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between organisational commitment (OC) and resistance to organisational change?
- Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and resistance to organisational change?
- Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between transformational leadership (TL) and resistance to organisational change?
- Research Question 5: To what extent does job satisfaction influence LMX relationships and transformational leadership in organisations?
- Research Question 6: To what extent does organisational commitment influence job satisfaction, transformational leadership, and LMX relationships in organisations?
- Research Question 7: To what extent does LMX influence the role of transformational leadership in organisations?
- Research Question 8: Are there relationships between demographic factors and resistance to organisational change?

1.4 Significance of the Research and its Contributions

The importance of the current study lies in the fact that, as Oreg (2006) suggests, the examination of antecedents of resistance to organisational change is likely to reveal a much more complex picture of this phenomenon than has been depicted in the literature. More specifically, the present study contributes theoretically to the leadership and change management literatures in many ways; the following points are examples.

First, it provides evidence regarding the importance of adopting a multidimensional view of employees' resistance to change that comprises cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components rather than seeing it as a unidimensional construct. Focusing on a broad notion of resistance, as adopted in most of the literature, is likely to provide only a partial and incomplete picture of resistance. On the other hand, looking at the three dimensions of resistance provides understanding that different dimensions of resistance might be influenced differently by leadership and work-attitudes, which may lead to a more nuanced understanding of this phenomenon, as well as pave the way for

practitioners to develop appropriate targeted strategies for reducing resistance. However, up to the present, the multidimensional concept of resistance to organisational change has not been investigated as an outcome of leadership styles and work-attitudes, as has been achieved in the present study.

Second, the present study addresses an important theoretical and empirical gap in the literature and improves our understanding of the influences of two different styles of leadership during times of change. Specifically, this study brings empirical evidence that LMX and transformational leadership theories together show how followers may reciprocate their leaders by exhibiting less resistance to change. Therefore, it extends both theories by highlighting the role of leader member exchange and transformational leaders in reducing employees' resistance to change. Although a few studies have examined the roles of these different leadership styles in the context of organisational change, very little attention has been given in these studies to employees' reactions to change. So far, the role of such leadership styles on resistance to organisational change has not been reported in previous research. In addition, this research demonstrates the possibility of integrating these different leadership styles into one model and testing it in the context of Saudi Arabia, as opposed to a Western context.

Third, by linking the two leadership styles, the two work-attitudes, and resistance to organisational change, the study delivers further support for the assumption that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are central mechanisms through which leaders influence their followers' resistance to change. Therefore, examining the mediating role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment makes interesting and significant contributions to the leadership and work-attitudes literatures because it provides empirical evidence of how important these mediator factors are and to what extent they influence the direct effects of the two leadership styles on resistance to organisational change. However, up to the present, these relationships have not been investigated and reported in the literature. More importantly, investigating these relationships may lead to further improvement and development of the existing theories in this field of organisational behaviour, as well as open the door to future research to examine other potential mediators between leadership styles and resistance.

Fourth, the current research model was used to present and explain the direct and indirect influences of selected antecedents of resistance to organisational

change; the two leadership styles and the two work-attitudes, among government administrative managers and employees in three Saudi organisations. Thus far, this research is the first to examine such a model in the Saudi organisations' context. Therefore, while the findings of prior studies of change management have predominantly stemmed from the Western context, the contribution of this study demonstrates the value of the above model in a novel context, suggesting under cultural applicability of the model and facilitating comparison of leadership and change management issues cross cultures.

This study not only contributes to knowledge, but also emphasise the critical role of leadership in the success of organisational change situations and the requirements for achieving such an aim and also helps practitioners to understand the phenomenon of resistance to organisational change and how they can deal with it in order to achieve change objectives in modern organisations. Specifically, diagnosing and investigating the interrelationships between antecedents of resistance undoubtedly will contribute to provide a better understanding of this phenomenon and the most prominent of its causes. Consequently, this study is particularly important to enhance organisations' ability to understand how to implement successfully their plans and programmes for organisational change.

Knowing the factors affecting employees in Saudi Arabia to resist organisational change is particularly important in light of the recent trend towards increased government implementation of many initiatives, plans and programmes for change in many areas. This is evident in the ongoing and successive changes taking place in Saudi Arabia in the current period. Consequently, the current study will help Saudi organisations as well as other organisations to draw up the appropriate strategies to address their organisational change plans and programmes effectively. In addition, it will facilitate the mission of policy makers, practitioners and scholars alike in addressing issues arising from organisational change. Moreover, it potentially offers a fertile field to increase the investigative breadth of research on this particular topic within organisational behaviour, and may contribute to advance the theory and practice of organisational change management.

1.5 Summary

This chapter has highlighted how change has become a cornerstone of life that poses many challenges to modern organisations. Also, it pointed to the role of staff resistance to organisational change as an obstacle hindering organisations from achieving their goals for change and implementing strategies. Moreover, this chapter reviewed the objectives and questions of the study, which investigate the relationship between resistance to organisational change and a number of organisational factors. Lastly, the importance of this study in the context of previous studies and expected contributions to knowledge were stated. The next chapter (chapter 2) will focus, in some detail, on the theoretical background of the study in order to address theoretically the research questions outlined in this chapter.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

Figure 2.1: Following the Research Stages

Number of Chapter	Title of Chapter	Page
Chapter One	Background of the Study	1
Chapter Two	Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	9
Chapter Three	Methodology	87
Chapter Four	Questionnaire Development	113
Chapter Five	Data Description and Treatment	137
Chapter Six	Data Analysis and Findings	157
Chapter Seven	Discussion and Conclusion	192

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to providing a review of the relevant literature. Specifically, the review is organised into two sections: (1) theoretical review; and (2) conceptual framework, as will be discussed in the next sections. The main objective of these two sections is to provide a clear picture of what has been studied in the literature about the important role of leadership during organisational change, especially in reducing staff resistance to change, as well as the role of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and demographic factors in resistance.

2.2 Section One: Theoretical Review

This section will present an explanation of the phenomenon of resistance to organisational change (ROC) and its definitions, a new approach of conceptualising resistance to change as a multidimensional concept, types and reasons for resistance, the implications of ROC, and strategies for dealing with it. This section also will shed light on the role of leadership in the context of organisational change, focusing on leader-member exchange theory and transformational leadership theory and their development stages, as well as the strengths and weaknesses of each of them, to give a clear picture of these theories.

2.2.1 Resistance to Organisational Change

The following subsections summarize the literature addressing ROC in terms of early efforts that established the concept of resistance to change, an overview of ROC, the definition of this phenomenon, the new approach of conceptualising resistance as a multidimensional concept, and levels and types of resistance.

Moreover, reasons for resisting organisational change, as well as advantages of ROC and ways of dealing with resistance are presented.

2.2.1.1 Historical Background of ROC

García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014) and Foster (2010) argue that researchers in organisational behaviour and related areas have studied resistance to organisational change as part of the change process and have built their efforts mainly on the works of Coch and French (1948) and Lewin (1951). The term, resistance to change, gained popularity in the 1950s and 1960s following those scholars (Foster, 2010). Foster (2010) indicates that while Coch and French's 1948 study had great influence on many subsequent discussions of organisational change, Lawrence's (1954) conceptual work made several important contributions to the resistance literature.

According to Bouckennooghe (2010), the first scholarly article on attitudes toward change was by Coch and French in 1948. However, it seems that Lewin (1947) was the first researcher who mentioned the existence of resistance to change within the workplace, or as what he termed, restraining forces. Although Lewin's critics have sought to show that his Planned Approach to Change was simplistic and outmoded, Burnes (2004) claims that Lewin's pioneering works are considered the foundation of behavioural science studies in general, and approaches to organisational development and planned change in particular.

In this regard, Piderit (2000: 784) argued that "in the majority of work on resistance to change, researchers have borrowed a view from physics to metaphorically define resistance as a restraining force moving in the direction of maintaining the status quo (cf. Lewin, 1952). Furthermore, most scholars have focused on the various "forces" that lead employees away from supporting changes proposed by managers". Based on Lewin's (1947) argument, to achieve successful change, organisations should exert their efforts to reduce the strength of the forces of confrontation and opposition to change, or increase the strength of the supporting forces, or apply a combination of these methods simultaneously.

Moreover, based on a series of observations and experiments about the behaviour of changed groups within the context of the factory situation, Coch and French (1948) found that pressure exerted by supervisors for higher production resulted in two different group reactions. One group accepted this way of working and the others resisted or rejected it, so people complied

unwillingly and showed signs of conflict and tension. They concluded that using group meetings and effective communication stimulated group participation in planning the changes, which led to preventing or greatly modifying and then greatly reducing group resistance to change.

Six years later, Lawrence (1954 cited in Foster, 2010: 9) criticized the findings of Coch and French's (1948) study, arguing that "participation is an oversimplified solution to resistance, and that attaining employee perceptions of participation would be a complex endeavour... and change has both technical and social characteristics - with a lack of attention to the social characteristics that often end up causing resistance to change". A more complex view encompassing such characteristics emerged in later studies, such as the work of Woodward (1968). Although Woodward (1968) considered resistance to be a behavioural phenomenon, he believed that it represented a conglomeration of emotions and beliefs and values that emerge from various environments such as the external environment (e.g. social, economic, and political background), the internal environment of the organisation (e.g. technological influences, administrative and organisational influences), and the personal environment (e.g. family, sex).

Many recent studies have attempted to frame conceptually resistance to change, recognising its multidimensionality and analysing the phenomenon at both organisational and individual levels (Reginato *et al.*, 2016). In this sense, Georgalis *et al.* (2015) argue that over the past six decades, the literature has transformed resistance from its original conceptualisation as a systemic barrier (see e.g. Lewin's studies) to more individually and psychologically-based processes that underpin negative responses to change. The subsequent studies to those pioneer scholars have contributed in developing the concept of resistance to organisational change, as will be presented in the following sections.

2.2.1.2 An Overview of ROC

Most research on employee response or reactions to change has labelled these responses as either positive (e.g., readiness or openness expressions of commitment or receptivity to the change), or negative (e.g., resistance or cynicism) (see e.g. Heuvel *et al.*, 2015; McKay *et al.*, 2013). A growing body of research evidence has indicated that resistance to organisational change is a critically important contributor to, if not the most prominent factor of, the failure of many organisational change initiatives. Support for this argument is

also found in a survey conducted by Deloitte and Touche (1996 cited in Prochaska *et al.*, 2001: 253), which suggested that the first reason for failures of organisational change initiatives in 400 organisations was employees' resistance to change. There is undoubtedly a significant concern with this issue, which has led to it becoming one of the most prominent themes in contemporary organisational studies (Pardo del Val and Fuentes, 2003).

Vrontis *et al.* (2010: 38) claim that resistance is "a psychological reaction to subjective estimations of change's impact on things which are valued; or simply a reaction to the inability to make such estimations". This may explain why some individuals appear to have a negative perception about change (Burnes, 2011). This view is fairly consistent with Eilam and Shamir's (2005) argument that the more change poses threats to employees' self-concepts, in particular to their senses of self-determination, self-distinctiveness, self-enhancement, and self-continuity, the greater their resistance to the change. Similarly, in an earlier work, Woodman and Dewett (2004: 45) indicate that "resistance might be highest when dealing with individual characteristics and behavio[u]rs that are the least changeable, and the required change processes that are deepest and take the greatest amounts of time". In this context, Jones *et al.* (2005) point out that resistance to organisational change literature originally come from the psychological literature and has focused generally on personality attributes and characteristics of individuals and their reactions towards organisational change.

2.2.1.3 Definition of ROC

According to several researchers (e.g., Erwin and Garman, 2010; Georgalis *et al.*, 2015; Stewart *et al.*, 2009), previous studies have offered divergent definitions of resistance to change, and there is no universally or even widely accepted operational definition of resistance. Some authors conceive of resistance as a generalized unwillingness to change and a reactionary negative attitude (Frances, 1995), while others view resistance as any set of intentions and actions that affects the change process, delaying or slowing down its beginning, or hindering its implementation (Pardo del Val and Fuentes, 2003). These definitions are very broad in the sense they deal with resistance to change in general (Bouckenooghe, 2010) and they do not provide an explanation of the essence of this phenomenon and its motives.

According to Coetsee (1999: 209), resistance to change can be understood as: "opposed or blocking energies and powers directed at impeding, redirecting,

rejecting or stopping change”. Also, Zaltman and Duncan (1977 cited in Coghlan, 1993: 10) defined resistance to change as “any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo”. O’Connor (1993: 30) offered a different definition: “a slow motion response to meet agreements or even a complete refusal to cooperate with change. In an organisation, resistance is opposition or withholding of support for specific plans or ideas”. Moreover, Peccei *et al.* (2011: 188) describe resistance to change as “a form of organisational dissent that individuals engage in when they find the change personally unpleasant or inconvenient... it tends to manifest itself primarily through a low engagement in pro-change behaviours”.

The meanings that may emerge from these definitions are that those who refuse or hesitate to support a change believe that the *status quo* is safer or clearer than the expected situation after the change and that there are many stimuli and reasons behind these negative reactions to organisational change. In other words, the aim of resistance is to prevent organisations from achieving their objectives in many ways in order to achieve individuals’ goals and objectives. In addition, these definitions consider that resistance is a dilemma that needs to be tackled and that it is a critical reason for change process failure.

However, in contrast with the dominant stream of research conceptualising resistance to change as a unifaceted concept, Piderit (2000) offered a new definition of resistance to organisational change. She asserted that resistance is a multidimensional concept that includes cognitive, affective, and behavioural aspects. This definition, according to Bouckenooghe (2010), is considered one of the most comprehensive definitions of resistance to change. The next subsection sheds more light on this perspective, to clarify the resistance phenomenon and its various dimensions.

2.2.1.4 ROC as a Multidimensional Construct

The notion of ROC as a multidimensional construct stems from attitude research in social psychology. Bouckenooghe (2010) notes that the work of Elizur and Guttman (1976) based on conceiving attitudes as a multifaceted concept comprising a set of cognitive, affective, and intentional/behavioural components, was the basis of many studies that used this approach, while Heuvel *et al.* (2017) attributed using this approach to Rosenberg and Hovland (1960). Nevertheless, Szabla (2007) argues that the tripartite model of attitudes can be traced back to the social psychology writer, McDougal (1908), and it

was not formally used in the study of attitudes before 1940. Regardless of who was the first researcher that used such an approach, such works opened doors for researchers to redefine the concept of attitudes toward change.

Although Van Dam *et al.* (2008) claim that recent researchers have begun to study the psychological process of change, using a variety of approaches to understanding employees' reactions to change, Heuvel *et al.* (2017) argue that only a handful of empirical studies have conceptualized, operationalized and analysed employee attitudes toward organisational change as a tridimensional construct. Bhal *et al.* (2009) argue that individuals' thinking, feelings, and action are important at all times, but undoubtedly, their reactions have greater significance in times of change. More specifically, attitudes toward change have three basic components: affective, cognitive, and behavioural. The affective component refers to a set of feelings and emotions about the change, while the cognitive component includes individuals' opinions, evaluation, and knowledge about the change. Intentional/behavioural reactions, as Bouckennooghe (2010) indicates, refer to the actions already taken, or which will be taken in the future, intent to behave for or against change. Behaviour, therefore, is an overt response to what a person feels and thinks about change, which are internal responses.

Several researchers (see e.g., Erwin and Garman, 2010; Fugate, 2012; García-Cabrera and Hernández, 2014; Szabla, 2007; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008) argue that while prior research studied resistance to change based on too narrow a notion and limited it only to either a cognitive state, an emotional term, or a behavioural problem, recent researchers have started to overcome these criticisms by conceptualising resistance to organisational change from a different perspective. In the new millennium, a new mainstream of researchers has focused on conceptualising such resistance as a multidimensional concept. For example, after adopting her new conceptualisation of resistance to change borrowed from the concept of attitude in social psychology, Piderit (2000) integrated all these three approaches and presented this concept as a tri-dimensional (negative) attitude towards change that includes cognitive, emotional/affective, and behavioural components. Her work has been echoed recently by several notable researchers (see e.g., Abdul Rashid *et al.*, 2004; Heuvel *et al.*, 2015; Oreg, 2006; Pieterse *et al.*, 2012; Szabla, 2007; Vakola *et al.*, 2013), who have agreed that resistance to change is a multidimensional construct that comprises these three components.

Such a multidimensional view, as Oreg (2006) and Vakola *et al.* (2013) believe, offers a clear insight into the complexity of this phenomenon and its relationships with various organisational factors, whether antecedents or consequences of resistance. Recently, Vakola *et al.* (2013) used this approach in reviewing fifty-seven empirical studies of organisational change published between 1975 and 2010. They found that following this approach was helpful in solving the researchers' disagreement in their conceptualisation of individuals' reactions to change. Pieterse *et al.* (2012) emphasize the importance of such an approach, pointing out that a multidimensional concept of resistance is more realistic than a dichotomous one, and better reflects the complex reality of individuals' responses to change programmes.

Based on this perspective, Oreg (2003) built his work and developed the Resistance to Change Scale. This scale, as Oreg (2003) argues, was designed to measure individuals' differences in tendencies to resist or avoid making changes, or devalue change generally. The scale included four components: routine seeking (behavioural), emotional reaction to imposed change (affective), cognitive rigidity (cognitive), and short-term focus (affective/behavioural). Oreg (2003) suggested that although this scale is similar to Piderit's (2000) tripartite conceptualisation of resistance to change, it conceptualises resistance to change as a disposition rather than an attitude toward a particular organisational change. The cross-national validity of this scale across 17 countries was confirmed by Oreg *et al.*'s (2008) study. According to Hyland (2007), whilst Piderit's (2000) study drew attention to the importance of reconsidering resistance to organisational change as a multidimensional concept, Oreg's (2003) work represented an important contribution to the literature. However, this scale has not been examined in some contexts, such as the Islamic context, with the exception of Turkey, and the Arab context.

In recent literature, the adoption of the three-dimensional attitude toward change construct is scarce as well (Oreg *et al.*, 2011). In this regard, Heuvel *et al.* (2015) argue that one explanation for lack of empirical research on the three-dimensional construct proposed by Piderit (2000) could be the absence of a valid and reliable measurement for the multidimensional change attitude construct. Oreg (2006) was among the first to develop such a scale and to explicitly measure all three components separately (Heuvel *et al.*, 2015). To measure these components and because previous studies did not use a multidimensional conceptualisation of resistance to change, Oreg (2006)

designed three subscales to measure these components of employees' attitudes towards change, and resistance to organisational change in particular. Seven items were designed for the affective component, five for the behavioural, and six for the cognitive. According to Oreg (2006), confirmatory factor analyses supported the scale's three-factor structure, all items loaded significantly on their expected factors and the model's overall fit was satisfactory, and for each component the five highest-loading items were retained for the study. Although more attention has been paid to studying ROC, to date no reliable and valid instrument has been developed to measure ROC except the works of Oreg (2003, 2006) and Szabla (2007).

Consequently, few scholars have investigated multiple dimensions of employees' resistance to organisational change (Foster, 2010; Vakola *et al.*, 2013). Thus, it is essential to adopt such an approach, to reach a deep comprehension of this phenomenon, although most of the literature on this topic, as mentioned, has not highlighted sufficiently the importance of studying these dimensions.

In the following subsections, the three components of ROC will be explained to allow deeper understanding of this phenomenon.

A. Cognitive Component of ROC

Oreg (2006) argues that this component involves what one thinks about the change in terms of whether the change is necessary or beneficial or not. Specifically, it is, according to García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014), a negative evaluation and interpretation of the change, which leads to an opinion against it. Thus, this dimension focuses on people's thoughts and their evaluations according to data and information received about the change.

B. Affective Component of ROC

Speaking generally, Pham (2007) argues that affect or emotion refers to both intense affective experiences (such as anger, fear, joy, and love) and affective responses like moods. According to Oreg (2006), the affective component of ROC includes negative feelings and emotions (such as anxiety, anger, frustration, and fear) of individuals when confronted with the change. They are often expressed as like or dislike, satisfied or dissatisfied. During organisational change, employees often experience a mix of feelings, ranging from loss and sadness to anger and frustration (Bovey and Hede, 2001b).

C. Behavioural Component of ROC

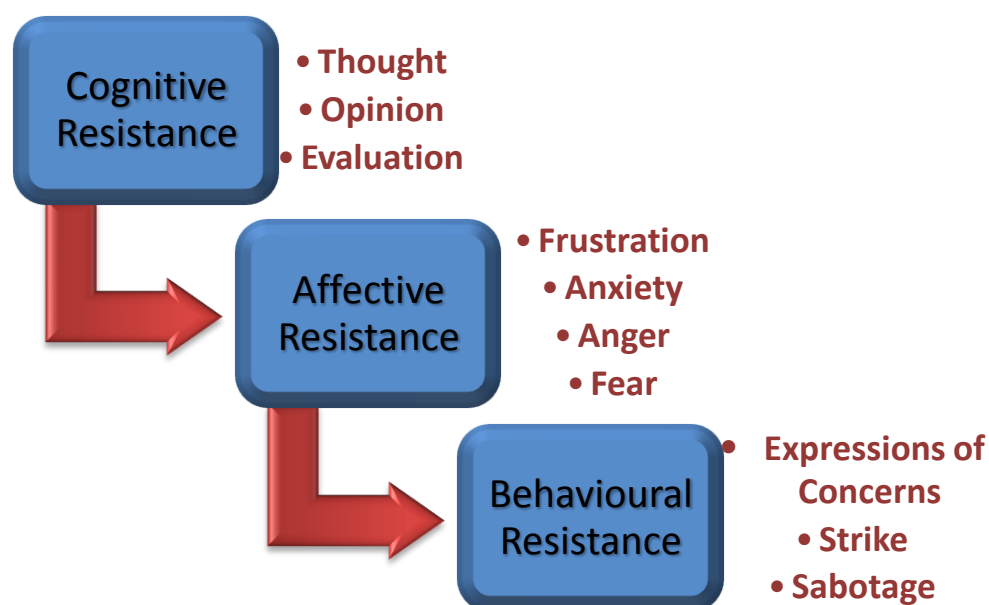
Seo *et al.* (2012) suggest that behavioural resistance to change refers to the degree to which people engage in behaviours aimed at preventing and avoiding the success of the change or ensuring its failure. It involves, as Oreg (2006) argues, actions or intention to act in response to a particular change, such as complaining about the change, trying to convince others that the change is bad or not useful. Examples of this component include doing the minimum required, not actively cooperating with or not promoting the change initiative (Erwin and Garman, 2010). Van Dam *et al.* (2008) suggest that this behaviour ranges from expressions of concern to peers or supervisors, to more severe actions such as slowing down the change or sabotage.

A number of works have investigated the cognitive-emotional relationship and its influence on behaviour (Smollan, 2011). Based on Ellis's Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) theory, Bovey and Hede (2001a) describe this approach as based on the premise of the interconnectedness of thinking, feeling, and behaving. This theory assumes that individuals' emotions and behaviours depend upon the way they structure their thoughts (Bovey and Hede, 2001a). For example, a person may interpret and evaluate a situation according to his or her experience and knowledge. This process of cognition leads to emotions and feelings, either positive or negative, and ultimately behaviours derived from all these processes. Smollan (2011) claimed that behaviour is often observable, while the thoughts, feelings, and emotions that drive it are difficult to detect.

García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014) claim that since these three components may be conceptually distinct and have different antecedents, therefore individuals may react differently with respect to each facet of resistance when facing any change. In this sense, Oreg (2006) argues that, compared to earlier resistance research, the tri-dimensional conceptualisation of resistance is likely to reveal a much more complex picture about its antecedents and consequences. He asserts that such an approach to resistance highlights the particular resistance components that are associated with each of the antecedents and consequences. In other words, as Oreg (2006: 76) states, "Whereas some variables may have their primary influence on how people feel about a change, others may have more impact on what they do, and yet others on what they think about it. Similarly, people's feelings toward a change may lead to different outcomes than the outcomes of their behaviours or of their thoughts".

Furthermore, Piderit (2000) shares similar views to Oreg (2006), who argues that although these three components are clearly distinct from one another and each one of them reflects a different aspect of the phenomenon of ROC, there is some interdependence among these components. He articulates this argument by stating that what individuals feel about a change will often correspond with what they think about it and with their behavioural intentions in regard to it. In fact, what people feel about a situation frequently corresponds with what they think about it, and with their actions and behaviours (García-Cabrera and Hernández, 2014; Oreg, 2006). In contrast, Bhal *et al.* (2009) argue that based on information individuals receive, they often create their evaluation about change and then their emotions and feelings emerge as a consequence of this interpretation and appraisal of the change (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2: Components of Resistance to Organisational Change



Source: The author.

However, Bhal *et al.* (2009) suggest that although the extant literature seems inconclusive in explaining the directionality of the relationship between cognition, affect and behaviour, a wide body of literature examines the relationship/interdependence between these three components. It has been found that there is a continuous and pervasive relationship between the affective and cognitive dimensions, with much debate on the direction of the relationship between them. Also, these components were found to be predictors of individuals' behaviour and their intentions to behave (Bhal *et al.*, 2009; Jóhannsdóttir *et al.*, 2015).

2.2.1.5 Types of ROC

Numerous researchers have classified resistance to organisational change into many types, ranging between overt versus covert, active versus passive, and strong versus weak (Erwin and Garman, 2010; Smollan, 2011). Knowledge of the different types, as Oreg *et al.* (2008) argue, is important for organisational change management and for career counselling. The most prominent of these types are:

1. Covert Resistance

Covert resistance refers to acts that are intentional yet go unnoticed (Hollander and Einwohner, 2004). Examples of this type of resistance include gossip and avoiding participating in the change plan.

2. Passive Resistance

Passive resistance uses manoeuvre and surveillance. Individuals who use this type are reluctant to take a particular action towards a change until they are sure that it is consistent with their personal interests. Therefore, the seriousness of this type of resistance is that although they may not reject the change outwardly, individuals taking this view do nothing to fulfil their commitments. Smollan (2011) considers responding to change with hesitation, forgetfulness, and lethargy as forms of passive resistance.

Pieterse *et al.* (2012) argue that some people may overtly follow an organisational change, while in reality they covertly resist the change through taking a cynical stance and legitimising their compliant action as “not me”.

3. Active Resistance

Active resistance occurs where people take specific and deliberate action to resist the change. It may be covert, such as mobilizing others to create an underground resistance movement, or it may be overt, such as public statements and acts of resistance. Threatening to resign, according to Smollan (2011), is active and overt resistance.

4. Overt Resistance

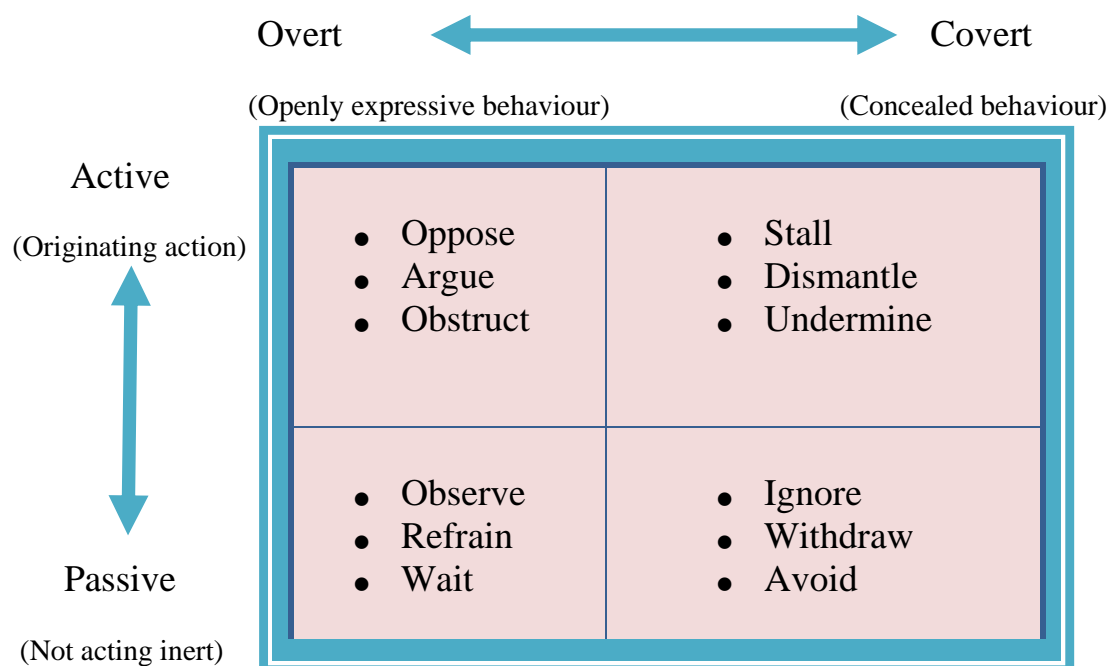
This type of resistance is obvious and operates openly and publicly. It was argued by Hollander and Einwohner (2004) that this type of resistance is behaviour that is visible and readily recognized by others as resistance. This means that it is clearly evident to others and the identity of the resister is known

(Smollan, 2011). This behaviour is often a result either of owning power or influence within an organisation, or long experience in a particular field. In other cases, covert resistance may contradict with the values and principles of resisters.

This may take several forms, such as arguing and blaming others, raising objections and rumour, and speaking out against the change in public, while serious forms include attacking others, strikes, and sabotage. Therefore, it is not surprising that many scholars would agree that acts of this type should be classified as resistance, while there is less agreement, however, on other types of resistance (Hollander and Einwohner, 2004).

Bovey and Hede (2001b) constructed and developed a matrix for measuring behavioural intentions to resist change based on the four types mentioned above. Their model includes overt and covert behaviour on one axis, and active and passive behaviour on the other. It is worth noting that their model included two kinds of behaviour, resistance and support (see Figure 2.3). Each quadrant includes a number of resistance behaviours. The active-overt quadrant includes opposing, arguing and obstructing; the active-covert includes stalling, dismantling and undermining; passive-overt behaviours include observing, refraining and waiting; and passive-covert behaviours include ignoring, withdrawing and avoiding (see Bovey and Hede, 2001a and b; Smollan, 2011).

Figure 2.3: Types of Resistance to Organisational Change



Source: Bovey and Hede (2001a and b: 375).

Smollan (2011) points out that resigning from the organisation can be seen as a form of passive resistance, whilst, on the contrary, threatening to resign is considered active and overt resistance. Even more, overt and active resistance are more clearly against the change, while it seems that the positions and objectives of passive and covert resisters are the most difficult to identify. In this sense, Smollan (2011) argues that resistance to organisational change may not be easily discernible to observers or acknowledged by those resisting.

2.2.1.6 Reasons for Resisting Organisational Change

The importance of understanding the reasons for resisting organisational change lies in clarifying the psychological dimensions and organisational factors that shape the reactions of individuals and their attitudes towards change, which ultimately helps in choosing an appropriate strategy to deal with it (O'Connor, 1993). Therefore, as Erdogan (2008) commented, irrespective of whether the reasons behind resistance are rational or irrational, understanding its roots and developing appropriate strategies are necessary in order to take the correct action against it or to exploit its advantages and so achieve organisations' objectives effectively.

Individuals often resist organisational change for a number of reasons, but those explained below seem to be the most frequent in the literature. The following paragraphs include explanation of these reasons:

1. Habits

Fineman (2006) argued that past and familiar routines become especially warm and attractive in the face of anxiety and insecurity situations. People prefer following a familiar and consistent pattern of behaviours and maintaining the *status quo* in order to gain comfort in their jobs (Oreg *et al.*, 2008), although they may have wrong attitudes or bad habits. Gill (2002) suggested that moving individuals from their 'comfort zone' means moving them from the familiar, secure and controllable to the unfamiliar, insecure and uncertainly controllable. Consequently, it is not surprising that any change that aims to alter these habits, especially well-established habits, is resisted.

The risk that may happen in changing people's habits is that incompletely installing new habits may lead some persons to revert back to old habits and behaviours. This may be because some people, as Oreg *et al.* (2011) claim, perceive that the risks/costs of the change outweigh its benefits will affect them negatively, which leads them to resist the change. In this respect, Vakola (2016)

argues that resistance, active or passive, is mainly initiated by the belief that the costs of change will outweigh its benefits.

2. Loss of Power and Prestige

Bailey and Raelin (2015) argue with Oreg (2006) that organisational change often entails real or anticipated loss, which threatens individuals and evokes their reactions and resistance to change. This implies that loss can be a source of resistance to change. Losses include control, effectiveness, job security, potential opportunities, power, resources, routines, status, and prestige (Bailey and Raelin, 2015; Oreg, 2006). Oreg (2006) explains this argument by emphasising that as threat to power and prestige increases, so will employees' cognitive evaluation of the change become more negative, which ultimately influences their feelings and behaviours against the change. In this regard, Wright and Christensen (2013) suggest that change makes employees more afraid about their future, especially when it leads to the loss of familiar or comfortable social dynamics, being assigned additional, less desirable tasks, or even losing their job.

3. Self-Interest

Change often carries with it some new methods or approaches in jobs, which means it disturbs the normal daily routine in the workplace. This situation is more likely to generate resistance from some employees to protect their personal interests, maintain the *status quo*, and retain their social relationships within the organisation, which have taken time and effort to establish (Shin *et al.*, 2012).

It was argued by Woodward (1968) that the interests of the organisation and the individual do not always coincide. Even more, Jones *et al.* (2008) share the view of Oreg (2003) and Oreg *et al.* (2008) that some employees may resist organisational change even if it is implemented for positive reasons (e.g. to adapt to changing environmental conditions and remain competitive), or even if it is consistent with their personal interests. In this sense, Piderit (2000) suggest that rarely do individuals form resistant attitudes without considering the potential negative consequences for themselves.

4. Lack of Information

Van Dam *et al.* (2008) argue that a major aim of providing information about the change is to keep employees knowledgeable about anticipated events, such

as the specific changes that will occur, the consequences of the change, and employees' new work roles. More importantly, providing information can help reduce uncertainty and anxiety, and can ultimately contribute to creating increased openness towards the change, while, on the other hand, poorly managed change communication may result in widespread rumours, increased cynicism and resistance to the change (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008).

However, unlike most studies, Oreg (2006) found that more information about the change was associated with a worse evaluation of it and with increased willingness to act against it. This suggests that the content of information and the manner in which the information is communicated have more influence on individuals' reactions towards change than the mere existence of the information itself (Oreg, 2006).

5. Lack of Trust

Generally, trust has been widely recognised as a vital component of effective and satisfactory relationships among employees and a critical element for organisations' success (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). More specifically, trust in those leading change is considered to be an important aspect of a change process, and a prerequisite for employees' cooperation with the change. If employees have little faith in those who are responsible for the change, they may alienate themselves from the change and react with fear and resistance (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008).

Similarly, Ertürk (2008) concludes that developing and maintaining a high level of trust among managers and employees might be a strong catalyst during change initiatives. Such trust can speed up the change process, while decreasing employees' resistance to change (Ertürk, 2008). In this respect, Gill (2002) indicates that lack of respect and trust in the person or people promoting change and scepticism as a result of the failure of previous change initiatives is one of the reasons for resisting organisational change. Therefore, the importance of mutual trust between managers and employees stems from being the basis for successful organisational change initiatives (Oreg, 2006).

Furthermore, Stanley and colleagues (2005) found that trust in management correlated significantly negatively to employees' intentions to resist change. Similarly, Heuvel and Schalk (2009) found that a decrease in trust in the organisation leads to a higher level of affective, behavioural and cognitive resistance towards an organisational change. Therefore, resistance to

organisational change can be reduced by increasing mutual trust between managers and employees, raising awareness of people about the change, and achieving the principle of transparency in the presentation and discussion of all matters relating to the change's objectives, strategies, and plans.

6. Past Experiences of Change Failure

Previous failed initiatives of change may negatively affect individuals' perceptions about any coming change and vice versa. Under these circumstances, unsuccessful change is still rooted in the minds of individuals; therefore, it is not surprising that people expect history to repeat itself (Ford and Ford, 2009). Therefore, resistance can stem from unhappiness over problematic earlier initiatives.

7. Lack of Participation in Change Process

Lines (2004) argues that participation in the workplace, participation in strategic change processes in particular, has been presumed to lead to a number of positive outcomes. This may be more obvious when organisational change takes place. Participation in all aspects of change is an important element that reinforces individuals' desire to achieve the success of this change.

Recent research findings support this argument. For example, Georgalis *et al.* (2015) stated that employee participation has been long documented as one of the more successful techniques for diminishing resistance. Lines (2004) found that a strong positive relationship between participation and goal achievement and organisational commitment, and a strong negative relationship with resistance. Similarly, Van Dam *et al.*'s (2008) study revealed a negative relationship between opportunities for participation in the planning and implementation of organisational change and resistance to the change.

2.2.1.7 Advantages of ROC

Resistance to change as currently formulated in the organisational literature is an inherently negative phenomenon that must be eliminated for organisational change efforts to be successful, as Mathews and Linski (2016) point out. Nevertheless, there is another perspective that focuses on the positive aspects of resistance. Indeed, the literature suggests that resistance is a normal, if not healthy, part of organisational change (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2017).

Resistance can lead to better results and can be a valuable resource for achieving change objectives, as Ford and Ford (2010) argue. However, McKay

et al. (2013) argue that the focus on countering resistance to change may overshadow the potential opportunities it presents, particularly the identification of gaps and flaws in the proposed strategy, the addition of key steps and interventions to the original implementation plan, and the general value that discussions surrounding resistance may hold in the process of ensuring buy-in and building trust in leadership.

Moreover, resistance to change can be a source of information, constructive feedback for improving the process of change and discovering weak points in the change initiative; it can be a source of creative ideas to solve problems, or point to things in an organisation that need addressing, improving, rethinking, or that are simply wrong (Fineman, 2003; Pieterse *et al.*, 2012). Thus, it is considered as an opportunity to learn new ideas on how to improve change and execute it effectively (Ford and Ford, 2010). Huang (2015) indicates that resistance could be seen not only as inherent in the change process, but also as a potential trigger for better changes. Therefore, a positive perspective of resistance argues that this phenomenon should be recognised and welcomed and, even more, worked with. According to this perspective, resistance is regarded as a healthy and desired response, an opportunity to excite open debate, and should be dealt with as a powerful ally in facilitating the change (Atkinson, 2005).

2.2.1.8 Dealing with ROC

There are several approaches for dealing with ROC. The literature on change management has repeatedly indicated that six major strategies presented by Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) are considered the most common approaches for dealing with ROC. The most distinguishing feature of this work is that it takes into account differences in the motivation and ability of individuals and groups to resist (actively or passively) attempts made to introduce new ways of working (Bresnen and Marshall, 2000). On the other hand, although a lot has changed in the world of business and management studies since this work first appeared, these strategies have not been improved or developed. For example, two decades later, *Harvard Business Review* reprinted this work with no change (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008).

However, the source of an organisation's success in managing and controlling resistance to organisational change lies in choosing the appropriate strategy in a timely manner. Most importantly, Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) emphasized

that the most common mistakes managers make are to use only one strategy or a limited set of them regardless of the situation and to approach change in a disjointed and incremental way that is not a part of a clearly considered strategy.

Following below is a description of these strategies and more details (situations of use, advantages and disadvantages of each) can be found in Table 2.1.

A. Education and Communication

Generally, the decision of organisational change is often prepared within an organisation; therefore, the first signs of resistance may appear to begin and develop even before the official announcement about changes. In this regard, an education and communication strategy aims to inform individuals about all aspects of the change beforehand through one-on-one discussions, presentations to groups, training programmes, or memos and reports (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979).

Carter *et al.* (2013) argue that frequent two-way communication and interactions between managers and employees are important given the iterative nature of the change programme. Specifically, communicating accurate and timely information about planned organisational change not only helps explain the need for change but also helps employees better understand how change is likely to specifically affect or, just as important, not affect them (Wright and Christensen, 2013). Appelbaum *et al.* (2017) argue that during the change itself, maintaining a steady and accurate flow of information is key to reducing resistance to the change at hand. In this regard, Stilwell *et al.* (2016) indicate that using communication as a mechanism to help make the case for change is widely recommended, and is considered one of the most common ways to overcome resistance to change (Stilwell *et al.*, 2016).

According to McKay *et al.* (2013), there is ample consensus in the literature with respect to the role of appropriate communication and opportunity for participation and involvement in change planning in managing change resistance. Therefore, this strategy emphasizes the seriousness of management and change agents in implementing the change. Although this strategy requires time and effort, particularly if a lot of people are involved, its results can lead to minimising rumours and reducing the number of resisters and increasing the number of supports of the change (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979).

B. Participation and Involvement

If those who are to be affected by the change or the potential resisters participate in some aspects of the design and implementation of the change, they will be more committed to the change and its success (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979). Even more, their involvement may lead to provision of useful information and ideas to the organisation. According to Van Dam *et al.* (2008), participation offers a variety of potential benefits, such as an increased understanding of the circumstances that make change necessary, a sense of ownership and control over the change process, and increased readiness for change

However, Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) argued that when the change must be made immediately, involving others may lead to implementation of the change taking longer than expected.

C. Facilitation and Support

Another way that managers can deal with potential resistance to change is by being facilitative and supportive through providing training in new skills, public recognition for those participating in the change initiative, or giving employees time off after a demanding period, or simply listening and providing emotional support (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979). In a recent study, Jones and Van de Ven (2016) found that the relationship between supportive leadership and change resistance was increasingly negative over time. It is most helpful when fear and anxiety lie at the heart of resistance (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979). It is preferable to use this strategy before resistance escalates or the number of its supporters increases. The basic drawback of this approach is that it can be time consuming and expensive, and may fail.

D. Negotiation and Agreement

Another alternative technique to deal with potential resisters, especially those who have power, is to negotiate with them in order to facilitate the implementation of the change. It seems that using a negotiation strategy is more appropriate in the case of radical change, such as mergers, acquisitions, or privatisation. Sometimes an organisation resorts to providing attractive and expensive incentives to negotiate with key people who have long experience and very important skills for the organisation (e.g., leaders of opposition to the change). Therefore, negotiated agreements can be a relatively easy way to avoid

major resistance. However, they may become expensive (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979).

E. Manipulation and Cooptation

Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) suggested that in some situations managers resort to covert attempts to influence others. Manipulation, in this context, normally involves the very selective use of information and the conscious structuring of events. Cooptation is a common form of manipulation, where a key leader or influential person in a resistance group is given a key role in the design or implementation of a change to gain an individual's or a group's support (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979). The risk here is that exposure of this strategy could lead to negative results such as increased resistance and lower the credibility of management. The implicit goal of this strategy is to discourage resisters and weaken their ability to continue in their position against a change.

F. Explicit and Implicit Coercion

This strategy is often used as a method of imposing change forcibly on resisters or exposure to various pressures to accept the change. Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) suggested that, in some situations, managers may force employees to accept a change by explicitly or implicitly threatening them with reducing benefits and promotions, or by actually transferring or firing them.

Although this strategy may be the last resort for managers, for completion and implementation of organisational change, it may be a decisive solution for those who refuse the change. However, using this strategy is risky because inevitably people strongly resent forced change (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979) and staff who are forced to change may feel that they have lost the battle and may deal sharply with their superiors and co-workers.

Table 2.1: Methods for Dealing with Resistance to Change

Approach	Commonly used in Situations	Advantages	Disadvantages
Education and Communication	Where there is a lack of information or inaccurate information and analysis.	Once persuaded, people will often help with the implementation of the change.	Can be very time-consuming if lots of people are involved.
Participation and Involvement	Where the initiators do not have all the information they need to design the change, and where others have considerable power to resist.	People who participate will be committed to implementing change, and any relevant information they have will be integrated into the change plan.	Can be very time-consuming if participators design an inappropriate change.
Facilitation and Support	Where people are resisting because of adjustment problems.	No other approach works as well with adjustment problems.	Can be time-consuming, expensive, and still fail.
Negotiation and Agreement	Where someone or some group will clearly lose out in a change, and where that group has considerable power to resist.	Sometimes it is a relatively easy way to avoid major resistance.	Can be too expensive in many cases if it alerts others to negotiate for compliance.
Manipulation and Cooptation	Where other tactics will not work, or are too expensive.	It can be a relatively quick and inexpensive solution to resistance problems.	Can lead to future problems if people feel manipulated.
Explicit and Implicit Coercion	Where speed is essential and the change initiators possess considerable power.	It is speedy, and can overcome any kind of resistance.	Can be risky if it leaves people mad at the initiators.

Source: Kotter and Schlesinger (1979: 111).

2.2.2 Leadership in the Context of Organisational Change

As is pointed out by Brown (2012), there is a substantial debate among scholars regarding the definition of leadership. Day and Antonakis (2012), for example, argue that leadership is difficult to define precisely, although it is often easy to identify in practice. According to Yukl (1989), definitions of leadership that have been provided by researchers focused generally on individual traits, leader behaviours, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, influence over followers, influence on task goals, and influence on organisational culture.

Day and Antonakis (2012) suggest that the influence process that occurs between a leader and followers is an integral part of the leadership definition, but they add important dimensions related to this role. They argue that

leadership consists of an influence process and how this process is explained by the leaders' dispositional characteristics and personality traits, cognitions, and behavioural intentions, follower perceptions and attributes of the leader, and the context surrounding this interaction relationship. This multifaceted definition of leadership incorporates the most commonly used definitional features: the effects of a leader, the leader's dispositional characteristics, leader behaviour, the interaction process between the leader and followers, and the impact of context (Day and Antonakis, 2012). Although this definition includes many features or components of leadership, it omits the role and potential impact of others on leaders, whether other leaders or groups.

Although there are a large number of leadership theories that have been developed in the literature, the current study focuses on leader-member exchange and transformational leadership theories, which are uniquely appropriate for leading change in modern organisations, as has been indicated in previous studies (see e.g. Georgalis *et al.*, 2015; Tyssen *et al.*, 2013; Zhao *et al.*, 2016). Given the difficulty of reviewing such a large number of theories, the selection of the two theories mentioned for this study was made considering three respects.

First, before and during organisational change, employees seek to understand the need for change and its justifications. Therefore, providing continuous and effective communication and adequate information about the change are keys to gain support from them and ultimately achieve organisational change successfully. In this regard, the important role of leaders in implementing organisational change successfully stems from providing a vision of and identifying the need for change, implementing the change itself, giving direct support to followers, and embodying an appropriate model of behaviour during the change (Fugate, 2012; Gilley *et al.*, 2009; Jones *et al.*, 2008). Similarly, Jóhannsdóttir *et al.* (2015) and Battilana *et al.* (2010) argue that, in the context of planned organisational change, leaders are likely to emphasize the communicating activities of change implementation as a way to explain why the change is needed, and to discuss the nature of the change and thereby reduce employees' confusion and uncertainty.

Specifically, the nature of leader-member exchange relationships creates an environment of reciprocity between the leader and the employee. For instance, in high-quality LMXs, employees receive greater access to resources and

information, a high degree of interpersonal attractions, and mutual confidence and respect. Thus, change initiatives supported by the leader have a greater likelihood of gaining support from work-group members (Heuvel *et al.*, 2014; Self *et al.*, 2007). On the other hand, transformational leadership is thought to be important during times of change because of the ability of transformational leaders to engage followers and motivate them to support the leader's chosen direction (Fugate, 2012; Herold *et al.*, 2008). Transformational leaders explicitly draws employees' attention to a desired future state (vision) and instil confidence in their ability to meet high expectations (Seo *et al.*, 2012). According to Zhao *et al.* (2016), they are effective because they can communicate why change is necessary, why it is important, and what to expect after the change; their exemplification, inspiration, and individualized attention also exert positive influences on employees during organisational change. This approach to leadership, as Top *et al.* (2015) argue, is uniquely positioned to provide a model for successful and effective leadership, especially during organisational change. Thus, it is perhaps not surprising that transformational leaders play an important role in facilitating employees' acceptance of change (Oreg and Berson, 2011).

Second, as noted previously, individuals' attitudes towards organisational change, resistance to organisational change in particular, have a pivotal role in preventing or achieving change objectives. Consequently, in organisational change situations, a leadership style that enhances positive attitudes towards change is undoubtedly an important element for the success of organisational change. Recent research supports this argument. For example, Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) share the view of Van Dam *et al.* (2008) as well as Dirks and Ferrin (2002) that leadership styles and behaviours can have a strong influence on followers' perceptions, behaviours, and job attitudes. Furthermore, some scholars have emphasized the key role that leaders play in organisational change initiatives (Gill, 2002), especially as their traits and personal attributes influence employees' responses to planned organisational change (see e.g., Huy, 2002; Oreg and Berson, 2011; Seo *et al.*, 2012; Szabla, 2007).

Kuipers *et al.* (2014) argue that leaders are regarded as important drivers of change in the change management literature. Based on this argument, when managers and subordinates have good feelings of respect, trust, and supportive relationships, as the main focus of the high-quality LMX, they report more positive attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, and workplace and leadership

dynamics are more effective (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2012). Besides, Zhao *et al.* (2016) in line with Tyssen *et al.* (2013), who argue that transformational leadership strongly and positively affects followers' attitudes toward change and fosters positive employee reactions to organisational change at the workplaces. Similarly, Oreg and Berson (2011) suggest that transformational leadership behaviours can positively influence employees' reactions to change through offering a compelling vision of future changes in the organisation and by using intellectual stimulation and challenging employees to accept innovative solutions to problems and to challenge the *status quo*. Furthermore, recently, Burch and Guarana (2014) argue that whereas LMX highlights the importance of leaders' unique relationships with followers as the driver of positive attitudes and behaviours, especially during organisational change, transformational leadership focuses on the leaders' ability to transform followers through a global inspiring vision that encourages positive change among all employees.

Third, selecting these two theories is consistent with calls of many scholars (see. e.g., Anand *et al.*, 2011; Avolio *et al.*, 2009; Basu and Green, 1997; Dulebohn *et al.*, 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Howell and Hall-Merenda, 1999; Krishnan, 2004; Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2005) for investigating the conceptual and empirical links between transformational leadership and leader-member exchange and integrating them within one study, as noted earlier. For example, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) contended that in leadership research, a relationship of some sort between leader and follower is assumed, and it is further assumed that the nature and quality of that relationship are fundamental to linking leader behaviour to follower response.

Accordingly, the background of this work is based on Social Exchange theory. This theory proposes that behaviour is a result of an exchange process. In other words, any relationship between two or more parties depends on what each side can gain from that relationship. This relationship will be good if the benefits to each party are more than the costs and vice versa. Furthermore, Vertical Dyad Linkage theory also is considered a theoretical background for this study. This theory argues that leaders exhibit very different patterns of behaviour toward different members of their work groups, which ultimately are reflected in their behaviours and reactions to different situations and social interactions in the work environment. Section 2.2.3 highlights the different theories chosen to underpin this study, while their relationships with resistance to organisational

change and the influences of two work-attitudes and other demographic factors on resistance to organisational change will be discussed in detail in section 2.3.

2.2.3.1 Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

A. Historical Background of LMX Theory

From a historical view, although LMX theory was proposed in the mid-1970s by Graen and colleagues (e.g. Graen and Cashman, 1975), some recent scholars (see e.g., Anand *et al.*, 2011; Bernerth *et al.*, 2016; Ilies *et al.*, 2007; Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2012) have attributed emergence of this theory to Blau (1964); Gouldner (1960); and Katz and Kahn (1978), while, most likely, the inception of this theory may be built on the social exchange theory coined by Homans (1958). Homans (1958: 606) stated that “social behavio[u]r is an exchange of goods, material goods but also non-material ones, such as the symbols of approval or prestige. Persons that give much to others try to get much from them, and persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them”.

Bernerth *et al.* (2016) described LMX relationships as a social exchange of tangible and non-tangible resources between supervisors and subordinates, and comments that LMX theory explicitly recognizes differences between the relationships leaders have across individual employees. The social exchange process, as Riggs and Porter (2017) argue, underlying LMX theory suggests that leaders and followers reciprocate the exchange of resources between each other, which, in addition to moving their relationships from ones characterized as “economic exchange” to ones characterized as “social exchange,” leads to the development of trust between them.

Supporters of the original theory, Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL), focused on the nature of the vertical linkages formed by leaders with each of their followers. Hughes *et al.* (2010) claim that vertical dyad linkage theory was the first theory to recognize that leaders treat followers within the same group differently. This theory has been developed to the claim that leaders form their relationships with a specific group of followers. More specifically, in an early study conducted by Dansereau *et al.* (1975), it was found that there were two distinct types of linkages or relationships between leaders and followers. These two types of relationships are called in-group and out-group. Followers in the in-group receive considerably more attention from leaders through higher amounts of information, influence, support, confidence, and concern from leaders compared to the followers in the out-group (Dansereau *et al.*, 1975). The in-group

members are also more involved in administering and communicating activities than the out-group members (Dansereau *et al.*, 1975).

The later studies of LMX involved moving beyond addressing primarily the nature of the differences between “in-groups” and “out-groups” to a focus on addressing how the quality of LMX relationships was related to workplace outcomes for leaders, followers, work units/groups, and the organisation in general (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). In this sense, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995: 229) stated that:

“this is different from the VDL [Vertical Dyad Linkage] approach in that it moves beyond a description of the differentiated relationships in a work unit to an explanation of how these relationships develop and what the consequences of the relationships are for organizational functioning (relationship domain, dyadic level)”.

In this regard, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) alluded to a crucial point about the role of limited time and social resources of leaders in developing and maintaining high-quality exchanges with their subordinates. They (1995: 227) indicated that, under these circumstances, leaders tend to develop “only a few higher-quality exchange relationships, and the remainder of the relationships would be lower-quality exchanges, involving only obligatory compliance by the members with the formal role requirements”. Higher quality relationships occur when both leaders and followers are able to develop effective partnerships that result in incremental influence (Uhl-Bien, 2006). In this regard, Cropanzano *et al.* (2017) argue that each dyadic relationship can possess its own quality, depending on the nature of exchanges between the participants.

According to Uhl-Bien *et al.* (2014), later works of LMX focused on how followers act as active partners to leaders when they operate in the context of high quality relationships. Finally, according to Avolio *et al.* (2009), literature of this theory has evolved from focusing exclusively on both antecedents and consequences of the LMX relationship to examining the quality of the leader and follower relationship as a moderator and/or mediator of some organisational factors.

Concisely, the central premise of this theory is that leaders treat their followers differently or they develop different exchange relationships with them over time; the quality of these relationships produce effective leadership outcomes in

general (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2014), and affect the attitudes and behaviours of both parties in particular (Dansereau *et al.*, 1975; Liden *et al.*, 1997).

B. An Overview of LMX Theory

As noted by a number of recent studies, traditional leadership theories, which focus exclusively on the role and behaviour of leaders as major players in the leadership process and ignore that of the subordinates are considered outdated and ineffective in today's organisations (see e.g., Dulebohn *et al.*, 2012; Milner *et al.*, 2007; Soldner, 2009; Stringer, 2006). This is consistent with Avolio *et al.* (2009) who suggest that recent theories of leadership, as an area of academic research, are not limited to investigating the attributes, characteristics, and impact of leaders but have extended to explore the influence of other parties in the organisation such as followers, co-workers, supervisors, work setting/context, and culture.

Therefore, it is paramount to adopt alternative approaches to leadership that emphasise the importance of the exchanges between leader and follower, in order to promote a spirit of employee commitment, cooperation, motivation, empowerment and job satisfaction (Milner *et al.*, 2007). In this sense, Schwab (1980) suggested that Graen's theory of dyadic leadership (Dansereau *et al.*, 1975) was a challenge or an alternative conceptualisation to previous leadership theories. In this view, Soldner (2009) and Stringer (2006) argue that unlike traditional leadership theories, LMX theory is predicated mainly on interaction (a dyadic exchange) between leaders and their followers. Yammarino (2013) indicate that, at the dyad level, mutual attraction and exchange between leaders and followers are important fundamental human processes, where a common interest or similar characteristic can lead to mutual liking of one another.

Essentially, interactions in high-quality LMX relationships (in-group) are characterised by a high degree of interpersonal attraction, increase of confidence and mutual respect, informal rewards, greater access to resources and information as well as more informal influence. Conversely, interactions in low-quality LMX relationships (out-group) are characterised by low interpersonal attraction, less mutual support and trust, formal rewards, more restricted access to resources and information, and more formal supervision (e.g., Furst and Cable, 2008; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995 among others).

It is, therefore, no surprise that many positive individual and organisational outcomes can emerge from high-quality LMX relationships (Ansari *et al.*, 2007; Soldner, 2009). As a result, favourable outcomes (e.g., performance appraisal, leader support and attention, job satisfaction, commitment, empowerment) may be received and/or reported by employees in high-quality LMX relationships more than their counterparts in low-quality LMXs (Mueller and Lee, 2002). Bernerth *et al.* (2016) argue that the job satisfaction and other positive attitudes resulting from relations with leaders stem, in part, from the reduction in one's sense of indebtedness and the positive feelings generated when individuals trusted to follow-through deliver.

Consistent with this perspective, Sias (2005) found a positive correlation between LMX relationship with co-workers and immediate supervisors and job satisfaction and organisational commitment. She (2005: 388) stated that these relations “may be driven, in large part, by the supervisor's differential provision of [amount and quality of] information to employees, rather than other aspects of the LMX relationship such as differential task assignments, provision of tangible rewards, and support”. On the other hand, in their theoretical study, Bolino and Turnley (2009) proposed that employees with lower-quality exchange relationships experience feelings of relative deprivation in comparison to their colleagues. These feelings of relative deprivation, as they suggest, are associated with higher levels of stress, negative attitudes, and counterproductive work behaviour.

However, contrary to what has been mentioned above, Bernerth *et al.* (2016) argue that although LMX research provides support for the proposed benefits of high-quality exchanges between leaders and employees, a growing body of literature reports counterintuitive findings regarding employees and their work relationships. For example, although it is widely believed that LMX is negatively related to stress, Harris and Kacmar (2006) found that individuals who enjoy high-quality LMX relationships with their supervisors experience more stress than do their counterparts in moderate-quality LMX relationships. They argue that this is due to the extra pressure and obligations that subordinates in high-quality LMX relationships feel to go above and beyond the duties required by the job in order to reduce their feelings of obligation and meet the expectations of their bosses.

In this regard, Bernerth *et al.* (2016) argue that having strong relationships with leaders can provide access to valuable resources, yet such relationships may

have harmful unintended consequences, individually and professionally, if the demands of the relationship force or encourage employees to reciprocate via actions that conflict with their personal preferences or professional standards. Employees experiencing such conflicting demands are unlikely to respond in ways that managers expect and existing research predicts, meaning what we currently know and teach about leader-employee relationships is not as robust as we might like to believe (Bernerth *et al.*, 2016).

C. Strengths

In recent decades, this theory has received increasing attention by researchers (Connell, 2005). Connell (2005) claims that although certain aspects of this theory have been developed since its original conception, the main focus of LMX theory has remained the same. In this regard, Schriesheim *et al.* (1999: 77) argued that although inconsistency in the subcontent of the LMX construct continued to exist, “the majority of studies showed good consensus on the nature of the phenomenon as being the quality of the exchange relationship between leader and subordinate”.

Moreover, unlike prior leadership theories, LMX theory focuses on the dyadic relationship between the leader and the follower (Bernerth *et al.*, 2016; Sheer, 2015). Therefore, as mentioned previously, the central focus of this theory is mainly on interaction (a dyadic exchange) between leaders and their followers (Soldner, 2009; Stringer, 2006). This means that this theory has opened the door for many researchers to rethink the concept of leadership. It emphasises that leadership is a process of mutual influence between the two sides of the relationship, leader and followers, which is ultimately reflected in the organisation’s outcomes. Furthermore, LMX, operationalised into a series of measures, has been used to predict numerous organisational attitudes and behaviour outcomes (Sheer, 2015).

D. Weaknesses

The major criticisms of LMX theory are presented next. The first criticism is that this theory does not specify how high- or low-quality relationships are developed (House and Aditya, 1997; Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2012). In other words, this theory, for example, has not provided a clear explanation about how high-quality or low-quality LMXs are created, developed, and analysed. Similarly, Sheer (2015) argues that LMX theory lacks an explicit description of the exchange construct and equating exchange with exchange relationship quality nullifies a central thesis of the theory.

The second criticism is that, as Uhl-Bien *et al.* (2014) argue, although LMX theory does acknowledge followers in the relational process, it is still more leadership -than followership- focused in that it privileges the leader as the driver of the relationship-building process.

A third criticism of the theory is that researchers have not adequately explained the contextual factors, whether internal or external factors, that may have an impact on LMX relationships (Anand *et al.*, 2011). For example, Avolio *et al.* (2009) argue that LMX research has been criticized for not explaining the full dynamics of leadership or conceptualising the social context in which leaders and followers are embedded.

The fourth is related to the validity, measurements, level of analysis, and dimensionality of this theory. Avolio *et al.* (2009) argue that one pervasive criticism of this literature revolves around measurement. For example, Gerstner and Day (1997) argued that there is surprisingly little agreement on what LMX is or how it should best be measured. Schriesheim *et al.* (1999) suggested that many different measures have been used to measure the LMX construct, and the various LMX scales have ranged from two to 25 items. In this regard, Sheer (2015) emphasizes that different operationalisations of LMX across empirical studies result in incomparable meanings and consequently measures of different constructs.

2.2.3.2 Transformational Leadership Theory (TL)

A. Historical Background of Transformational Leadership (TL) Theory

According to Yammarino (1993), transformational leadership theory was built on three scholarly works on transformational/charismatic leadership: House's (1977) article on charismatic leadership, Burns' (1978) book on transformational leadership, and Bass' (1985) book on leadership and performance beyond expectations. Some researchers such as Díaz-Sáenz (2011) argue that the term transformational leadership was originally coined by James Downton in 1973, while James Macgregor Burns brought the term to wider parlance in his classic study of political leadership. According to Connell (2005), the basic premise of this theory goes back to Burns (1978), who supposed that there are two basic types of leaderships: transactional leadership and transforming leadership. Transactional leadership was based on an exchange process between leader and followers where rewards are granted

depending on acceptable levels of followers' efforts and performance, while, in contrast to this type, transforming leadership was based on encouraging followers to transcend their own self-interests and move beyond simple leader member transactions for the good of the group or organisation (Connell, 2005).

In 1985, this theory was expanded by Bernard Bass who used the work of Burns and House to provide the foundation for his model of transformational leadership (Yammarino, 1993). He used the term 'transformational leadership' instead of what Burns coined 'transforming leadership' (Antonakis, 2012). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was one of the most influential conceptualisations of transformational leadership developed by Bass. This construct includes four components of transformational leadership behaviour, namely, idealised influence (leader acts as an admirable role model), inspirational motivation (leader articulates and inspires a vision), intellectual stimulation (leader challenges followers' creativity), and individualised consideration (leader acts as a mentor to followers).

Yammarino (1993: 381) identified the contribution of Bass to these works in three areas: "first, additional dimensions of transformational leadership, inspirational leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation, are fully articulated and conceptualized. Second, environmental/context variables and leader personality dimensions as precursors and moderators of transformational leadership are discussed. Third, Bass developed questionnaire measures of all dimensions of transformational leadership and provided the initial tests of his ideas in a variety of studies that are reported in LPBE [Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations]". Finally, Connell (2005) claims that although Burns's work was considered the original identification of transformational leadership theory, much of the subsequent research on this topic has followed the direction of Bass and his colleagues.

B. An Overview of TL Theory

Avolio *et al.* (2009) suggest that unlike the traditional leadership models, which described leader behaviour in terms of leader-follower exchange relationships, setting goals, providing direction and support, and reinforcement behaviours, the new leadership models emphasized symbolic leader behaviour; visionary, inspirational messages; emotional feelings; ideological and moral values; individualized attention; and intellectual stimulation. For example, Podsakoff

and associates (1990), building on previous work by Bass (1985), developed six dimensions of transformational leadership, labelled the Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI), to measure key transformational leadership behaviours that have been identified in the literature. They are identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation.

This measure, according to Díaz-Sáenz (2011), was found to be the second most widely used instrument for transformational leadership after the MLQ. Antonakis (2012) argues that among many empirical models of transformational leadership, only the model of Podsakoff and colleagues has generated substantial research interest. They emphasized that although Podsakoff's questionnaire measure has not been as closely scrutinized as the MLQ, it is particularly well appreciated by researchers because it is not a propriety instrument, like the latter.

However, Avolio *et al.* (2009) argue that although cross-cultural research pertaining to transformational leadership generally supports the relationships reported for the United States and other Western cultures, it is important to note that these studies largely involve survey-based designs. Additionally, Van Wart (2013) warns that while transformational leadership requires a great deal from leaders in terms of passion, commitment, energy, and insight, there are many dangers for leaders whose belief in themselves becomes egotistical.

Transformational leadership is often defined in terms of leader behaviours and effects on followers (Dionne *et al.*, 2014). Even more, according to Díaz-Sáenz (2011), transformational leaders both influence and are influenced by followers and are not limited to leading their followers but also develop leaders. Recent work conducted by Lanaj *et al.* (2016) took the next step of examining the effects of transformational leadership on leaders. They suggest that research on transformational leadership has predominantly focused on followers' needs and well-being while ignoring those of leaders. Lanaj *et al.* (2016) conclude that the impact of exhibiting behaviours reflective of transformational leadership on leaders' own affective states, but not possible cognitive and behavioural outcomes, was associated with increases in positive affect and decreases in negative effect. Importantly, the effect of behaviours reflective of transformational leadership on affect were incremental to and stronger than those of other leader behaviours (e.g., transactional and consideration

behaviours). It is worth noting that transformational leadership theory is not centre solely on the concept of the leader's influence over followers but also impact on themselves.

Finally, according to Deluga (1990), the central tenet of this theory is that leaders optimize their power and influence primarily through two main aspects; referent power (charisma) and visionary processes (inspiration), while followers, on the other hand, seem less likely to influence their leaders, who are perceived as an idealized symbol.

C. Transformational Leaders' Characteristics

Antonakis *et al.* (2003) share the same idea as Yukl (1989) who argued that such leaders are proactive because they often transform followers by making them more convinced of the importance of values and outcomes of work, by raising follower awareness of the priority of collective interests, and by helping followers to attain unexpected goals. Yukl (1989) attributed followers doing more than they are expected to do to their feeling of trust and respect toward the leaders. Therefore, trust in leaders plays a critical role in the transformational leadership process (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990).

There is ample evidence that transformational leaders are effective in a variety of different situations, particularly in non-routine situations or environments characterised by change, uncertainty and distress (e.g., Bommer *et al.*, 2005; Fugate *et al.*, 2012; House and Singh, 1987; Nemanich and Keller, 2007; Yukl, 1989). For example, House and Singh (1987) pointed out that transformational leadership may be most appropriate for situations characterised by adaptability to changing conditions and uncertain environments. Similarly, Basu and Green (1997), based on previous studies, characterised a transformational leader as one who has a strong desire to change the traditional pattern of daily life activities, has awareness of the need for change and adopts unconventional strategies for it, performs the role of an agent of the change, manages the transition process, and employs and supports dynamic individuals to achieve objectives of the change. In this respect, Van Wart (2013) suggests that the focus of transformational leadership on change especially suits a more tumultuous world. At its core, as Van Wart (2013) argue, transformational leadership is about managing organisational change. Specifically, transformational leaders succeed in instituting changes in structure, procedure, ethos, technology, and/ or production.

Change is a fundamental element of transformational leadership, as Fugate (2012) indicates. Therefore, transformational leaders ‘transform’ individuals to make them more receptive to, and build capacity for, bringing about organisational change (Bommer *et al.*, 2005). This argument underlines that this type of leadership plays a crucial role during organisational change. As a consequence, the role of transformational leaders is not limited to identifying the need for change and creating conditions for successful change, but it goes beyond this to influence followers’ thoughts and establish their convictions of the importance of change. In this regard, Oreg and Berson (2011) stated that in this situation, followers often look up to their leaders as a source of certainty and confidence and may thus be more attentive to their guidance and actions.

D. Strengths

Antonakis (2012) argues that transformational leadership theory has represented an important turning point in leadership theories and has had a massive impact on leadership as a scientific domain. Similarly, Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) point out that although it is a body of research riddled with major problems, transformational leadership is the dominant perspective in leadership research and has made important contributions. Moreover, it has drawn the attention of researchers and practitioners from different perspectives and disciplines and has been developed by many researchers (Avolio *et al.*, 2009; Carless, 1998).

Díaz-Sáenz (2011) suggests that most of the empirical studies have supported the notion that transformational leadership has a favourable influence upon followers’ performance, often arguing strongly in favour of the practice and development of transformational leadership behaviours. In addition, it emphasises followers’ values and morals, attends to the development needs of followers, and encourages personal growth, and motivates employees through the achievement of group or organisational goals (Anderson *et al.*, 2017).

E. Weaknesses

Díaz-Sáenz (2011) argues that probably one of the weaknesses most frequently noted is the tendency among transformational leadership researchers to idealize the transformational leadership approach, to the extent that too much credit is given to the leader, whereas other factors that lead to individual, group or organisational development are ignored. One of these elements, as Díaz-Sáenz (2011) indicates, would be the effects of the followers’ contribution to the interaction with their leader and situational or process factors underlying

foundations or transformational effects. Many scholars have raised questions about the level at which transformational leadership should be conceptualised and operationalised (Bommer *et al.*, 2005). For example, in a recent assessment, Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) questioned the ambiguity of the multi-dimensional definition of transformational leadership, its construct validity, and the insufficient specification of causal processes.

At a conceptual level, Bommer *et al.* (2005) suggest that while some researchers have conceptualised transformational leadership at the individual level of analysis, others have focused on a large scale such as changing countries, political movements, or at least at the organisational level. Similarly, Schriesheim *et al.* (2001) note that for some of the dimensions of transformational leadership, such as charisma, the appropriate level of analysis is unclear. While some dimensions appear to be clearly individual-level (e.g., individualized consideration), others seem to be more group-level (e.g., leader behaviours that foster the acceptance of group goals).

At an operational level, the high interrelatedness found between transformational leadership behaviours/dimensions raises concerns about construct validity (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011; Connell, 2005). For example, unlike the dominant practice of viewing transformational leadership as a set of distinct behaviours (Bommer *et al.*, 2005), Carless (1998) found evidence to support a single higher order construct of transformational leadership and argued that there is little evidence to support the distinction between transformational leader behaviours. This is in line with Tracey and Hinkin (1998) who suggested that the results of confirmatory factor and correlation analyses did not support the “Four I’s” [idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration] notion.

In this regard, Bommer *et al.* (2005) suggest that since these behaviours are so highly interrelated, therefore it is inappropriate to consider them as distinct. They (2005: 735) assert that transformational leadership “should be conceptualized as a single factor- or at least, as a single higher-order construct explained by multiple independent behavio[u]rs”. Even more, as Díaz-Sáenz (2011) points out, the parameters of transformational leadership often overlap with similar conceptualisations of leadership. For example, charisma was included as a component along with vision in TLI, while it was transformed into inspirational influence in the refinement of MLQ (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011). In this regard, Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) suggest that researchers in this field

should concentrate on conceptualizing and operationalizing more precise and distinct elements and effects of leadership without the handicap of the higher-order of transformational leadership.

Finally, Guay *et al.* (2016) stress that social exchange theory is among the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behaviour. Generally, this theory suggests, for example, high levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment prompt positive reciprocity behaviours, wherein employees feel a strong obligation to engage in beneficial behaviour for the organisation. According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), because individuals return the benefits they receive, they are likely to match goodwill and helpfulness toward the party with whom they have a social exchange relationship. Similarly, as Guay *et al.* (2016) indicate, the norm of reciprocity, the core principle of social exchange theory, guides exchange interactions between exchange partners and suggests beneficial inducements received from one party generate the obligation to return beneficial behaviour.

As mentioned previously, high quality of leader-member exchange relationship and transformational leadership influence positively individuals' job satisfaction and their organisational commitment, and affect negatively their resistance to organisational change. In other words, these influences may lead them to be more satisfied with their jobs and more attached to their organisation, and then feel more obligated to reciprocate by sharing more support or less resistance to organisational change. In particular, both direct and indirect influences of LMX and TL on resistance to organisational change suggest that individuals who received a high quality of LMX and/or perceived their leaders as transformational leaders are more likely to be satisfied and committed to the organisation and to support organisational change initiatives or avoid engaging in resistance to change. Taken together, it is expected that individuals with a low quality of LMX and TL are likely to resist organisational change because of their lack of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Therefore, the relationship of leader-member exchange and transformational leadership with resistance to organisational change can be understood based on the consequences of interactions between leaders and followers. Accordingly, the focal point of the present study is that such interactions are not limited to influencing on individuals but extends to their reactions to the environment around them and towards organisational change in particular.

2.3 Section Two: Conceptual Framework

The previous section shed light on the theoretical background of the current study as a prelude to further discussion of various relationships between factors included in this study, which will be discussed in this section. Generally, this section will discuss the development of hypotheses and development of the conceptual framework. More specifically, this section presents a review of the findings of previous studies regarding the associations between organisational factors used in the present study and resistance to organisational change and other. Moreover, it clarifies how hypotheses and the research framework were developed on the premise of previous literature, in an attempt to form a clear vision of the study variables and proposed interrelationships among them.

2.3.1 The Impact of Organisational Change on Contemporary Organisations

Broadly speaking, the impact of change on employees is often extreme (Fugate, 2013). Change often means uncertainty about the future and insecurity regarding its consequences. Perhaps even more than that, this uncertainty creates negative attitudes to change, which leads ultimately to some negative outcomes. In this sense, Hwang *et al.* (2016) argue that change creates a sense of uncertainty and lost control, and employees' resistance and lack of support, in addition to lower levels of acceptance, represent some of the most cited causes for failures associated with organisational change.

The literature on change management has repeatedly noted that change necessarily entails numerous organisational phenomena, such as feelings of stress, psychological strain, perceptions of unfairness, low trust in the management, low job satisfaction, low organisational commitment, and intention to withdraw (see e.g., Bordia *et al.*, 2004; Dahl, 2011; Elias, 2009; Kiefer, 2005; Oreg, 2006; Smollan, 2012). For example, stress, as Astrachan (2004) points out, produces anxiety that dramatically affects emotion and behaviour. Based on reviewing the research literature published between 1975 and 2011, Michal and Gonzales-Morals (2013) conclude that organisational change can create pressure for employees directly (i.e., aspects of the change itself) and indirectly (i.e., by impacting other aspects of work).

Furthermore, organisational change not only affects individuals psychologically but also its negative implications extend to mental and physical health (Michal and Gonzales-Morals, 2013). Therefore, employee health and well-being has

emerged as an important issue (Day *et al.*, 2017). The profound impact of organisational change appears in the possibility of employees' reactions and emotions continuing for months, even years after the event, although little evidence exists about emotional influence during organisational change over time (Seo *et al.*, 2012; Vrontis *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, studying this phenomenon unsurprisingly has become an important area to improve organisational life (Mumby, 2005). According to Helpap and Bekmeier-Feuerhahn (2016), the introduction of change can cause a variety of different emotional reactions among affected employees. Considering the varied experiences of individuals and the diversity of their personalities, perceptions, and attitudes toward organisational change, for some it is considered a source of joy, satisfaction, benefits, or advantages, while for others it may bring pain, stress, or disadvantages (Abdul Rashid *et al.*, 2004; Bouckenoghe, 2010; Oreg *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, as Elias (2009) suggested, it is not surprising that some individuals will welcome change, whereas others will dread it. This confirms that individuals' differences can influence their reactions and perceptions to change (Herold *et al.*, 2007).

Surprisingly, many organisational scientists have indicated that the proportion of successful organisational change initiatives is very low; this implies that many change efforts end in utter failure (Beer and Nohria, 2000; Kotter, 1995; Sims and Sims, 2002). Michel and her colleagues (2013) claim that there is an apparent consensus among researchers and practitioners alike that a majority of organisational change initiatives fail. For example, Kotter (1995) observed that more than 100 organisations of different size and culture try to remake themselves into significantly better competitors. However, a few of these organisations change efforts have been very successful and a few have been utter failures, while most fall somewhere in between, with a distinct tilt toward the lower end of the scale.

In this context, Hamlin (2001) claimed that although the reasons behind these failures are diverse, the vast majority of them come from within the organisational environment. More specifically, Shin *et al.* (2012: 727) argue that "although there are undoubtedly a variety of contributing explanations for the high percentage of failure that occurs in organizational change efforts, management researchers have increasingly concluded that employees play a major role in the success or failure of change in their organizations... prior

empirical studies have confirmed the assertion that employees' attitudinal and behavioural reactions to change play a major role in its success".

One explanation of this failure is found in prior studies. There is some evidence to suggest that change in modern organisations is characterized by materialism, where the human element and political aspects of change, soft sources, are ignored and do not attract so much attention from managers, especially in major changes (Gill, 2002). Thus, the focus of most change initiatives is on the technical systems, procedural aspects, and new structures, hard sources, whilst, at the same time, minimizing costs by cutbacks of workers is among the priorities (Bovey and Hede, 2001a; Gill, 2002). Furthermore, leadership behaviours and a lack of effective leadership may be other reasons that lead to failure of organisational change initiatives (Gill, 2002; Higgs and Rowland, 2005). Literature of leadership, according to Higgs and Rowland (2005) and Michel *et al.* (2013), includes assertions that the root cause of many change problems is attributed to leadership behaviours and organisational issues. Similarly, Choi (2011) argue that many change efforts fail because change leaders often underestimate the central role individuals play in the change process.

Obviously, resistance to change is a deeply ingrained phenomenon in contemporary organisations and a fundamental problem that heavily impacts on organisational life. In view of this, it is disturbing that ignoring resistance or quashing any form of it will exacerbate its severity, which can give rise to many troubles such as unrest in the workplace, especially in the long term (Coghlan, 1993; O'Connor, 1993). One surprising finding reported by Oreg (2003) indicates that some employees may resist organisational change even if it is consistent with their personal interests. Even more, those who are highly enthusiastic about the change in general may have negative thoughts and feelings about some of its aspects (Smollan, 2011). In this situation, resistance seems to be due mostly to the wish to maintain and protect an identity, beliefs and values, if they are threatened in any way (Amis *et al.*, 2002; Fiol and O'Connor, 2002; Macri *al.*, 2002; Petriglieri, 2011; Pitsakis *et al.*, 2012), or to give priority to achieving group interests and aims, especially if the group has high ability to influence organisational decisions (Van Dijk and Van Dick, 2009).

As indicated above, negative impact of change on individuals has been found in literature. For example, as suggested by Zhao *et al.* (2016) employees display

different levels of negative reactions for organisational change, reflecting their different levels of fear of the unknown, perceived or actual threat, lack of trust, and difficulty adapting to skill requirements. Even more, increasing amounts of change often entails increasingly negative outcomes and reactions among individuals, which in turn might reduce the positive effects of change (Fedor *et al.*, 2006). For example, fear of the future, or growing concerns about losing one's job or its benefits lead to feelings of dissatisfaction about the new reality and its repercussions in the future. In this regard, Rafferty and Jimmieson (2017) found evidence that transformational change, or radical change, was significantly positively associated with affective and behavioural resistance to change. This means that when employees' experience changes in key aspects of their work environment such as values, strategy and structure, they develop affective resistance or negative sensations and feelings about change. This then translates into resistance to change in the form of negative actions or intentions to act against this new experience (Rafferty and Jimmieson, 2017). In this regard, Feng *et al.* (2016) argue that when facing a major radical change, employees are often at a loss or even have a strong resistance to it.

Speaking generally, a variety of variables have been found to predict individuals' resistance to organisational change (ROC). These include dissatisfaction (Van Dam *et al.*, 2005), a low level of organisational commitment (Peccei *et al.*, 2011), and a low level of exchange relationship between leaders and members (LMX) (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). Also, transformational leadership behaviours (TL) have been found negatively related to employees' resistance intentions (Oreg and Berson, 2011). Hence, the fundamental goal of this research is to investigate the impact of four organisational factors (LMX, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment) on resistance to organisational change for a deep understanding of this phenomenon. The following sections will review the literature to clarify the interrelationships between these factors.

2.3.2 The Relationships between Main Variables

2.3.2.1 Job Satisfaction and Resistance to Organisational Change

The definition of job satisfaction most widely used by researchers is the one posited by Locke, as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (1976: 1300). Similarly, Weiss (2002) defined job satisfaction as a positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one’s job or job situation. Therefore, as Judge *et al.* (2017) argue, it refers to the assessment of the favourability of a job, typically arrayed along a continuum from positive to negative. Similarly, Rafferty and Griffin (2009) point out that psychologists have argued that the way that individuals feel about their work and the meaning that work holds in their life is a crucial factor of the employment experience. Accordingly, a person with a high level of job satisfaction invariably has positive attitudes toward his/her job; while a dissatisfied person has negative attitudes about his/her job (Spagnoli *et al.*, 2012).

It has been argued that job satisfaction is an extensively researched area in social science, especially in organisational behaviour (Rafferty and Griffin, 2009; Spagnoli *et al.*, 2012). Although Abdul Rashid *et al.* (2004) claim that few scholars have investigated the relationship between attitudes toward organisational change and organisational outcomes, there is considerable research corroborating the linkage between job satisfaction and employees’ attitudes to organisational change (see e.g., Cordery *et al.*, 1993; Iverson, 1996; Yousef, 2000b). Vakola and Nikolaou (2005) and Wanberg and Banas (2000) contend that individuals’ negative attitudes toward change may have negative repercussions for organisations. Linked to this, although they presented little evidence, Cordery *et al.* (1993) concluded that unfavourable attitudes to functional flexibility were associated with low levels of extrinsic satisfaction. Similarly, Chih *et al.* (2012) suggest that during the process of organisational change, the uncertainty of future environment and job changes would cause fear among employees, which would then affect their behaviour. A person’s attitude would be influenced by the environmental factor, which would then affect the person’s behaviour (Chih *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, they found that job satisfaction has direct effect on attitudes toward organisational change. Yousef (2017) found that only satisfaction with coworkers has direct effects on both affective and behavioural tendency dimensions of attitudes toward

organisational change, whereas the remaining facets of job satisfaction have no direct effects on the three dimensions of attitudes toward organisational change.

Although the level of job satisfaction may sometimes increase after organisational change achieves its aims, pre-transformation or the period before change contributes to staff's increased concerns and sense of pressure as a result of uncertainty about their future career and they are more apprehensive about job loss and may lead to lower job satisfaction during this period, as Cunha and Cooper (2002) confirm. Further, by using stimulated mergers and acquisitions scenarios, results of Astrachan's (2004) study strongly suggest that separation anxiety, a cognitive emotional state that is caused by cues of impending separation, is stimulated by the mere announcement that people are going to leave a group or organisation. As many recent scholars (see e.g., Hopkins and Weathington, 2006; Kernan and Hanges, 2002; Smollan, 2012) suggest, survivors of reorganisation, individuals who were retained after downsizing or reorganising, have negative reactions as a result of losing their colleagues, have feelings of insecurity, and report low job satisfaction. In this sense, Hopkins and Weathington (2006) argue that watching colleagues lose their jobs can impact the way employees view their organisation. Also, Wanberg and Banas (2000) demonstrated that lower levels of acceptance of the changes occurring within a reorganising workplace were associated with lower job satisfaction, higher levels of work-related irritation, and stronger intentions to quit.

A number of empirical studies suggest fundamental issues related to an indirect impact of suppression of negative psychological feelings toward organisational change on job satisfaction. For instance, it has been found that several participants who expressed their emotion about change, such as frustration, anger or fear, were likely to be reprimanded for displaying these negative emotions (Bryant and Wolfram Cox, 2006). Therefore, in this situation, it is likely that individuals have a predisposition to conceal or avoid expressing their feelings about organisational change, lest it be construed as a form of resistance (Bryant and Wolfram Cox, 2006; Smollan and Sayers, 2009; Turnbull, 2002). This implies that employees' attitudes to change undoubtedly influence the nature of their dealings with others around them, their performance, and general satisfaction about work.

Since staff resistance to change is a negative reaction toward change, it is, at the same time, an indicator of their satisfaction with the present work environment. According to Folger and Skarlicki (1999), during change, employees can

experience a sense of outcome loss and, based on their cognitive standards of comparison, they might feel some level of dissatisfaction. Numerous studies indicate that resistance is related directly to job satisfaction and they have a reciprocal relationship (Oreg, 2006; Van Dam *et al.*, 2005; Wanberg and Banas, 2000; Yousef, 2000b among others). Specifically, a surge of research has demonstrated links between resistance to organisational change, as a negative attitude or a non-positive response toward change, and lower levels of job satisfaction (Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Maynard *et al.*, 2007; Oreg, 2006). For instance, Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) demonstrated that resistance to organisational change negatively impacts on job satisfaction, which means that job satisfaction is a consequence of resistance. Similarly, Oreg (2006) provides evidence that affective resistance was negatively correlated with job satisfaction; employees who felt angry and stressed about their future as a result of change reported being less satisfied at work. Also, Maynard *et al.* (2007) found support for these findings.

Conversely, Yousef (2000b) concluded that satisfaction with working conditions, supervision, and co-workers, directly and indirectly via different dimensions of organisational commitment, positively influence cognitive, affective, and behavioural dimensions of employees' attitudes toward organisational change. Similarly, a study conducted by Giauque (2015) shows that perceived social support (satisfaction in work relationships with colleagues and supervisors) as well as perceived organisational support (employee voice and participation, information and communication, work-life balance) are positively and significantly related to positive attitudes toward organisational change. In other words, employees' satisfaction toward formal work conditions is positively related to positive attitudes toward organisational reforms precisely because they perceive favourable organisational support (Giauque, 2015). Moreover, consistent with many researchers, Iverson (1996) suggested that employees who psychologically identify themselves with their jobs are more loyal and more predisposed to accept change.

Although there has been some work that has shown resistance to organisational change is an antecedent of job satisfaction, a great many empirical studies have provided findings indicate that both factors are negatively related but job satisfaction is a predictor of resistance. As an example, Dyne and Pierce (2004) demonstrated positive links between psychological ownership of work and job satisfaction. They suggested that extremely high psychological ownership of

some aspects of the job may lead to resistance to change, especially in revolutionary change, as individuals often feel that such change threatens their normal patterns of work. Moreover, according to many scholars (Cordery *et al.*, 1993; Yousef, 2000b; Van Dam, 2005), employees who are dissatisfied with their job and organisational environment are more likely to have a negative attitude toward organisational change, whereas employees who are satisfied with their job are more inclined to support and accept change.

Furthermore, besides an indirect relationship through affective commitment, Van Dam (2005) found that satisfaction showed a negative direct relationship with employees' attitudes toward job changes, department changes, and turnover. Others, such as Fargher *et al.* (2008) and Lange *et al.* (2010), argue that the well-being of workers or their job satisfaction is a strong predictor for their affective and behavioural responses to aspects of work, which in turn contribute to the success or failure of most business. Recent studies found support for these findings. For example, a study conducted by Vakola (2016) found that lack of trust in management, lack of training and support, and lack of job satisfaction contributed to the formulation of passive resistance. In other words, those who feel happy in their current job choose to be supportive and work to improve work situations, while, on the other hand, those who are not happy in their workplace do not have the energy to contribute to a new organisational change initiative that will require more time and effort (Vakola, 2016). Similarly, Cullen *et al.* (2014) emphasize the importance of understanding how change-related uncertainty is related to important outcomes such as satisfaction and performance, which is considered a crucial first step in combating resistance and coping with change. More specifically, as Vakola and Nikolaou (2005, 169) suggest, "lack of a socially supportive environment, as expressed by bad work relationships, was found to be the strongest predictor of negative attitudes towards change, as shown in the regression analysis".

As a consequence, this debate points to mixed and inconclusive results for the association between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change and their relationship remains in dispute, which implies that the relationship between these factors has not yet been fully established. This argument is very much in tune with Saari and Judge's (2004) comment that there is a confusion and debate on the topic of job satisfaction and employees' attitudes. This also underlines the urgent need to fully comprehend and clarify this relationship and

its role in the success of organisational change initiatives in contemporary organisations.

It is worth noting that the relationships between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand, have been a topic of debate in the literature. Some researchers (e.g. Oreg, 2006; Wanberg and Banas, 2000) have claimed that the direction of the relationships between these phenomena from resistance to job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Others (e.g. Giauque, 2015; Oreg *et al.*, 2011; Peccei *et al.*, 2011; Van Dam, 2005) have argued that the direction of such relationships is reversed.

In the current study, based on the latter researchers these factors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are considered as antecedents of resistance. The rationale for this was that, as Van Dam (2005) points out, satisfaction and commitment should both be considered as predictors of employees' attitudes toward a series of job changes in order to understand employees' behaviours and attitudes. Furthermore, it is consistent with the point of view of some researchers (e.g. Chih *et al.*, 2012; Cordery *et al.*, 1993; Iverson, 1996; Yousef, 2000b; Yousef, 2017) who considered job satisfaction and organisational commitment as antecedents of attitudes toward organisational change, resistance to organisational change as a negative attitude in particular. In addition, choosing job satisfaction as an antecedent of resistance to organisational change is in line with Choi's (2011) view that considered general job attitudes, such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction, are predictors of either support for change or resistance to change. In this vein, Oreg *et al.* (2011: 513) emphasize that "variables such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction can be prechange antecedents as well as change consequences".

According to the preceding discussion of job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change, and to answer research question 1:

Is there a relationship between job satisfaction (JS) and resistance to organisational change?, the following hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change.

2.3.2.2 Organisational Commitment and Resistance to Organisational Change

Organisational commitment is a central issue and a well-researched factor in the literature of organisational studies, which shows that antecedents, correlates, and consequences vary across dimensions (Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Somers, 2009). Judge *et al.* (2017) indicate that if one is committed to a job, it is seen specifically as fulfilling one's values, which should lead to maintaining effort toward the job, even if it is cognitively and affectively perceived as producing negative outcomes for the self.

Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that this concept is a psychological state that has at least three separable components reflecting a desire (affective commitment), a need (continuance commitment), and an obligation (normative commitment) to maintain employment in an organisation. Therefore, organisational commitment, as McCann *et al.* (2006) describe, is a psychological tie between organisations and their employees. Brooke *et al.* (1988) argue that organisational commitment is characterized by: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Stated differently, as Iverson (1996) suggested, individuals with high organisational commitment are more supportive of the goals and values of the organisation, willing to exert more effort on behalf of the organisation and, therefore, more likely to accept organisational change initiatives.

Somers (2009) argues that the conceptualisation of commitment as a unidimensional construct was transformed to a new construct with a multi-dimensional framework. According to Russo and her associates (2013), Meyer and Allen's (1991) model, the multi-dimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment, has gained the greatest popularity among many theories of commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) believed that organisational commitment is conceptualised in three components, namely, affective (desire to remain), continuance (perceive costs of leaving) and normative commitment (felt obligation to remain). Briefly, in the words of Markovits (2009: 53), employees "remain in an organisation because they feel they want to, need to or ought to remain, respectively". Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that these three components of organisational commitment were not mutually exclusive and it is expected that each of them could be experienced to varying degrees,

However, there is some disagreement about whether affective and normative commitment are truly distinguishable forms of commitment, and whether continuous commitment is a unidimensional construct (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

Affective commitment, the most widely studied dimension in the literature (Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012), is viewed as a desire or an emotional attachment of employees to, identification with, involvement in, and commitment to the organisation's values and goals (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Moreover, normative commitment is defined as a sense of either moral imperative or indebted obligation to continue employment (Markovits, 2009). Finally, continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991). This implies that employees with a strong continuance commitment will remain in employment because they would lose more if they left the organisation or because their alternative employment opportunities are limited (Falkenburg and Schyns, 2007). Most significantly, Meyer *et al.* (2002) assert that affective commitment is more strongly associated with work-related behaviours compared to the other dimensions of organisational commitment.

McKay *et al.* (2013) argue that organisational commitment has been recognized as one of the most common attitudinal consequences of organisational change. Iverson (1996) found that organisational commitment was the second most important determinant, after union membership, of individuals' attitudes towards organisational change. In this sense, Yousef's (2000b) study revealed that affective and normative commitment increase employees' affective and behavioural attitudes toward organisational change, while cognitive attitudes toward change are influenced negatively by continuance commitment. In this regard, McKay *et al.* (2013) suggest that when employees are affectively committed to an organisation and identify with its values and goals, they are more likely to engage in behaviours that are advantageous to the organisation and express less intention to react negatively toward a proposed change. In line with this argument, commitment to the organisation can increase employees' support for a given change or, in reverse, low commitment can facilitate resistance intentions (Helpap and Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, 2016).

Prior studies have highlighted the critical role of organisational commitment to explain individuals' reactions towards organisational change. Many researchers suggest that employees who are highly committed to their organisations are

more likely to accept change than those who have a low level of commitment (Iverson, 1996; Meyer *et al.*, 2007; Yousef, 2000b). For example, Meyer and colleagues (2007) conducted two studies and found considerable support for the positive relations between employees' commitment and behavioural support for a change over time. Thus, a decreased level of commitment may lead to emergence of negative attitudes towards organisational change. Moreover, recent evidence has provided clear support for the idea that organisational commitment negatively affects resistance to organisational change (McKay *et al.*, 2013; Peccei *et al.*, 2011; Zhao *et al.*, 2016). For example, Chih *et al.*'s (2012) results showed that organisational commitment had the highest direct effect on attitudes toward organisational change. Recently, Yousef (2017) found that organisational commitment directly and positively influences the three dimensions of attitudes toward organisational change. Also, McKay *et al.* (2013) found that affective commitment was negatively and significantly related to resistance to change. This suggests that affective commitment emerged as a significant predictor of resistance to change, highlighting the importance of employee emotional attachment to and identification with the organisation as a factor contributing to intent to display positive, change-oriented behaviours for the benefit of the organisation (McKay *et al.*, 2013).

Based on an argument that employees who are more strongly committed to their organisation are less likely to engage in anti-change behaviour, Peccei *et al.* (2011) conclude that organisational commitment, along with perceived benefits of change and involvement in change, had significant negative direct and indirect effects on resistance to organisational change. In other words, increasing employee commitment to the organisation leads to reduced desire to resist or oppose the goals and strategies of the organisation for change and organisational development. This, in turn, may emphasize the role of consultants and change agents in increasing organisational commitment before and during implementation of change.

Instead of using the term organisational commitment, Zhao *et al.* (2016) used the expression commitment to the changing organisation, to reflect employees' attitudes toward the changing organisation—that is, embracing the changes the organisation is undertaking and expressing willingness to work on its behalf during the change period. They found that commitment to the changing organisation correlated negatively with behavioural resistance to change, while it correlated positively with behavioural support to change. In other words,

during the period of change, highly committed employees exhibit lower resistance and greater supportive behaviours toward the change (Zhao *et al.*, 2016).

On the other hand, Oreg *et al.* (2011: 516) proposed that “change is likely to be perceived as a threat to those committed to the “old ways of doing things”, thereby yielding a negative relationship between commitment and support for change”. As suggested by Vakola and Nikolaou (2005), highly stressed individuals demonstrate decreased commitment and increased reluctance to accept organisational change interventions. Further, unlike Peccei *et al.* (2011) who consider organisational commitment as an antecedent of resistance to change, Oreg (2006) has demonstrated that cognitive resistance has an inverse relationship with continuance commitment as a potential outcome of resistance. Oreg (2006: 94) suggests that “those who reported having negative cognitive evaluations of the change when it was first introduced were also less likely to believe it was worth their while to remain in the organization”. Similarly, Van Dam (2005) found that employees who were highly committed to their work unit were less eager to move to another location to work at a similar department. From the findings from these two areas, it can be noted that resistance to organisational change is likely to be interrelated with organisational commitment.

Finally, there is a paucity of research examining the effects of organisational commitment, as an antecedent, on individuals’ attitudes and reactions to change in general and resistance to organisational change in particular (Coetzee and Chetty, 2015; Giauque, 2015; McKay *et al.*, 2013; Oreg *et al.*, 2011; Peccei *et al.*, 2011). To date, no research has adequately investigated the relationship between organisational commitment and resistance to organisational change, with the exception of the studies by McKay *et al.* (2013), Peccei *et al.* (2011), and Zhao *et al.* (2016), mentioned previously. Peccei *et al.* (2011) suggested that only two studies, Iverson (1996) and Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) had explicitly examined the impact of commitment on employee attitudes and responses to change but not on resistance to organisational change.

Choosing organisational commitment as an antecedent of resistance to organisational change is in line with Choi’s (2011) view that considered general job attitudes, such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction, are predictors of either support for change or resistance to change. Additionally, it is consistent with point of view of McKay *et al.* (2013), Peccei *et al.* (2011),

Oreg *et al.*, 2011; and Zhao *et al.* (2016) who considered organisational commitment as an antecedent of resistance to organisational change. Therefore, this study is much in line with the suggestion of Peccei *et al.* (2011: 187) who noted that “despite long-standing claims about the importance of OC [organisational commitment] as an antecedent of employee responses to change, therefore, evidence in support of these claims is still limited and not always consistent, thereby meriting closer investigation of the OC-RTC [resistance to change] relationship”.

Following the previous arguments, and to answer research question 2:

Is there an association between organisational commitment (OC) and resistance to organisational change?, it could be hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and resistance to organisational change.

2.3.2.3 Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Speaking generally, job satisfaction relates to feelings and beliefs that individuals have about specific jobs or to certain of their aspects, while, on the other hand, organisational commitment relates to feelings and beliefs about the employing organisation as a whole. Therefore, organisational commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organisation, including its goals and values, whereas job satisfaction emphasizes the specific task environment where employees perform their duties. Additionally, a substantial body of academic work has examined the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, either as concepts where the researchers wanted to investigate their intercorrelations and interdependencies, or as concepts that were influenced by, or determined, other organisational factors (Markovits, 2009).

There is strong empirical evidence that satisfied employees are more committed to their organisations than those who are less satisfied (Cheung *et al.*, 2009; Chih *et al.*, 2012; Liao *et al.*, 2009; Lok and Crawford, 2001; Russo *et al.*, 2013; Yilmaz, 2002; Yousef, 2000b, 2001). It has been suggested that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are inextricably theoretically linked. Job satisfaction, as Cheung *et al.* (2009) indicated, is considered one of the major determinants of organisational commitment. For example, Lok and Crawford (2001) point out that job satisfaction is considered to be closely associated with organisational commitment in the literature. Similar findings were found in a

study conducted by Liao and colleagues (2009). They demonstrated that job satisfaction has direct effects on organisational commitment. This suggests that if employees' job satisfaction improves, they would show greater organisational commitment (Liao *et al.*, 2009). In other words, employees who are satisfied with their jobs are more likely to exhibit constructive behaviours and are more committed to their organisations. Chih *et al.* (2012) as well as Mathieu *et al.* (2016) found that job satisfaction significantly and positively influences organisational commitment. Recently, Valaei and Rezaei (2016) found support for these findings. They concluded that seven out of nine job satisfaction facets (payment, promotion, fringe benefits, co-worker, communication, operating procedures and nature of the work) are positively associated with affective commitment. Furthermore, they found that payment, promotion, fringe benefits, supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures and nature of the work have a positive relationship with normative commitment.

Specifically, Yousef (2002) found that job satisfaction negatively impacts continuance commitment and positively influences both affective and normative commitment. He suggests that employees who are happy with their jobs are more willing and desirous to remain in the organisation. In addition, employees who still work with the organisation, either because of lack of alternative jobs or because of the high cost of leaving the organisation, will be willing to remain with the organisation, not because they must but because they want to. Further, Yilmaz (2002) concluded that both components of job satisfaction, intrinsic (IJS) and extrinsic (EJS), were significant antecedents of affective commitment. In Yilmaz's (2002) study, it was found that IJS was related indirectly to continuance commitment through its impact on affective commitment, while EJS was found to have both direct and indirect influence on continuance commitment.

Recent studies found support for these findings. For example, a study conducted by Top *et al.* (2015) found that two dimensions of job satisfaction (operating procedures and communication) were significant predictors of organisational commitment of public servants, while two dimensions of job satisfaction (promotion and contingent rewards) were the significant regressors of organisational commitment of private sector employees. More recently, Yousef (2017) demonstrated that satisfaction with pay, promotion, coworkers, and security directly and positively influence affective commitment. This means that the more employees are satisfied with pay, promotion, coworkers, and security

facets of the job, the more they will have sense of identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to their organisations (Yousef, 2017).

In addition, a recent study conducted by Russo *et al.* (2013) found partial evidence to support Yousef's (2002) view. Their study led to the conclusion that affective commitment had a high and positive correlation with job satisfaction, whilst continuance commitment was moderately and negatively correlated with job satisfaction. In this connection, however, other researchers provide different results; for example, Lumley *et al.* (2011) indicated a positive correlation between job satisfaction and affective and normative commitment, while job satisfaction was not found to be related to continuance commitment. Additionally, Meyer *et al.* (2002) identified a significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and affective commitment and this relationship was considerably stronger than other correlations. In addition, Hopkins and Weathington (2006) found a strong positive correlation between organisational satisfaction, a facet of satisfaction that refers to an employee's satisfaction with both company and management, and affective commitment, while they found a nonsignificant relationship between organisational satisfaction and continuance commitment.

Although many scholars have demonstrated the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, Curry *et al.*'s (1986) study did not find support for causal linkages between these variables. They found that job satisfaction was not a determinant of commitment, nor was commitment a determinant of satisfaction. Finally, while Tierney *et al.* (2002) asserted the importance of including these attitudinal variables when making predictions of work attitudes, in a recent exhaustive review of 60-year period on quantitative studies of reactions to organisational change, Oreg *et al.* (2011) found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction could be pre-change antecedents, as well as change consequences.

The aforementioned literature review has shown that, although considerable research efforts have produced relative consensus on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, yet there is ongoing debate about the causal ordering between these variables (see Cheung *et al.*, 2009; Curry *et al.*, 1986; Elangovan, 2001; Falkenburg and Schyns, 2007; Liao *et al.*, 2009; Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Valaei and Rezaei, 2016; Van Dam, 2005). In this regard, Hair *et al.* (2014a) emphasize that it is not an easy task to determine the sequence between some constructs, especially when the literature is inconsistent

or unclear; therefore, researchers must use their best judgment to determine the sequence of these constructs. However, the current study, following Liao *et al.* (2009), Mathieu *et al.* (2016), and Yousef's (2017) argument, considered job satisfaction as an antecedent of organisational commitment.

2.3.2.4 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Resistance to Organisational Change

Previous studies have demonstrated that the quality of the relationship between leaders and members and leaders' behaviours have many consequences. For example, Tepper (2000) found that employees' negative attitudes were related significantly with abusive supervision. Specifically, individuals who perceived their supervisors were more abusive, reported significantly lower job satisfaction and life satisfaction, lower normative and affective commitment, greater continuance commitment, greater depression and anxiety, and greater emotional exhaustion, among other job attitudes.

Mueller and Lee (2002) suggested that the quality of LMX plays a pivotal role in shaping and influencing employees' work-related affective, cognitive, and behavioural experiences and their attitudes towards organisations. Similarly, Stringer (2006) argues that leaders who are successful in creating high quality leader-member exchange (LMX) minimize negative and increase positive attitudes and behaviours in the workplace. Partially consistent with this argument, Oreg *et al.* (2011) concluded that change recipients' trust in management was the most consistent and strongest factor related with change reaction. This is because experience of a greater level of trust in high-quality LMXs may lead to explicit conversations between leaders and followers and more sharing in work decisions. In this sense, Georgalis *et al.* (2015) indicate that the strength of this relationship between supervisors and employees is vital for securing employees' support, particularly in the context of organisational change. On the other hand, it is, as Peng and Lin (2016) argue, logical for employees perceiving poor leader-member relationships to reciprocate with comparable negative behaviors.

Generally, the link between LMX and resistance to organisational change was first reported by Cashman *et al.* (1976). They suggested that those who fail to develop a leadership relationship with their bosses or those with a low quality of relationship between members and their superiors suffered greater difficulty in the working environment, and were more resistant to changes desired by those

higher in the organisation, and their colleagues. Furthermore, Furst and Cable (2008) suggested that the exchange relationship between managers and employees shapes the expected behaviours of both parties. They found that managerial behaviour influences employees' resistance based on the nature and strength of the relationship between managers and employees. Based on their findings, for employees in low LMX relationships, a manager's use of ingratiation (managers provide flattery and praise for employee efforts), sanctions (managers punish noncompliance of employees or threaten to withhold rewards), and legitimization (managers seek to persuade employees about the legitimacy of the organisation's policies) are related to greater resistance. Hyland (2007) found similar results, but in a different way. He found that LMX relationships were related positively to employees' attitudes toward organisational change. As such, the quality of these relationships has important consequences for individuals' attitudes towards organisational programmes for change and development.

Similarly, Van Dam and his co-authors (2008) showed a negative relationship between LMX and perceived development climate with resistance to change. Their research supported an earlier study by Tierney (1999). They found that work contexts that are characterised by high-quality leader-member exchange relationships and a strong development climate run more smoothly and are more receptive to organisational change. More specifically, they demonstrated that employees in these conditions had received more information, had more opportunities for participation, experienced more trust in those managing the change, and subsequently were less resistant to organisational change.

More recently, Georgalis *et al.* (2015) found evidence to support these findings. A key finding of their study is that LMX was significantly and inversely related to resistance to change. This suggests that individuals may be more likely to resist change if they experience low-quality LMX relationships (Georgalis *et al.*, 2015). High-quality LMX relationship consequently might meet employees' needs such as more attention to address their concerns and fears about the change, reducing their uncertainty about the future, and enhancing their adaptation to the new environment during all organisational change stages. Under these circumstances, as Georgalis *et al.* (2015) argue, the direction and support provided by leaders in quality relationships are likely to lessen the potential for resistance.

Despite its important consequences for both managers and followers, recent LMX studies suggests that research on low-quality exchanges lags behind investigation of the positive aspects of relationships (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2012). For example, Bolino and Turnley (2009) argue that LMX theory has tended to focus on the positive effects of high-quality exchanges. Furthermore, it is interesting that although LMX is considerably related to a host of organisational outcomes and attitudinal variables, such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment (see e.g., Dulebohn *et al.*, 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ilies *et al.*, 2007), less attention has been given to the relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change.

However, it seems reasonable to predict a negative relationship between leader-member relations and resistance. Therefore, it is expected that individuals who perceived a low level of LMX will respond more negatively (show more resistance) towards organisational changes compared with individuals who perceived high LMX. Accordingly, this particular study attempts to examine the relationship between leader-member exchange and resistance to organisational change.

Based on the preceding discussion of LMXs and resistance to organisational change, and to answer research question 3:

Is there an association between leader-member exchange (LMX) and resistance to organisational change?, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change.

2.3.2.5 LMX and Job Satisfaction

A large body of research has been undertaken to examine the relationship between leader-member exchange and job satisfaction. Empirical research has shown that high-quality LMX relationships and job satisfaction are positively related (e.g., Dulebohn *et al.*, 2012; Golden and Viega, 2008; Masterson *et al.*, 2000; Sias, 2005; Stringer, 2006; Volmer *et al.*, 2011). For instance, Masterson *et al.* (2000) found evidence that LMX related directly, among other variables, to higher job satisfaction. In a similar line, Stringer's (2006) study provided support for the proposition that high-quality LMXs are positively related to the level of employees' job satisfaction, both intrinsic and extrinsic. Jung and Takeuchi (2014) suggest that prior studies have theoretically and empirically

explained that high-quality LMX has significant positive effects on work attitudes, job satisfaction and effective organisational commitment, and performance. Similar results were found in a recent study conducted by Liao *et al.* (2017). They found that LMX has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

A meta-analytic review of the antecedents and consequences of LMX conducted by Dulebohn *et al.* (2012) provided support to Gerstner and Day's (1997) meta-analytic study and Liden *et al.*'s (1997) study, which found that LMX was significantly related to job satisfaction among other LMX consequences. Specifically, Gerstner and Day (1997) showed that job satisfaction was the strongest factor correlated to LMX, which was supported in a study conducted by Lapierre and Hackett (2007). Similar findings were found in a study conducted by Mardanov and his colleagues (2008). They concluded that good-quality LMX and strong motivation factors, both intrinsic and extrinsic, resulted in a higher level of job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisors.

Furthermore, as pointed out by Scandura and Pellegrini (2008), research on trust is essential to a deeper understanding of LMX relationships. In this sense, Dirks and Ferrin (2001) indicated that most studies show trust in managers directly increases the level of job satisfaction. Similarly, Kang and Stewart (2007) commented on this view that a high level of trust, as a core construct determining the quality of LMX relationships, results in a positive influence on employees' work-related attitudes and behaviours. As such, greater levels of trust in high-quality LMXs may lead to explicit conversations between leaders and followers, and to the latter sharing in work decisions, and feeling more satisfied about the work environment.

2.3.2.6 LMX and Organisational Commitment

Stringer (2006) argues that successful leadership is an ability to establish a high level of partnership with employees; this can be obtained by creating high-quality LMXs with them. This leads, according to Kang and Stewart (2007) and Stringer (2006), to many positive organisational outcomes such as positive job attitudes, empowerment, participation, organisational commitment, performance, job satisfaction, and organisational citizenship behaviour. Kang and Stewart (2007) suggest that the literature of LMX has shown that followers in a high-quality LMX relationship have more positive job attitudes and behaviours than their counterparts in low-quality relationships.

Consequently, a high-quality LMX instils a sense of belonging to the organisation and enhances the employees' commitment. Thus, it is no surprise, as Kang *et al.* (2011) asserted, that employees' commitment might be a way for them to demonstrate reciprocation or obligation to what their leaders or organisation have done for them. Consistent with this view, empirical research has demonstrated that LMX has significant influences on outcomes (Dulebohn *et al.*, 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997). For example, Gerstner and Day (1997) demonstrated that there is a strong relationship between LMX and a range of psychological reactions. Specifically, they found significant positive correlations between LMX and supervision, overall satisfaction, organisational commitment and role clarity. They emphasize that having a high-quality LMXs can positively affect reactions to work.

Cashman and his colleagues (1976: 280) asserted that an interactive relationship between leaders and subordinates "would give the organization more information, the supervisor more resources, and the unit members a greater voice and as a result, a greater sense of commitment to the organization". This early suggestion about the impact of the leader-members relationship on organisational commitment emphasizes the importance of this issue and its role in organisations' effectiveness. Much research attention has been given to investigating the relationship between LMX and organisational commitment. For example, empirical results have shown that LMX is related positively to organisational commitment (Golden and Viega, 2008; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Liden *et al.*, 1997; Masterson *et al.*, 2000; Yousaf *et al.*, 2011). These results are similar to that of Schriesheim *et al.* (2000) who found that LMX was strongly and positively related to commitment and less so with performance.

Moreover, Wayne *et al.* (1997) and Yousaf *et al.* (2011) found support for a positive relationship between LMX and affective commitment, while Dulebohn *et al.* (2012) indicated that there was a significant relationship between LMX and normative commitment, as well as between LMX and affective commitment. LMX scholars have found that high-quality leader-member relationships have a positive correlation with organisational commitment. As already stated, employees in high-quality relationships of LMX are given more empowerment and sense of responsibility, receive higher amounts and quality of resources and information, receive greater trust and encouragement from the supervisors, and are given many opportunities of autonomy at work. Therefore,

they reflect more positive work attitudes and display more loyalty and exhibit greater commitment to their organisations (Soldner, 2009).

2.3.2.7 Transformational Leadership and LMX

Dulebohn *et al.* (2012) emphasize the role of leaders' behaviours in creating a favourable environment for development of high-quality LMX relationships. They suggest that individuals tend to respond positively to their leaders who are characterized by inspiration and motivation of followers, which is ultimately reflected in high-quality reciprocal relationships with their superiors. Their meta-analysis indicated a significant association between transformational leadership and LMX quality. Wang *et al.* (2005: 423) stated that "transformational leadership comprises a set of leader behaviours that directly influence the development and maintenance of leader-member exchange relationships". In this regard, Boer *et al.* (2016) argue that if transformational leaders experience high-quality relationships with their followers, their work outcomes are also likely to benefit from these relationships. Specifically, followers reciprocate trust and caring behaviours in high-quality LMX relations, leading to work environments and conditions that enable leaders, who strive for transformational goals, to be highly effective (Boer *et al.*, 2016).

As noted by Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999), there are two different perspectives on the conceptualisation of leadership. The first perspective, which is called leader-focused, focuses on analysing specific leader behaviours as a means to explain individual, group, and organisational performance outcomes and link them directly to those outcomes. Transformational leadership (TL) is considered one example of this perspective. In contrast, the second perspective, which is called leader-follower relationships, concentrates on linking the quality and level of mutual trust, respect, and influence within individual leader-follower relationships to follower performance. This means it addresses the explicit one-on-one relationships that develop between leader and follower. The leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership represents the best example of this perspective. Although both perspectives differ in terms of influence direction and why followers perform differently, they explicitly or implicitly assume the existence of a relationship between the two sides, leaders and followers (Howell and Hall-Merenda, 1999). While transformational leadership research focuses predominantly on leader behaviours unilaterally directed toward their followers, the majority of LMX studies concentrate

primarily on the quality of the social exchange relationship between dyadic partners (Wang *et al.*, 2005).

It is argued that transformational leadership behaviours contribute to the development of a high quality exchange between leader and followers (Lee, 2005). Deluga (1990: 245) noted that “transformational leaders may foster the formation of high quality relationships and a sense of a common fate with individual subordinates; while in a social exchange process, subordinates strengthen and encourage the leader”. This argument is in line with prior empirical findings provided by Lee (2005, 2008). These studies revealed that LMX was associated significantly with transformational leadership. The findings of these studies also provide support for Howell and Hall-Merenda’s (1999) study, which demonstrated that high-quality LMX was positively related to transformational leadership behaviours.

Similarly, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) found that transformational leadership behaviours were strongly associated with followers who perceived high quality leader-member exchange. In addition, Basu’s study (1992 cited in Gerstner and Day, 1997: 839) revealed that quality of supervisor-subordinate exchange was strongly positively related to transformational leadership behaviours. This finding was supported in the later study by Gerstner and Day (1997) who found the same result.

2.3.2.8 Transformational Leadership and Resistance to Organisational Change

Herold *et al.* (2008) argue that transformational leadership is especially effective during times of change. In line with this view, Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) argued that effective transformational leaders are those who have ability to change the basic values, beliefs, and attitudes of their followers. According to Bommer *et al.* (2005), transformational leaders ‘transform’ individuals to make them more receptive to, and build capacity for, bringing about organisational change.

Oreg and Berson (2011) suggest that there is a recent interest in linking transformational leadership with employees’ reactions to organisational change. As Nemanich and Keller (2007) and Oreg and Berson (2011) indicate, transformational leaders can influence followers’ reactions toward the change by promoting a climate of creativity to enable them to better understand the need for change, inspiring them by offering a compelling vision of future

changes in the organisation, igniting the ambition of employees to perform more effectively toward the future, and motivating them to maintain their job satisfaction and performance despite the uncertainty and anxiety of the change. Because of such leadership influence, employees are more likely to react favourably toward change, both attitudinally and behaviourally, as Carter *et al.* (2013) suggest. In this sense, Hon *et al.* (2014) suggest that leader behaviours might play an important role in overcoming employees' resistance to change.

Nemanich and Keller (2007) found that creating a climate for change was a mediating mechanism between transformational leadership and acquisition acceptance. To put it differently, they demonstrated that transformational leaders' behaviours indirectly shaped a climate that mitigated employees' resistance to the change. Added support for the importance of transformational leadership during organisational changes comes from Oreg and Berson's (2011) findings that transformational leaders' behaviours, traits, and values were negatively associated with employees' resistance intentions. More specifically, they found that leaders' dispositional resistance was associated positively with their followers' intentions to resist the change. Moreover, followers of non-transformational leaders were more likely to report resistance intentions compared to their counterparts with transformational leaders (Oreg and Berson, 2011). Accordingly, it seems that transformational leaders have positive influences on individuals' attitudes and reactions toward organisational change (Fugate, 2012). Furthermore, Nemanich and Keller (2007) and Oreg and Berson (2011) have emphasized the role of transformational leaders' behaviours in mitigating employees' resistance to change.

Recently, Oreg and Berson (2011: 629) stated that "despite the importance ascribed to the topic of organizational change, in only a small number of studies have leaders' personal attributes or behavio[u]rs been examined in the context of organizational change, with very little attention in these studies to employees' reactions". Therefore, there is a clear need for research to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change, to provide a better understanding of the role of transformational leadership in organisational change initiatives, especially in mitigating resistance to organisational change.

Building on the above considerations, and to answer research question 4:

Is there a relationship between transformational leadership (TL) and resistance to organisational change?, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: There is a negative relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change.

2.3.2.9 Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The link between transformational leadership and job satisfaction is well established. For example, meta-analytic review of 49 studies relevant to performance effectiveness and satisfaction conducted by Dumdum *et al.* (2002) has shown transformational leadership positively related to job satisfaction among other factors. Another a meta-analytic study conducted by Judge and Piccolo (2004) showed that transformational leadership had stronger relationships with follower's satisfaction and motivation than with their performance. Specifically, the relationships of transformational leadership with followers' job satisfaction, followers' satisfaction with leader, and followers' motivation were all significantly stronger than the relationships of transformational leadership with leader job performance and group or organisation performance.

Moreover, Podsakoff and colleagues (1990) found that the aggregate effects of transformational leader behaviours indicate that leader behaviours had a significant impact on trust and follower satisfaction. Similarly, Podsakoff *et al.* (1996) concluded that four leader behaviours, individualized support, providing an appropriate model, vision articulation, and fostering the acceptance of group goals, had significant effects on followers' general satisfaction, while high performance expectations had a negative effect on followers' general satisfaction.

In cross-cultural research on transformational leadership, a study conducted by Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) provided support for the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between transformational leadership and work-related outcomes, such as facets of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and perceptions of organisational withdrawal behaviours. They also found that transformational leadership was positively and significantly correlated with satisfaction with co-workers, satisfaction with supervisors and with work in general, and organisational commitment, while transformational leadership was negatively and significantly correlated with job withdrawal and work withdrawal. Walumbwa *et al.* (2004) found support for these findings. They

concluded that transformational leadership had both direct and indirect, through collective efficacy, effects on followers' work-related outcomes. Specifically, they found that collective efficacy completely mediated the effect of transformational leadership on followers' withdrawal behaviours, but only partially on work attitudes, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction.

2.3.2.10 Transformational Leadership and Organisational Commitment

As mentioned by Avolio and colleagues (2004), leadership is considered a key determinant of organisational commitment. Specifically, to get more involvement of followers in work and increasing levels of their organisational commitment, transformational leaders should emphasize the linkages between followers' efforts and goal achievement, create a higher level of personal commitment to a common vision, mission, and organisational goals, encourage followers to seek new ways to approach problems and challenges, recognize and appreciate followers' needs, and involve them in decision-making processes (Avolio *et al.*, 2004).

Past studies have examined the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment (Yahaya and Ebrahim, 2016). Accumulating evidence suggests that transformational leadership is positively associated with organisational commitment (e.g., Avolio *et al.*, 2004; Barling *et al.*, 1996; MaCann *et al.*, 2006; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990 & 1996; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005). For example, work by Walumbwa *et al.* (2005) demonstrated that transformational leadership has a strong and positive effect on organisational commitment and two facets of job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with work in general, in Kenya and the United States. Similar findings were found in a study conducted by Walumbwa and Lawler (2003). Avolio *et al.*'s (2004) findings suggest that transformational leadership is associated positively with organisational commitment, while psychological empowerment mediated and structural distance moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. Similarly, by using affective commitment as a representative of commitment, MaCann *et al.* (2006) found a strong link between charismatic transformational leadership behaviours, follower beliefs, and follower response of organisational commitment.

Furthermore, Rafferty and Griffin's (2004) findings provided support for using the five subdimensions of transformational leadership as distinct constructs. They found that intellectual stimulation and inspirational communication were significantly positively associated with affective commitment along with other factors. They also found that articulating a vision and personal recognition displayed a negative relationship with continuous commitment, while intellectual stimulation was positively associated with continuous commitment. Additionally, supportive leadership did not display any significant relationships with affective commitment or continuous commitment. In this sense, Podsakoff *et al.*'s (1996) study revealed that the leader behaviour, articulating a vision, was found to be positively related to employees' organisational commitment.

2.3.3 The Role of Mediators

2.3.3.1 Job Satisfaction as a Mediator

As mentioned previously, many scholars have shown that in-group members are more satisfied with their jobs, as a result of having more information, greater support, and higher trust from leaders (Dulebohn *et al.*, 2012). Meanwhile, high leader-member exchange quality has been found to reduce resistance to organisational change (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). What is more, recent researchers, such as Oreg (2006), have demonstrated that job satisfaction is related negatively to resistance to organisational change.

It is worth noting that although some studies have found a mediating role of job satisfaction between the superior-subordinate relationship and a number of work-related consequences, such as turnover intentions (Cheung *et al.*, 2009; Mathieu *et al.*, 2016), organisational commitment (Cheung *et al.*, 2009; Liao *et al.*, 2009; Yousaf *et al.*, 2011), psychological empowerment (Collins, 2007), and organisational citizenship behaviour (Hackett and Lapierre, 2004), the mediation role of job satisfaction between LMX and resistance to organisational change has been largely ignored.

Among the few studies examined the mediating role of job satisfaction, Williams and Hazer (1986) proposed that satisfaction is an intervening variable between organisational and personal characteristics and organisational commitment. They (1986: 222) suggested that leadership consideration is one of the organisational characteristics and they defined it as: "the consideration of a supervisor for subordinate's feelings, problems, and input for decisions, as assessed by subordinate". This study found evidence that leadership

consideration influenced satisfaction directly, and influenced commitment indirectly through satisfaction, implying that job satisfaction was a mediator between leadership and organisational commitment.

Cheung *et al.* (2009) found that supervisor-subordinate guanxi, personal relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate, directly and indirectly influences organisational commitment through job satisfaction. In addition, they asserted that job satisfaction fully mediated the effects of supervisor-subordinate guanxi on participatory management and intentions to leave. Hackett and Lapierre (2004) provided support for these findings. They indicated that job satisfaction plays a strong mediating role in the relationship between LMX and organisational commitment. Linked to this result, they emphasized the strong mediating role played by job satisfaction in the relationship between LMX and organisational commitment. Relevant prior research by Liao and colleagues (2009) has found that job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between organisational commitment and leader-member relations. Also, Yousaf *et al.* (2011) revealed that satisfaction with human resource practices fully mediated the relationship between LMX and affective organisational commitment. Similarly, Mathieu *et al.* (2016) found that person-oriented leadership behaviour, or transformational leaders, affects turnover intentions through job satisfaction and organisational commitment more than task-oriented leadership behaviour.

Oreg (2006) examined the role of resistance to organisational change in relation to employees' personalities, the organisational context, and several work-related outcomes. Unlike previous studies, Oreg (2006) considered resistance to organisational change as antecedent to work-related outcomes, namely, job satisfaction, intention to quit, and continuance commitment. Regarding the context-resistance relationship, he found that affective resistance was a mediator between organisational context and job satisfaction. Specifically, he indicated, on the one hand, that context variables (job security/intrinsic rewards/trust in management) were negatively related to affective resistance, while social influence was positively related to affective resistance, and, on the other hand, that affective resistance was negatively correlated with job satisfaction. He found also that cognitive resistance was a mediator between organisational context and continuance commitment. More precisely, he suggested, on the one hand, that context variables (power and prestige/intrinsic rewards/trust in management) were negatively related to cognitive resistance, while the amount

and quality of information were positively associated with cognitive resistance, and, on the other hand, cognitive resistance was negatively correlated with continuance commitment.

In essence, the aforementioned evidences clearly point to the possibility that a mediation role of job satisfaction may account for the relationship between LMX and transformational leadership, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand. It is, therefore, reasonable to argue that employees who have high-quality LMX relationships will be less resistant to organisational change when they are satisfied with their jobs. Similarly, since transformational leadership provides supervisory support and positive working conditions, employees tend to be more satisfied with their jobs and have less inclination to resist organisational change. Therefore, to answer research question 5:

To what extent does job satisfaction influence LMX relationships and transformational leadership in organisations?, it is anticipated that mediating relationships exist as follows:

Hypothesis 5a: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change.

Hypothesis 5b: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change.

2.3.3.2 Organisational Commitment as a Mediator

Existing studies have consistently shown that high-quality LMX provides a supportive and stimulating environment that leads to employees' increased loyalty and belonging to their organisations, and experience of meaningful work; therefore, it ultimately contributes effectively to increase organisational commitment among employees (Soldner, 2009; Yousaf *et al.*, 2011). As well, some authors (see Peccei *et al.*, 2011; Zhao *et al.*, 2016) showed that increasing organisational commitment results in reducing resistance to organisational change. Moreover, the preceding discussion has confirmed the relationship between LMX and resistance.

Organisational commitment has been found to play a mediating role between leader-member relations and other organisational factors, such as motivation to participate in training and turnover intention (Kang *et al.*, 2011), job satisfaction (Hackett and Lapierre, 2004), and organisational citizenship behavioural

(Hackett and Lapierre, 2004). However, up to the present, organisational commitment as a mediator of TL-resistance and LMX-resistance to organisational change have not been investigated, except Zhao *et al.*'s (2016) study. They found evidence that the indirect effect of the new leader's transformational leadership on employees' behavioural resistance to change through commitment to the changing organisation is stronger when the former leader's transformational leadership is lower (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). This means that transformational leadership influences employees' behavioural resistance to change, through an elevated level of commitment to the changing organisation, but not affective or cognitive resistance. Similarly, the results of Helpap and Bekmeier-Feuerhahn's (2016) study suggest that the emotional responses of employees are significantly related to change commitment, change efficacy, and expectations involving organisational change as well as reveal that employee change commitment and change efficacy are significantly related to resistance intention. Moreover, they found that emotions indirectly affect the level of intentional resistance behaviour through change commitment and efficacy.

For instance, a study conducted by Yousef (2000a) concluded that organisational commitment was a mediator of the relationships of leadership behaviour with both job satisfaction and job performance. More specifically, Yousef (2000a) suggested that those who perceived their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership behaviours were more committed to their organisations, more satisfied with their job, and their performance was high. He claimed that, to improve employees' job satisfaction and performance, it is incumbent on organisations to adopt appropriate leadership behaviour in order to improve the level of organisational commitment and in turn the levels of both job satisfaction and performance. Kang *et al.* (2011) demonstrated that leader-member exchange plays a critical role, in conjunction with perceived external prestige and an ethical organisational climate, in influencing training motivation and turnover intention through organisational commitment and career commitment.

What is more, Williams and Hazer (1986) found that organisational commitment was a mediator between job satisfaction and intent to leave. Yousef (2017) found that organisational commitment plays a mediating role between various facets of job satisfaction and different dimensions of attitudes toward organisational change. Hackett and Lapierre (2004) revealed similar findings. They suggested that job satisfaction and organisational commitment

have a reciprocal relationship and are both mediators of the LMX-OCB relationship. Specifically, they found that organisational commitment partially mediated the relationship between LMX and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and also that organisational commitment mediated the relationship between LMX and OCB through job satisfaction. Recently, Giauque (2015) found evidence that work relationships with supervisors, employee voice and participation, and information/communication with positive attitude toward organisational change is partially mediated by organisational commitment. Appelbaum *et al.* (2015) indicate that leaders can indirectly affect their followers' commitment and significantly reduce resistance to change by adopting the style appropriate to the organisational environment. However, very little is known about the mediating role of organisational commitment in the relationships between JS-ROC, LMX-ROC, and TL-ROC.

Accordingly, to answer research question 6:

To what extent does organisational commitment influence job satisfaction, LMX relationships, and transformational leadership in organisations?, it is expected that mediating relationships exist as follows:

Hypothesis 6a: Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change.

Hypothesis 6b: Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change.

Hypothesis 6c: Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change.

2.3.3.3 LMX as a Mediator

Lee (2005) found that leadership indirectly impacts organisational commitment through LMX quality; however, another study conducted by Lee (2008) did not find an effect of LMX as a mediator between leadership on innovativeness, as LMX quality did not have significant effects on followers' innovativeness. What is more, Wang and colleagues' (2005) work revealed that leader-member exchange fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and both followers' task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours. Recently, Carter *et al.* (2013) found that transformational leadership was related to employees' performance (i.e., task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours) mainly through the quality of the relationship (LMX)

developed between managers and employees. In a recent study, Gottfredson and Aguinis (2017) found that LMX is the strongest intervening mechanism between transformational leadership and follower performance. They explained this result by stating that transformational leadership behaviours are relational influence tactics that enhance followers' perceptions of the quality of relationship with their leader. In turn, these relationship quality perceptions are likely to create a sense of support and safety that allow the follower to focus on the tasks at hand and the success of those around them, and to excel in terms of performance. Thus, LMX quality, as Day and Miscenko (2016) argue, appears to strengthen the positive effect of transformational leaders on their followers.

In line with these findings, a study conducted by Martin *et al.* (2005) showed that LMX either fully or partially mediated the relationship between locus of control and some work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and work-related well-being. In addition, Hughes *et al.* (2010) found evidence to support these findings. Their study results showed that LMX fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and intentions to quit, while it partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and job search behaviours. According to Day and Miscenko (2016), this indicates that transformational leaders may influence followers by building high-quality personalized exchange relationships and by inspiring them and enhancing their attitudes to work for collective interests.

Piccolo and Colquitt (2006: 337) stated that “the occurrence of transformational behavio[u]rs in relationships with low-quality LMX could be met with resistance, because leaders may not have engaged in the more routine actions needed to foster effective working relationships”. Moreover, they emphasized the need for integrating leadership perspectives into future research and justified this by arguing that many studies in this field focus on a single theory or approach. Accordingly, both constructs, transformational leadership and high-quality LMX relationships, might be conducive to reduce employees' resistance to organisational change.

Furthermore, many leadership scholars (e.g., Gerstner and Day, 1997; Krishnan, 2004; Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2005) have repeatedly called for an integration of LMX literature with other theories, TL theory in particular. Anand *et al.* (2011), for example, argue that LMX is congruent with TL theory due to they are rooted in the social exchange process. This argument supports Basu and Green's (1997) suggestion that given the growing controversy on the

relationship between transformational leadership and leader-member exchange, examining the two theories simultaneously is not only interesting but also necessary. Also, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999: 680) suggested that linking the two perspectives may lead to “provide a reasonable explanation for what is happening inside the “black box” between observed leader behavio[u]rs and measured follower outcomes... leader behavio[u]rs may provide an explanation regarding how the leader actually establishes and develops differing qualities of relationships with different followers”. In this sense, Wang *et al.* (2005) claimed that transformational leadership builds and nourishes high-quality LMX. Therefore, both constructs, transformational leadership and LMX, were integrated in this study in order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of these different leadership styles’ effects, as mentioned in the above discussion.

Future research using quality of LMX as a mediator between leaders’ behaviours and workplace outcomes was called for by Avolio *et al.* (2009), Dulebohn *et al.* (2012), and Hughes *et al.* (2010). For example, Avolio *et al.* (2009) argue that recent studies have moved beyond examining the quality of leader-member relationships in terms of antecedents and consequences and have examined this exchange relationship as a moderator and/or mediator of work-related outcomes. Although LMX has been found to mediate transformational leadership and a variety of workplace outcomes (Carter *et al.*, 2013; Howell and Hall-Merenda, 1999; Hughes *et al.*, 2010), this mediation role of LMX between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change has not been found so far. This signifies that leader-member exchange may play a facilitator role of conveying leaders’ effects on individuals’ behaviours and attitudes within the workplace, especially during organisational change programmes. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance to clarify the influence of TL in conjunction with LMX on resistance. Thus, this study aims at filling this gap by examining the role of LMX as a mediator between TL-ROC.

To answer research question 7:

To what extent does LMX influence the role of transformational leadership in organisations?, it is anticipated that a mediating relationship exists as follows:

Hypothesis 7: LMX mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change.

2.3.4 The Relationships between Demographic Factors and Resistance to Organisational Change

There is not much literature that specifically highlights the influence of demographic characteristics of managers and employees on resistance to organisational change, although these factors shape individuals' reactions and their attitudes towards the organisational environment. Similarly, Vakola *et al.* (2013) suggest that these factors have seldom been the focus of change researchers' interest, although existing findings of studies have been relatively inconsistent. The personal characteristics included in the current study were age, tenure, level of education, and level of job.

2.3.4.1 Age and Resistance to Organisational Change

Although change, as previously noted, is usually accompanied by increasing tension and anxiety among staff, in actuality reactions of individuals towards organisational change are various according to their personal characteristics. In this sense, older people, for example, are described as more calm and having a high capability to regulate their reactions towards environment surroundings them; therefore, they are less likely to worry and be tense regarding the future and interactions in the workplace compared to other age groups. Nevertheless, some evidence, in contrast to this argument, suggests that older adults are more inclined to worry due to increasing stresses and declining health (Hunta *et al.*, 2003).

From an organisational perspective, previous studies revealed that there are inconsistent findings in regard to the relationship between employees' age and resistance to organisational change (see e.g., Kunze *et al.*, 2013). Evidence can be found in literature that employees' age and their resistance to organisational change are positively correlated. For instance, Abu-Hamdieh (1994 cited in Rees and Althakhri, 2008: 125), in line with Cordery *et al.* (1993), concluded that age had a positive correlation with resistance. Similarly, Cordery *et al.* (1991) suggested that as people grow old they tend to become set in their own ways in carrying out any activity, and as such are more resistant to change. Schaubroeck *et al.* (1998), in line with previous research, noted that personality measures demonstrated substantial stability during adulthood. This means that younger employees are less likely to resist change than older employees (Iverson, 1996). A similar finding was obtained in studies conducted by García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014) and Furst and Cable (2008). For example, García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014) found that employee age is an obstacle to

accepting change. These findings support early work of Tuckman and Lorge (1953 cited in Kunze *et al.*, 2013: 744) and Rosen and Jerdee (1976). Rosen and Jerdee (1976) found that older workers are rigid in their work attitudes and more resistant to change than younger employees, while Tuckman and Lorge (1953 cited in Kunze *et al.*, 2013: 744) found that older people were less adaptable to changing environments compared to younger people.

A recent study conducted by Kunze *et al.* (2013), in line with Alsaedi (1996), however, found evidence to challenge these results. Specifically, they concluded that younger employees were more resistant to change compared with their older counterparts. Also, Oreg (2006) suggested that age was negatively correlated with affective resistance. According to this result, younger employees were more inclined to feel angry or anxious about the change compared with the older age category. On the other hand, some scholars suggested that there is no relationship between these variables (e.g., Battistelli *et al.*, 2013; Georgalis *et al.*, 2015; Iverson, 1996; Oreg, 2003). Mirvis and Hall (1996 cited in Kunze *et al.*, 2013: 744) argued that “there is no physiological and scant psychological evidence that aging is in any way related to personal adaptability and resistance to change”.

2.3.4.2 Tenure and Resistance to Organisational Change

Tenure generally refers to the length of service in organisations. Employees who, for example, remain a long time in an organisation usually get used to a certain routine and specific social relationships within work. Therefore, changing this environment forces them to adopt new ways of working and to rebuild their relationships with others. In this situation, change, from some staff point of view, is considered as a kind of challenge to their daily behaviours and their interaction patterns.

There is evidence linking tenure with the organisation to reaction to organisational change. For instance, Furst and Cable (2008) found that organisational tenure is positively correlated, yet weakly correlated, with resistance to organisational change. Similar results were reported by Van Dam *et al.* (2008), who showed that tenure was positively related to resistance to change. Broadwell (1985 cited in Iverson, 1996: 129) is consistent with these results, but in a different way. He suggested that employees are more likely to accept change if they have spent less time within an organisation. This, as explained by Broadwell, is a result of having relatively few preconceived

notions about procedures and how things are managed within the organisation, as well as having less established daily routine compared to their peers with longer tenure. Similar findings were found in a study conducted by Iverson (1996), who revealed that tenure had a direct negative impact on acceptance of organisational change.

By contrast, Alsaedi (1996) reported that increasing number of years of experience leads to decreased level of resistance to change among employees, while some researchers, such as Abu-Hamdieh (1994 cited in Rees and Althakhri, 2008: 125), Kunze *et al.*, 2013, and Georgalis *et al.* (2015), found that tenure had no association with resistance to organisational change.

2.3.4.3 Level of Education and Resistance to Organisational Change

Education usually provides individuals with many ideas and skills that make them more open, receptive to and respectful of various opinions. In this sense, Kumar and Kamalanabhan (2005) argued that employees with higher education tend to have more confidence to face uncertainties and deal effectively with any eventuality in the workplace. Similar results were reported by Iverson (1996), who showed that education had a positive impact on acceptance of organisational change.

A study conducted by Battistelli *et al.* (2013), in line with Alsaedi (1996), found evidence that supported this argument. This study suggests that educated individuals are less likely to resist change than others. Recently, McGuinness and Cronin (2016) concluded that employees' resistance to proposed changes in job conditions was lower in organisations employing educated employees.

Accordingly, it is expected that participants with higher education are better able to meet the new challenges of their job and more flexible and adaptable to a new environment (Iverson, 1996), and therefore less resistant to policies and objectives of organisations about change and organisational development. On the other hand, neither Abu-Hamdieh (1994 cited in Rees and Althakhri, 2008: 125), nor Georgalis *et al.* (2015) found a relationship between these variables.

2.3.4.4 Level of Job and Resistance to Organisational Change

Smollan (2011: 842) stated that "in contrast to some stereotypes that it is first-level employees who resist change, a number of respondents who were leading and managing change, some at senior levels, had been opposed to some aspects of change, usually for the same types of reasons as other staff". In this regard,

Oreg (2006) suggests that managers tended to exhibit increased affective and behavioural resistance in comparison to employees. He attributed this result to the ability of managers to know all details of change plans. Accordingly, managers can determine to what extent the change will affect or threaten their positions, which leads them to resist or accept the change. Additionally, Rees and Althakhri (2008) claim that the most prominent reason for resistance to organisational change in organisations in the Arab world is managers being concerned about losing their position and power.

In contrast, Alsaedi (1996) found that both senior managers and middle management were more supportive and less resistant to organisational change initiatives compared to non-managers. Similar results were found by García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014). They showed that managerial responsibility was associated with individual offering less resistance. Finally, recent research indicated that level of job shows no significant relation with resistance to organisational change (Kunze *et al.*, 2013; Georgalis *et al.*, 2015).

In the light of these findings, and to answer research question 8:

Are there relationships between demographic factors and resistance to organisational change?, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 8a: There is a positive relationship between Age of respondents and resistance to organisational change.

Hypothesis 8b: There is a positive relationship between Tenure and resistance to organisational change.

Hypothesis 8c: There is a negative relationship between Level of education and resistance to organisational change.

Hypothesis 8d: There is a positive relationship between Level of job and resistance to organisational change.

It can be discerned from this body of research that resistance to organisational change is a central issue of concern to researchers and practitioners in the field of organisational behaviour. It is also a complex phenomenon associated with a number of organisational dimensions and factors. Hence, based on theoretical considerations, a framework for this study is developed, proposing the following relationships:

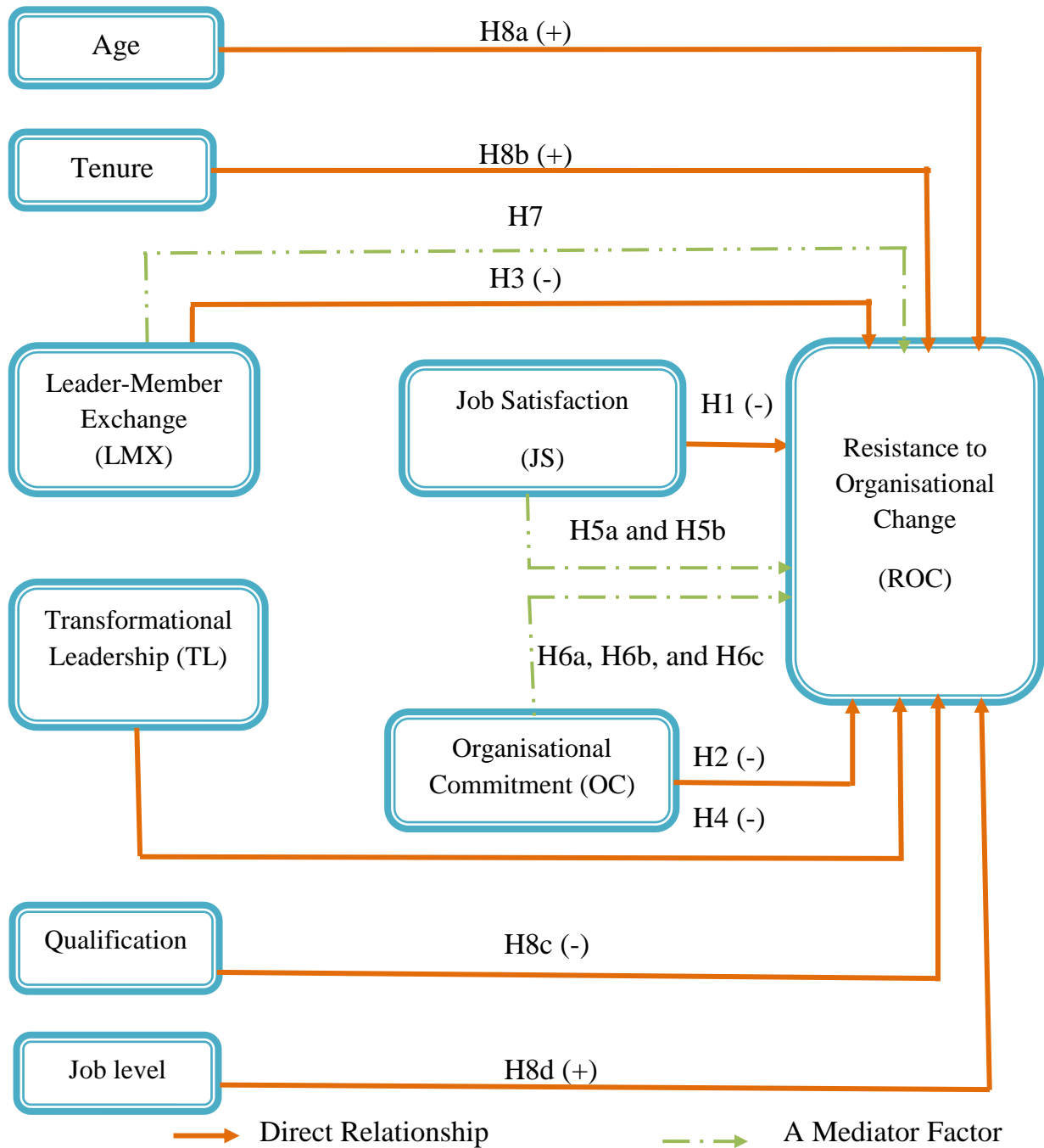
- (a) LMX influences directly job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and resistance to organisational change.
- (b) Transformational leadership directly influences job satisfaction, organisational commitment, LMX, and resistance.
- (c) Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance.
- (d) Job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediate the relationship between LMX and resistance.
- (e) Job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance.
- (f) LMX mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance;
- (g) Demographic factors impact on resistance.

Accordingly, the current study focuses on testing the model below (Figure 2.4). In other words, this study proposes a model incorporating two leadership styles, two work-attitudes, some demographic variables, and resistance to organisational change. More specifically, the model was constructed based on the idea that since transformational leaders and high-quality LMX provide supervisory support and positive working conditions (causal variables), followers tend to be more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their organisations (mediator variables), and are less inclined to resist organisational change (outcome variable).

Examining the role of antecedents of resistance to organisational change, as previously mentioned, may lead to understanding this phenomenon and enable a clear picture of the factors affecting it to be formed. Moreover, focusing on this direction of relationships could help introduce into the literature a new perspective on leadership styles' and work-attitudes' role within organisational change situations, as well as may provide an explanation of to what extent these factors drive employees toward resistance to change in modern organisations. Specifically, in light of recent studies focusing on the positive consequences of high-quality LMX and neglecting the negative aspects of relationships (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2012), investigation of negative consequences of low LMX, which is one of the current study's concerns, would provide managers with a more complete picture of the potential influences that their interaction styles can have on subordinates (Townsend *et al.*, 2000). In addition, an examination of the influences of work-attitudes within organisational change situations can provide

insight into how these attitudes can influence the cognitions, emotions, and behaviours of individuals toward change. This undoubtedly reinforces the importance of studying negative aspects of human interactions within organisations, especially during organisational change situation, along with the importance of examining their positive aspects.

Figure 2.4: The Theoretical Framework of the Study



The following paragraphs will provide the justifications for choosing the theoretical model of the current study, instead of other models that exist in the literature.

Generally, the existing models in the literature have addressed some factors affecting resistance to organisational change but they have not studied the relationship between resistance and its antecedents as proposed by the model studied in this study. For example, Dulebohn *et al.*'s (2012) model of LMX quality demonstrated that LMX is a mediator of the relationships between antecedents, including transformational leadership, and consequences, including organisational commitment and job satisfaction, experienced by followers. However, this model did not include resistance to organisational change as a consequence of these organisational factors and was limited to followers' experience, while the current study added the resistance variable and included both parties LMX relationships, leaders and followers. Therefore, the current study offers insight into the negative impact of low-quality LMX may have on resistance to change and on the success of organisational change initiatives.

Other models examined the effect of a number of the organisational factors selected in this study on resistance to organisational change. These models, however, are characterized by their simplicity and lack of depth in investigating the relationship between these factors and the resistance, as they focused on testing the impact of transformational leadership (Oreg and Berson, 2011), job satisfaction (Oreg 2011), organisational commitment (McKay *et al.*, 2013; Peccei *et al.*, 2011), or LMX (Georgalis *et al.*, 2015) on resistance, separately, but did not include all these factors in one model, as is done by this study, so provide an incomplete picture.

Even more, there is an ongoing debate about the direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, on one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand. While some models considered these two work-attitudes as consequences of resistance, others treated them as antecedents of resistance. Since the phenomenon of resistance to organisational change is the main concern of the current study and the aim is to investigate how organisational factors influence resistance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment were investigated as antecedents of resistance. Considering these two work-attitudes as antecedents of resistance, as followed in the present study, can help organisations to understand employees' behaviours and attitudes toward change and to what extent they are willing to

support the change or resist it. Furthermore, the implication of this direction of relationship is that resistance can be mitigated by paying attention to job satisfaction and organisational commitment as part of planned change efforts, and indeed by creating a conducive work environment even before a change takes place.

In view of these considerations, alternative models to the present study model, in fact, do not meet the objectives of this study and do not answer its questions. The relationships found in the previous studies might have been affected by other factors that were not investigated. Thus, including new variables, such as resistance to organisational change, might help to address this problem. Moreover, investigating resistance to organisational change as a possible consequence of the organisational factors chosen in this study can perhaps help to clarify this phenomenon and provide a more accurate picture of the relationships between resistance and its antecedents.

2.4 Summary

This chapter was divided into two sections. In the first section, the literature related to resistance to organisational change, leader-member exchange theory, and transformational leadership theory was discussed. The discussion has emphasized that the phenomenon of resistance to organisational change needs to be conceptualised as a multidimensional concept rather than a one-dimensional concept. Based on the literature, this method contributes to expanding and providing a comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon; therefore, it was adopted in this study. Moreover, various reasons for resistance were explained. This section also did not ignore the positive side of resistance and strategies that should be followed to deal with this phenomenon.

Furthermore, this section carefully highlighted the influential role of leadership in modern organisations, especially in managing change. More specifically, two leadership theories, LMX and TL, were discussed in terms of their historical background and an overview of each theory was provided, while the main strengths and conceptual and operational limitations of each theory were highlighted separately. Accordingly, this section provides the main part of the theoretical background of the current study.

On the other hand, the second section has presented the stages of identifying the gaps in knowledge, developing hypotheses, and building the theoretical or conceptual framework of the study. Throughout this section, an emphasis was

placed on reviewing the interrelationships between the dependent variable, resistance to organisational change, independent variables, LMX and transformational leadership, and the expected mediator variables, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This process was based on the findings of previous empirical studies and in the light of the questions and objectives of the current study. Therefore, the framework of the study was designed to examine the role of two leadership styles with job satisfaction and organisational commitment in shaping employees' attitudes and their behaviours during organisational change, in particular their resistance to such change. The next chapter discusses the research methodology.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Figure 3.1: Following the Research Stages

Number of Chapter	Title of Chapter	Page
Chapter One	Background of the Study	1
Chapter Two	Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	9
Chapter Three	Methodology	87
Chapter Four	Questionnaire Development	113
Chapter Five	Data Description and Treatment	137
Chapter Six	Data Analysis and Findings	157
Chapter Seven	Discussion and Conclusion	192

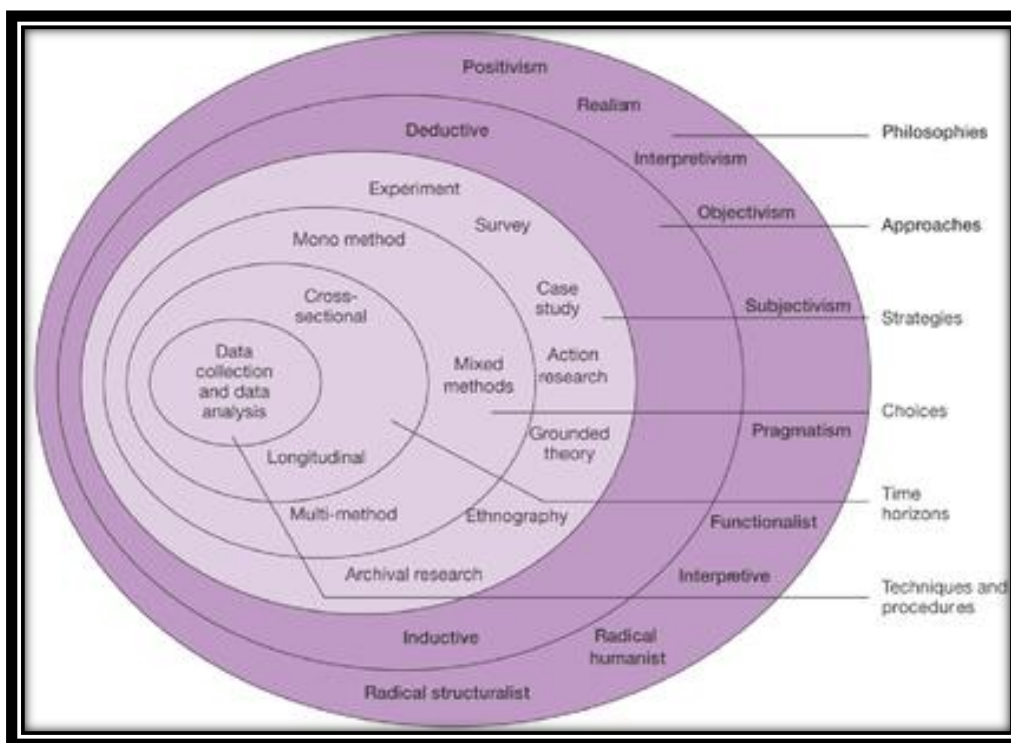
3.1 Introduction

Methodology is considered as a central point in any study due to its being a link between the theoretical aspect of the study and its empirical side. Based on this importance, the methodology chapter, as well as the later chapters, will discuss how the empirical part of this study was developed and implemented. The overarching focus of this chapter is to explain the processes of designing and selecting appropriate research methods to examine the research framework. More specifically, this chapter is concerned with determining the appropriate paradigm for conducting this particular study, the philosophical approach that underpins this research, the research approach and method adopted, the context of the study, and the data collection strategy and analysis methods selected in this study. Ethical considerations will also be addressed.

3.2 Methodology of the Study

Methodology, as Collis and Hussey (2003: 55) stated, is “the overall approach to the research process, from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of the data”. Therefore, it is considered a road map aiming to achieve the objectives of the study effectively. To illustrate various aspects of the current study methodology, this study adopts Saunders *et al.*'s model (2009) (see Figure 3.2, the onion research-process model) as a guide.

Figure 3.2: The Research Process Onion



Adapted from Saunders *et al.* (2009: 138).

The following subsections will shed light on the methodology of the current study, which focuses mainly on clarifying how the study was conducted, then how data were collected and analysed.

3.2.1 Research Philosophy and Paradigm

Speaking generally, to build or design a research, researchers should take into account some philosophical issues, particularly epistemology and ontology, which are considered as pillars for any research. Krauss (2005) emphasized that the philosophical perspective and theoretical paradigm of a researcher about the nature of reality are pivotal elements to understanding the overall perspective of the study design and how is carried out.

Collis and Hussey (2009) indicate that the epistemological assumption is concerned with what we accept as valid knowledge, while Matthews and Ross (2010) believe that it is the theory of knowledge and how we know things. On the other hand, ontology, according to Saunders *et al.* (2009), is concerned with the nature of reality and the way the world operates. A researcher may take the position that the world is objective and social entities exist in the external reality and are beyond our research or influence (objectivism) or may believe the world

is highly subjective and social phenomena are understood and interpreted through people's perceptions and experiences (constructionism) (see e.g., Bryman, 2012; Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Collis and Hussey (2003) describe a research paradigm as the scientific practice based on investigators' philosophies and their assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge. There are two main research paradigms, the positivist paradigm and interpretive or phenomenological paradigm. The positivist paradigm holds that social phenomena can be observed, measured, and understood similarly to those studied by the physical and natural scientists (Robson, 2011). Similarly, Clarke (2001) argued that this paradigm is based on an idea that an external world exists independently of human perception and is measurable quantitatively. Followers of this paradigm claim that the main objective of research is to develop valid and reliable ways of gathering facts that reflect the nature of the society being studied, which are then analysed statistically to produce explanations of how this social world operates (Clarke, 2001).

In contrast, the interpretive or phenomenological paradigm holds that the social world is complex and it cannot be understood through the laws of the natural sciences. According to social scientists, natural science methods are inadequate, at best, for revealing and understanding the social reality (Lee, 1991). The interpretive paradigm claims that social phenomena are saturated with meanings, which can be gained by experience and researchers must engage with the social context of the phenomena being studied then interpret them accordingly.

To summarise, while interpretivists believe that researchers can gain more valid knowledge if they are more engaged with the researched, positivists believe that the more independent the researcher is, the greater the validity of the knowledge they will obtain. Finally, Lee (1991) asserted that although these paradigms, positivist and interpretive, appear opposed, they are mutually supportive and not mutually exclusive.

In this study, it is assumed that the phenomenon of resistance to organisational change exists, is observable, can be measured, and has implications on individuals' behaviours and attitudes towards the work environment. Likewise, leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, as well as the other organisational phenomena being studied in this study, can be observed and

measured by behavioural surveys (Mumford *et al.*, 2009). In this sense, Bryman (2011), in line with Antonakis *et al.*'s (2004) argument, indicates that the vast majority of research that is conducted in the leadership field is quantitative in nature, particularly using the self-administered or self-completion questionnaire.

Furthermore, there are numerous measurements that have been developed to define these phenomena and determine their manifestations and implications. Thus, the research paradigm used in the present study is based solely on positivistic principles. This position leads to greater impartiality and objectivity throughout the study (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Table 3.1 summarizes the main assumptions of the positivism paradigm followed in this study.

Table 3.1: The Study Paradigm's Assumptions

Assumption	Focuses on	Positivist paradigm
Ontology	The researcher's view of the nature of reality or being.	External, objective and independent of social actors.
Epistemology	The researcher's view regarding what constitutes acceptable knowledge.	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law-like generalisations reducing phenomena to simplest elements.
Axiology	The researcher's view of the role of values in research.	Research is undertaken in a value-free way; the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance.
Data collection	Techniques most often used.	Highly structured, large sample, measurement, quantitative, but can use qualitative.

Source: Saunders *et al.* (2009: 119).

3.2.2 Research Approach

There are two fundamentally different approaches that can be used for conducting a research. These approaches are inductive and deductive. The inductive approach usually aims to construct or compose a theory after collecting and analysing data and drawing conclusions. More specifically, inductive research often starts from finding a single case and observing a relationship, then attempts to discover the relationship between several more cases and eventually constructs a general theory covering all cases (Gilbert, 2008).

Conversely, deductive research normally starts by adopting a specific theory and using it to explain particular observations (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Gilbert,

2008). In other words, the deductive approach focuses on adopting an existing theory, formulating hypotheses and designing the research in the light of them, collecting and analysing data, then testing or verifying the theory by examining the hypotheses (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). In brief, while induction is the technique for generating theories and is often linked to qualitative research, deduction, on the other hand, is the technique for testing theories and is often linked to surveys or quantitative studies (Gilbert, 2008). More importantly, regardless of the method chosen for the study, it is important that it is related to the aims of the study and suitable to achieve them (Oliver, 2008).

As mentioned previously in section 3.2.1, this study adopted the positivist paradigm, which builds on existing theories and collects and analyses data quantitatively. Thus, adopting a deductive approach in this study is appropriate. Specifically, the present study adopts a deductive approach, testing theories through empirical investigation to explain the relationship between resistance to organisational change and its antecedents and to ensure the validity of data.

A substantial body of theory already exists in the literature, regarding the subject of resistance to change; the associate concepts have been clearly defined and extensively discussed, along with relationships between them. Thus, the aim of this study was not to develop a new theory, so much as to test existing theory in a new context, and to expand and refine it by examining different combinations of variables, assuming regular, observable patterns of association. For this purpose, a deductive approach was appropriate.

3.2.3 Research Method

The two fundamental methods traditionally used by social researchers are qualitative and quantitative (Robson, 2011). These two methods differ mainly in terms of the role of theory, epistemological issues, and ontological concerns about the nature of social reality (Bryman, 2012; Clarke, 2001). The quantitative method often adopts a positivist paradigm, while the qualitative method is based on the interpretive or phenomenological paradigm (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Thus, the heart of the quantitative-qualitative debate, as Krauss (2005) suggested, is philosophical and not methodological.

Briefly, Collis and Hussey (2003) as well as Clarke (2001) argue that quantitative investigation is more objective in nature and concentrates mainly on measuring phenomena via collecting numerical data and analysing them by using statistical tests. In contrast, qualitative method is more subjective in

nature and focuses on examining and reflecting on perceptions in order to gain deep understanding of social phenomena by collecting and analysing non-numerical data. In addition to many attributes, reliability is the most prominent result of quantitative method, whilst qualitative findings have a high degree of validity. Collis and Hussey (2009: 143) defined reliability as “the absence of differences in the results if the research were repeated” and validity as “the extent to which the research findings accurately reflect the phenomena under study”.

Matthews and Ross (2010) suggested that the choice of method, whether quantitative or qualitative, depends on the type of data that enable researchers to test hypotheses and answer research questions. Accordingly, and in line with previous sections in this chapter, the method adopted in this research is quantitative, because it aligns with the philosophical foundations of the researcher (positivist), it fits with the form and substance of the research questions and efficiently answers them, and it attains greater objectivity and neutrality in collecting and analysing data. More specifically, adopting a quantitative method is specific to this work because there is no ambiguity about the concepts or phenomena being measured, since they exist in the literature and instruments have been developed for measuring them, which have high validity and reliability. Consequently, the current study does not try to explore but to examine and explain the relationships between the factors selected, which can be done effectively through this method.

In addition to these justifications, quantitative methodology enables a researcher to predict to what extent independent variables impact dependent variables, in other words, to evaluate the relative combination of different factors. This means that this method enhances the ability of the researcher to determine to what extent supervisor-subordinate relationships, for example, can contribute to increase or decrease resistance to organisational change, as a basis to inform future policies and practices. Another consideration is that, since this study seeks to identify the views of a very large number of people and then generalise the results to the research population, it is appropriate to employ a quantitative methodology (McDaniel and Gates, 1999). As a last point, it can be noted that quantitative methods have been widely used by previous researchers; following a similar approach, including scales and measures used in other studies, facilitates comparison between this study and others, enabling the present study and its findings to be studied within the body of related research.

3.2.4 Types and Levels of Investigation

There are three main types of research, namely, exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory (see e.g., Robson, 2011; Yin, 2009 among others). Choosing the type of study often depends on the research questions, the research objectives, and its hypotheses (Matthews and Ross, 2010; Yin, 2009). However, Robson (2011) argues that the nature and purpose of research can lead the researcher to adopt more than one of the types of investigation previously mentioned.

Although it rarely provides conclusive answers to research questions, exploratory research seeks to understand a situation or a problem whose nature is unknown precisely and needs more clarification (Collis and Hussey, 2003). A descriptive investigation aims to describe phenomena as they exist and it is used to identify and obtain information on the characteristics of a particular issue, while explanatory research goes beyond these characteristics to analysing and explaining the causal relationship between variables (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Other researchers divided types of investigation, according to time, into two main types: cross-sectional studies and longitudinal studies. Generally, cross-sectional studies are mostly conducted after the event the researcher is interested in or at a particular point in time, as a “snapshot” (Matthews and Ross, 2010). They are usually designed to obtain data from different contexts to ascertain similarities and differences, but the data are collected simultaneously (Collis and Hussey, 2009). However, in order to achieve variation between cases, researchers should collect quantifiable data (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, these studies are often associated with large-scale surveys using questionnaires as a method of data collection (Bryman, 2012; Matthews and Ross, 2010).

On the contrary, the main aim of longitudinal studies is to highlight magnitude of change and development in a particular phenomenon continuously over a long period of time. Unsurprisingly, this type of study is very time consuming and expensive to conduct (Collis and Hussey, 2009), so it is relatively little-used in social studies (Bryman, 2012). The small sample size in these studies enables achievement of more significant results compared to the cross-sectional type (Collis and Hussey, 2009).

This study was explanatory and cross-sectional. The underlying reasons for choosing these types of research can be justified as follows. Firstly, this study establishes causal relationships among four organisational factors mentioned

previously in order to deepen understanding of the phenomenon of resistance and to identify the role of these organisational factors in limiting or exacerbating this phenomenon. Based on Yin (2009), the explanatory type of investigation is appropriate for this particular study. Secondly, since the current study is restricted by a specific time and limited resources and bearing in mind what Collis and Hussey (2009) and Saunders *et al.* (2009) suggest about longitudinal studies, that these types are unlikely to be appropriate for research students as they require involvement for a number of years, a cross-sectional design is more suitable to this study.

3.3 Strategy Selected for Data Collection

Data collection strategies vary according to which method a research adopts. Survey and interviews are considered common data collection strategies (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Since this study adopted a quantitative method, survey, a questionnaire in particular, was used as the strategy for data collection. Questionnaires can come in several different forms, namely, self-administered questionnaire, email survey, web-based survey, or postal.

In this study, a self-completion technique was adopted, whereby the researcher handed out questionnaires to participants and they read and answered questions by completing the questionnaires themselves, questionnaires were neither sent out nor returned through the postal system (Bryman, 2012). Here are some reasons for employing this technique:

- The nature of this study and its concerns with the motives of individuals and their attitudes towards organisational change may make it easier for managers and employees in the organisations being studied to respond to a questionnaire. Such a technique enables participants to respond in a more honest way (Anderson, 2009). In other words, the absence of the researcher removes the risk of the researcher's effects on respondents when answering the questionnaires (Bryman, 2011). In contrast, conducting interviews, for example, may cause them more embarrassment in terms of the possibility of disclosure of their identity as opponents of the current administration or resisters of change. This view is substantially consistent with some previous studies, such as Bovey and Hede (2001b), Oreg (2003, 2006), and Szabla (2007) who used questionnaires as a tool of data collection.

- This technique is an easy-to-follow design, which minimizes the risk that respondents will fail to follow filter questions or will inadvertently omit a question (Bryman, 2012). In this regard, Bryman (2011) argue that respondents tend to be familiar with the instrument, so they do not require familiarization to use it.
- Adopting this technique increases the researcher's confidence about the results and conclusion, due to the clear and rigorous steps of the research. Moreover, the validity and reliability standards employed by this technique provide more accuracy and a significant degree of credibility of its results (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).
- More importantly, it could be argued that adoption of this technique considerably neutralizes the researcher's role in collection and analysis of data and prevents the investigator's views and personal perceptions from influencing findings, compared to other techniques. In this connection, Clarke (2001) claimed that this technique leads to limiting the extent of the researcher's influence on the researched; therefore, it serves to safeguard against bias.

The development and content of the instruments used in this study will be explained in Chapter Four.

3.4 The Research Context

This study was carried out in Saudi Arabia, which currently offers a rich context for the investigation of organisational change. In introducing this context, this section will be divided into three subsections. In the first, the rationale for reform policy and organisational change in Saudi Arabia will be discussed. The second will review available studies that have discussed issues related to organisational change in the Saudi context. In the last subsection, stages of organisational change in the Saudi organisations in where this study was conducted are then explained.

3.4.1 Rationale for Reform Policy in Saudi Arabia

Al-Mutairi (1996) argued that, in general, the public sector in developing countries suffers from hidden unemployment and dominance of routine and bureaucratic procedures. These characteristics are due to many organisational problems such as centralization of decisions, multiplicity and divergence of administrative units, overlapping of powers and duplication of responsibilities between these units. It seems that these organisational problems have more

effects on the overall performance of public organisations, especially those that deliver services to the public. Therefore, many developing countries have resorted to administrative reform and development programmes as a method for solving these problems.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is one of the main oil-producing countries and has a high stock of it; therefore, it has received huge oil revenues, which have contributed to make it grow significantly in all areas. During recent decades the Saudi government has shown interest in infrastructure, reliance on modern technology and continuous development in all sectors, which has been reflected in steady growth and constant change in all aspects of public life.

Nevertheless, Al-Shakawy (2012) suggests that the need for improving public sector performance is more pressing nowadays, and it will be even more so in the future, due to the economic and social changes that societies, including that of Saudi Arabia, are experiencing today. He warned that the performance of most Saudi government organisations is still far behind what is expected of them. Similarly, work by Alyagout and Siti-Nabiha (2013) suggests that the Saudi government bureaucracy is slow in its actions and inefficient in its performance, while the private sector is managed more efficiently.

Al-Shakawy (2012) is in line with Al-Harhi (2005) and Al-Mutairi (1996), who attributed the failure of government organisations to perform their desired role to many financial, political, administrative, and organisational problems and challenges. Al-Shakawy (2012) extensively reviewed these problems and challenges in the reform and development of government sector performance in the Kingdom. The most salient of them are as follows:

- 1) The failure to define clearly and accurately the main goals and tasks of many government organisations. This means, in turn, inappropriateness of many organisational structures of these organisations to achieve their objectives and policies.
- 2) Some government organisations suffer from duplication, overlapping, conflict, and contradiction of responsibilities and jurisdiction among some of their departments, which ultimately results in poor efficiency and ineffectiveness of numerous services provided in these organisations.
- 3) Slowness and delays in providing required services, due to the excessive reliance on long and complicated procedures.

- 4) Some government organisations suffer from outdated and overlapping laws and regulations.
- 5) The absence of quantitative evaluation standards that can be relied on in measuring performance.
- 6) The lack of respect, on the part of many employees, for time, and indifference, laxity, and a poor sense of responsibility towards others.
- 7) Prevalence of some negative organisational phenomena such as favouritism and nepotism in delivery of services as a result of negative influences of the socio-cultural environment.
- 8) At many levels of these organisations, information systems and the informational education of many employees are inadequate.
- 9) The weak allegiance and sense of belonging to the job and the organisation among many employees.
- 10) Prevalence of a phenomenon of resistance to change in many government organisations, which is particularly salient in middle or supervisory administrative leadership, or executive leadership.

Additionally, Achoui (2009) suggested that the Saudi government had prepared a long-term 'vision' for developing its economy and human resources till 2020. The strategies of the Saudi government's 'vision' were organized along five distinct themes:

- (1) Economic diversification;
- (2) Development of human resources;
- (3) Expansion of public services needed to support these objectives;
- (4) Promoting the expansion of the private sector as a key partner in the implementation of Vision 2020;
- (5) Streamlining and modernizing the governance structures of the public sector to meet the challenges of implementation.

Furthermore, Akoum (2009) and Ramady and Saeed (2007) attributed the Saudi reform policy to economic reasons. For example, Akoum (2009) suggests that the Kingdom's accession to the World Trade Organization (WTO) required economic reform and further liberalization of economic and business activity. This economic reform, as Akoum (2009) argues, has gained solid ground in light of the kingdom's joining the WTO in December 2005. Ramady and Saeed

(2007), meanwhile claim that to achieve its reform policy, the Kingdom followed three approaches, which involved joining WTO, privatising of core government services, and encouraging Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), including establishing a Foreign Investment Law (FIL).

Accordingly, the impact of joining the WTO was not limited to restructuring the economy and modernizing its policies, but it has caused many Saudi governmental organisations to change and develop their structures, objectives, strategies to keep up with the competition from all around the world. Even more, it has caused the Saudi government to improve its regulations and laws to be more flexible for foreign businesses investments. Regardless of the real reasons behind these organisational changes by the Saudi government, many Saudi government organisations have begun to adopt several models of organisational change in order to keep up with these constant changes and with desire to correct their path towards achieving their aims.

3.4.2 Main Issues Related to Organisational Change in Saudi Arabia

As mentioned earlier, there is a lack of studies on organisational change in the Saudi context. However, the following paragraphs will depend on the available references in this area. In order to address issues related to organisational change in the Saudi context, several researchers (e.g. Achoui, 2009; Alhazemi *et al.*, 2013; Alhudathi and Almutari, 2013; Alshamasi, 2012) have noted two fundamental points linked to the objectives of the current study. These points are resistance to organisational change and lack of leadership competence in managing organisational change in the public sector.

For example, Achoui (2009) argues that, in addition to other challenges, one of the most neglected issues in the Saudi government's strategies and plans is how to bring about serious social change and development in all domains from a holistic perspective that integrates macro and micro aspects and dimensions; economic, cultural and educational systems; and organisational and individual behaviour. This suggests that programmes of organisational change in Saudi organisations should take into account many issues, perhaps the most prominent of which touches or deals with organisational behaviour, and the reactions of individuals to change in particular. Moreover, the success of any plans for organisational change is the responsibility of leaders, as they should have the ability to manage change effectively, as well as the capability to achieve their organisations' goals.

Moreover, to explore the reality of leading change in Saudi government agencies, Alhudathi and Almutari (2013) concluded that the main challenge the government faced was the lack of leaders' ability in leading change. Specifically, they emphasized that transformational leadership behaviour in some public institutions is low and the effectiveness of leaders is insufficient to make the change efforts succeed and continue. They stressed that there have been a number of constraints that prevent leaders from exercising their roles in implementing change efficiently, such as employees' resistance to organisational change, the inertia of rules and regulations in government agencies, and lack of leaders' effectiveness in leading change.

These findings were supported by Alhazemi *et al.*'s (2013) study. They identified various barriers to effective implementation of strategic change in King Abdul Aziz University in Saudi Arabia, such as adherence to the status quo by some groups within the Saudi society, the antagonism of some actors towards standard human resource processes, and signs of the inflexibility of management and leadership. Additionally, they found the respondents acknowledged the existence of resistance to change within the case-study organisation. The respondents reported that this resistance manifested itself in different ways, for example, strict adherence to very old Arab traditions, an unwillingness to adopt modern work systems, continued and excessive dependence of state universities upon the ministry for their funding and other resources, and the lack of willingness on the part of the senior management to pay heed to the suggestions and preferences of the operational staff. In the same context, Alshamasi's (2012) study revealed notable roles played by LMX in predicting employees' proactive behaviour and willingness to accept occupational change. Specifically, the study found that LMX quality played a role as a full mediator between leaders' paternalism and employees' occupational self-efficacy and between leaders' empowering behaviour and employees' personal initiative and resistance to occupational change.

3.4.3 Stages of Organisational Change in Some Saudi Organisations

This study was carried out in three Saudi organisation, known to be undergoing programmes of organisational change. This section aims to shed light briefly on organisational change experiences in the selected organisations. These organisations are Saudi Arabia Airlines (SAUDIA), Saudi Railways Organization (SRO), and Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC) (see more details about the reasons for choosing these organisations in section 3.5).

3.4.3.1 Saudi Arabia Airlines (SAUDIA)

Saudi Arabian Airlines (SAUDIA), founded in 1945, is the Saudi government organisation for air transportation, domestically and internationally. SAUDIA launched an organisational change project in the early 2000's. The executive timetable of this project included four stages, which were: selecting consultants, preparing feasibility studies, the comprehensive restructuring of the strategic units, and privatising the Holding Company (SAUDIA, 2008a).

According to SAUDIA (2013), the SAUDIA programme was aimed at achieving the following objectives:

- Transfer of non-core sectors of SAUDIA to companies owned by the Corporation (Holding Company) and completion of their privatisation procedures by participation of investors;
- Comprehensive restructuring of SAUDIA, which includes restructuring of financial, organisational, operational, legal and human resources;
- Restructuring the aviation sector and transforming it into a company operating on a commercial basis and competing with global companies.

Up to the mid-2016, SAUDIA had finished privatising four different sectors, represented in the following companies: Saudi Airlines Catering Company (SAUDIA Catering) established in 2008, Saudi Airlines Cargo Company (SAUDIA Cargo) established in 2008, Saudi Ground Services Company (SGS) established in 2008, and Saudi Aerospace Engineering Industries Company (SAEI) established in 2013. Work is underway to complete the requirements of privatising Prince Sultan Aviation Academy, Saudi Private Airline, the Property Development Company, and the Medical Services Company. The main roles of the Holding Company are to manage and monitor the operations of these companies (SAUDIA, 2013).

In preparation for implementing the privatisation programme and based on the recommendation of consultants of this programme to reduce the surplus of workforce in SAUDIA, SAUDIA implemented a programme to encourage staff who wish to leave their job voluntarily through early retirement or the so-called Golden Cheque. This led to the layoff of roughly 3100 employees (SAUDIA, 2008b). In 2011, the Public Relations manager in SAUDIA stated that the Golden Cheque policy has resulted in 5,000 employees leaving their jobs and the programme requires laying off another 5,000 employees (Al-Madina News Paper, 2011). Indeed, this indicates the cutting of a significant number of

competencies, in addition to the social and psychological implications for retained staff.

However, the policy of laying off some employees has received many criticisms, which point to emergence of some negative consequences in the workplace. For example, Al-Saleh (2008) argued that many employees felt frustrated, were marginalized, and felt a lack of transparency about their future career, which led to a decrease in their loyalty and performance. Even more, this clearly led to leaking or migrating of many administrative and technical competencies to competitors in the local airline industry (Al-Saleh, 2008).

3.4.3.2 Saudi Railways Organization (SRO)

According to SRO (2014), the emergence of the railways in Saudi Arabia dates to the official inauguration of the first railway, from Riyadh to Dammam, on 20th of October 1951. On the 13th of May 1966, the Saudi Railways Organization, headquartered in Dammam, was established as a public corporation having full legal status. A Board of Directors was appointed to lead the organisation on commercial principles, formulate SRO's general policies, and supervise the implementation of these policies (SRO, 2005).

The government adopted a very ambitious programme to develop and expand railway services in the Kingdom. There is a strategic plan for the expansion of rail services (2010-2040) and transferring the responsibilities and functions of SRO to three companies, which will be responsible for construction, development, operation, and maintenance of the railway (SRO, 2014). These companies are Land Bridge Company, Haramain High Speed Rail, and Saudi Railways Company (North-South rail line). Moreover, the strategic plan took into account establishment of future expansion projects for areas of southern Saudi Arabia (the Southern lines project) and the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). Recently, SRO entered into a contract with an engineering consultancy firm to conduct a feasibility study on establishing railways in the southern region (SRO, 2014).

Regarding the human resources situation after finishing the SRO programme, SRO (2014) asserts that SRO, with other government bodies, has developed an appropriate mechanism for dealing with the status of the SRO's staff after the transfer of the existing SRO along with its assets. The government established the Saudi Arabia Rail Regulatory Commission (SARRC) as an independent commission to supervise the railway transport sector and the transfer of the

existing railway network, which is currently operated by SRO and the transfer of the staff of the SRO to the successful investor, according to the procedures proposed. Notably, however, as Al-Badi (2009) claims, although this programme started in 2002, there are no dates or detailed plans for this programme and all information presented here is based on the limited available data.

3.4.3.3 Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC)

The Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC) is a Saudi Government Corporation established in 1974 and responsible for the desalination of seawater to produce electric power and supply various regions in the Kingdom with desalinated water (SWCC, 2015). The organisational programme in this organisation is based on four main stages, as follows (SWCC, 2010, 2015):

- First Stage: preparation steps and conducting a feasibility study and associated studies. This stage was launched in 2005. Since restructuring this large corporation is a sensitive process, contracts were entered into with four houses of consulting expertise in the privatisation, financial, technical, and legal fields;
- Second Stage: obtaining official approvals of the Supreme Economic Council and the Council of Ministers. The decision to privatise SWCC was approved on 3rd July 2008;
- Third Stage: implementation of the privatisation programme and restructuring of the organisation. Since 2009 so far, the SWCC privatisation supervisory committee and work teams have worked with change and restructuring consultants;
- Fourth Stage: establishment of the Holding Company and the announcement of its future projects. This company is entirely owned by the government and owns a number of production business units from the current and suggested industrial plants of SWCC.

Following this introduction to the selected organisations, in the next section, the target population will be defined and the strategy employed for selecting respondents will be explained.

3.5 Population and Sampling Strategy

Selecting a sample is considered a fundamental element of a study (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Robson, 2011). According to many scholars, traditional sampling strategies can be divided into two strategies: probability or representative

sampling and non-probability sampling (see e.g., Bryman, 2012; Hair *et al.*, 2007; Saunders *et al.*, 2009 among others). Probability sampling is based on the principle that the chance of each of the target population being selected is known and all have randomly the same possibility of being chosen in a sample (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Successful application of this technique minimizes selection bias, ensures representativeness of the sample, and hence increases the external validity or generalizability of the survey (Hair *et al.*, 2007). Such a strategy requires a complete a list of all members of the population (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). The most commonly employed methods of this type of sampling are simple random sampling, systematic sampling, cluster sampling, and stratified sampling.

In contrast, in non-probability sampling, the probability of any respondent of the population being chosen for inclusion in the sample is not known (Hair *et al.*, 2007; Robson, 2011). This suggests that some members of the population are more likely to be chosen than others (Bryman, 2012). Thus, this strategy is based on the experience of the researchers and their judgment of what they want, but not based on chance (Hair *et al.*, 2007). However, as suggested by Saunders *et al.* (2009), it is possible to generalise from non-probability samples, but not on statistical grounds. Robson (2011: 274) states that “they [non-probability samples] tend to be used in situations where carrying out a probability sample would not be feasible, where for example there is no sampling frame, or resources required are not available”. This strategy of sampling takes many forms, such as purposive sample, quota sampling, and snowball sampling.

It has been suggested by some researchers (see e.g. Bryman, 2012; Hair *et al.*, 2007, Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Thietart *et al.*, 2001) that selection of the sampling strategy, either probability sampling or non-probability sampling, depends on some considerations such as the nature of the study, its objectives, and the time and budget available for the researcher. However, Bryman (2012) suggest that quite a lot of research is based on non-probability sampling. Thietart *et al.* (2001) argue that non-probability samples, or judgement samples, as they called, are much more common in management studies than probability samples. Similarly, Saunders *et al.* (2009) indicate that probability sampling in business and management research may be not possible due to lack of a sampling frame, or the research questions, objectives, and choice of research

strategy may dictate the use of non-probability sampling. Therefore, in this situation, non-probability sampling could be an alternative technique.

This study employed purposive sampling and the next paragraphs explain the justifications for this selection. It was very hard to obtain a sample frame or list containing details of managers and employees (such as name, phone number, email, and department) of Saudi organisations being studied, these organisations provided the researcher with official letters that confirmed the population number, without any other details (see Appendix A, B, and C).

Basically, this method depends on or is confined to selection of specific participants. Those individuals are selected “either because they are only ones who have it[purposive sampling], or conform to some criteria set by the researcher” (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010: 276). This means that they are chosen according to the researcher’s judgment that they represent the population, but they are not necessarily representative (Hair *et al.*, 2007). Essentially, this sample involves individuals who have key information or ability to give accurate answers for the research questions more than others. In other words, they have experience and perspectives considered important to the investigation (Anderson, 2009).

The participants belonged to three different organisations located in three different cities in Saudi Arabia, namely, Saudi Arabian Airlines (SAUDIA) in Jeddah, Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC) in Riyadh, and Saudi Railways Organization (SRO) in Dammam. All participants were male. The reason for non-participation of women in this study was that SWCC and SRO do not have any women working in them, while there are very few women working in SAUDIA. Therefore, to achieve consistency in selection of the sample, it has been limited to men only.

The sample of this research includes two groups. They were managers (senior and middle level managers or supervisors) and employees who worked in departments of human resources, finance, public relations, and other departments that perform similar job tasks. This choice means that the sample is confined to administrative staff and excludes other functional categories, such as engineers and technicians, since the former category is more familiar with organisational change policies and strategies of these organisations and are involved with the project of organisational change and its instructions and regulations. Moreover, managers and employees in these departments were

selected because they are relatively easy to reach compared to other types of departments such as information technology, which is usually surrounded by strict protection procedures, or maintenance sections that require specific conditions and roles for safety and protection.

In this study, the sample size was estimated based on automatic calculation that was provided by (<http://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>). This website provides similar results of the guide of minimum sample size that recommended by Saunders *et al.* (2009). Moreover, the confidence level in this estimation is at level of 95 per cent of certainty. Finally, Table 3.2 shows the population and sample size of the study according to the Saudi organisations that agreed to allow the conduct of fieldwork (see section 3.7).

Table 3.2: Population and Sample Size of the Study

	Organisation	Population	Sample Size
1	Saudi Arabian Airlines (SAUDIA)	1950	322
2	Saudi Railways Organization (SRO)	622	238
3	Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC)	387	193
	Total	2959	753

3.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis in this study was divided into two categories. The first category of analysis, called preliminary analysis, involved classifying and analysing the characteristics of the sample descriptively, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software (version 22). This method is utilised to provide frequencies, means, and standard deviations of data collected. This is explained in more detail in Chapter Five.

The second category of analysis, called advanced analysis, was intended to assess and examine the model of the study. In this regard, this study used Factor Analysis, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), and the Partial Least Squares SEM (PLS-SEM) technique. The following three sub-sections will give background about these three different techniques and their importance in this study, while their results will be provided in detail in Chapter Six.

3.6.1 Factor Analysis

Field (2009) argues that factor analysis is used to understand the structure of a set of variables, to construct a questionnaire to measure an underlying variable, and to condense a data set to a more manageable size while retaining as much of the original information as possible. It is, in short, a way of collecting variables that seem to cluster together in a meaningful way (Field, 2009), in order to form a smaller number of coherent components or subscales (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010).

In addition to the importance of meeting the requirements of assumptions underlying statistical bases for multivariate analysis, Field (2009) suggests that variables should be measured at an interval level, using a Likert scale. Further, some scholars (e.g. Field, 2009) advised researchers to inspect their data before factor analyses are performed, whether EFA or CFA. According to several scholars (see e.g., Hair *et al.*, 2014a; Pallant, 2010; Pett *et al.*, 2003; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014), there are two main types of factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). EFA is utilised in the early stages of research or when the researcher does not know, or may have only little prior knowledge on how many factors are necessary to explain the interrelationships among a set of items and it is often used to explore the underlying dimensions of the construct of interest.

On the other hand, CFA is used when the researcher has some knowledge about the underlying structure of the construct under investigation, or, as Stevens (2009) indicates, rests on a strong theoretical or empirical foundation. This type of analysis allows the researcher to specify which variables will load on which factor and which factors are correlated (Stevens, 2009), as well as assess the extent to which the hypothesized set of variables fits the data (Pett *et al.*, 2003). In this regard, Stevens (2009: 326) stated that “the researcher generally forces items to load only on a specific factor and wishes to confirm a hypothesized factor structure with data”.

Moreover, although there is no agreement among researchers regarding how large a sample size is required for reliable factors, some authors, such as Field (2009), Hair *et al.* (2010), and Pallant (2010) among others, indicate that the common rule is that a researcher has at least 10-15 cases or participants per independent variable, while Stevens (2009) suggests five cases per variable as

the minimum needed. Hair and his colleagues (2010), on the other hand, recommend a sample size of at least 100 cases.

3.6.2 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

According to McArdle and Kadlec (2013) and Tarka (2017), SEM techniques are increasingly used in the behavioural and social sciences. Explaining this trend, Tarka (2017) argues that because of the complexity of social reality, i.e., the latent character of many social phenomena, sophisticated methods and techniques of statistical data analysis are required, both of which refer to causal analysis and the procedures of encompassing many variables based on such a technique. This technique, as confirmed by many previous studies (e.g. Hair *et al.*, 2010; McArdle and Kadlec, 2013; Tarka, 2017), is an advanced statistical method superior to other simpler or traditional statistical techniques in several aspects. The following paragraphs attempt to shed light on these aspects and clarify them in a way that emphasizes the importance of employing this technique in analysing data.

Generally, the advantage of the SEM technique over traditional statistical approaches, which include, among others, the *t* test, ANOVA, ANCOVA, MANOVA, MANCOVA, or multiple regression, as Tarka (2017) claims, is the fact that this technique allows a complex, multidimensional, and more precise analysis of empirical data, taking into account different aspects of the examined reality and abstract concepts or theoretical constructs. Moreover, this technique of analysis, according to Hair *et al.* (2010), enhances the statistical estimation of relationships between constructs by incorporating latent variables, which reduces the measurement errors of theoretical concepts. In sum, this technique is considered as superior to more traditional statistical techniques such as multiple regression, factor analysis, and multidimensional scaling in that it permits the explicit inclusion of measurement error and there is an ability to incorporate unobservable constructs in the model (Hulland, 1999; Turkyilmaz *et al.*, 2010).

Steenkamp and Baumgartner (2000) argue that, in traditional approaches, when a particular relation between two variables in a model that relies exclusively on observable variables and assumes no measurement error in the exogenous variables is not supported empirically, it is unclear whether there is truly no relation, whether the relationship is masked by measurement error, or whether the variables lack validity because they fail to measure what they are supposed

to measure. Therefore, one reason why SEM is so useful compared to these approaches is that it makes a clear distinction between unobserved, theoretical constructs and fallible, empirical measures (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000). This may, as Byrne (2006) argues, be a more useful technique for researchers in behavioural sciences, who are often interested in studying latent factors or abstract phenomena that cannot be observed directly. Relatedly, many scholars have proved SEM usefulness over traditional approaches in examining the relationships between constructs in social sciences (e.g., Shook *et al.*, 2004; Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000; Tarka, 2017).

Also, Bowen and Guo (2012) suggest that SEM is a useful framework for testing mediator and moderator relationships. They argue that this technique permits examination of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable that is hypothesized to be completely or partially explained by a third variable, an intervening variable or mediator. In other words, it is a valuable tool for testing models in which the effects of one variable on another vary by the values or levels of a third variable, or moderator (Bowen and Guo, 2012). For example, Tarka (2017) indicate that one of the most prominent features of this approach is that it allows researchers to answer a set of interrelated questions in a single, systematic, and comprehensive analysis by modelling the relationships among multiple independent and dependent theoretical constructs simultaneously. This capability for simultaneous analysis greatly differs from most classical statistical approaches, which analyse only one layer of the linkages between independent and dependent variables at a time (Tarka, 2017). In this regard, Shook and colleagues (2004) argue that SEM has a unique ability to simultaneously examine a series of dependence relationships (where a dependent variable becomes an independent variable in subsequent relationships within the same analysis) while also simultaneously analysing multiple dependent variables.

More importantly, SEM not limited to focus on the relations between constructs and their operationalizations (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000), but it helps researchers in distinguishing between measurement and structural models and explicitly taking measurement error into account (Henseler *et al.*, 2009; Narayanan, 2012). Additionally, while not found in the traditional approaches, the SEM can be expanded to estimate measurement errors through the use of multiple indicator latent factors, the testing of complex mediational mechanisms through the decomposition of effects, and the testing of moderational

mechanisms through estimation of multiple group analysis (Tarka, 2017). Thus, as Tarka (2017) claims, any linear model (e.g., regression) seems to be slightly worse as compared to SEM, not only due to the omission of correction of measurement errors but also because of the fact that it is possible to ignore indirect effects.

Undoubtedly, this indicates that the superiority of this technique to traditional techniques is not confined to exploring or identifying relationships between variables of a study or simply presenting their relations in the model, but it is deeper than that, as has been explained above.

3.6.3 Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM)

According to many researchers (see e.g., Hair *et al.*, 2011; Hair *et al.*, 2014a; Turkyilmaz *et al.*, 2010), there are two main types of SEM. First, covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) aims at determining how well a proposed theoretical model can estimate the covariance matrix for a sample data set. Second, variance-based SEM or partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM), also called partial least squares path modelling (PLS-PM), is a causal modelling approach that focuses on maximizing the explained variance of the endogenous, dependent variables, explained by the exogenous constructs, independent variables, when examining the model. Although their underlying philosophies differ greatly, the philosophical distinction between these approaches is whether to use CB-SEM for theory testing and development, or PLS-SEM for predictive applications, as Hair *et al.* (2011) and Henseler *et al.* (2009) argue. These different techniques constitute two complementary, yet distinctive, statistical techniques for estimating parameters of conceptual models (Henseler *et al.*, 2009).

More fundamentally, although the results of these two types do not differ much in a large data set (N=250+), PLS-SEM is considered, in general, a good methodological alternative for theory testing when the CB-SEM assumptions are violated with regard to normality distributions or sample size, the model is relatively complex with a large number of indicators, and there is a need to use formative and reflective measures (Chin, 1998; Hair *et al.*, 2011; Hair *et al.*, 2014a). Rönkkö and his colleagues (2015) suggest that the PLS literature has frequently discussed that this technique would be expected to work well with lower sample size requirements, imposes less restrictive distributional

assumptions, offers more enhanced capabilities for exploratory modelling, and is a more natural approach to formative measurement.

Furthermore, Meyers *et al.* (2013) as well as Schumacker and Lomax (2010) and Turkyilmaz *et al.* (2010) consider SEM as the union of confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis, since it is composed of two types of models: a measurement model and a structural model. According to Meyers *et al.* (2013), the measurement model (confirmatory factor) assesses the relationships between the measured variables, also called observed indicators, or manifest variables, and their respective latent or unmeasured variables, also called factors, constructs, or unobserved variables. On the other hand, the structural (path) model assesses the actual relationships between the variables of interest in the theory.

More specifically, a PLS-SEM model assessment is usually analysed and interpreted sequentially in a two-step process (Hair *et al.*, 2011; Hulland, 1999): first, the assessment of the reliability and validity of the measurement model; second, the assessment of the structural model. Such a sequence ensures that reliable and valid measures of constructs are used before attempting to draw conclusions about the nature of the construct relationships (Hulland, 1999). Similarly, Meyers *et al.* (2013) argue that to evaluate the structural model, the primary focus of the research, the measurement model, should be evaluated first and modified if not strong enough, which means that this technique has the capability to assess both models simultaneously.

3.7 Ethical Issues

Speaking generally, Saunders *et al.* (2009) argue that ethical concerns can occur in all research stages. They suggest that ethical issues relate to precision in the formulation of study questions, clarity of aims, accuracy of research methodology, transparency in procedures of gaining access, data collection, analysis, displaying the results with neutrality and impartiality, and writing up the research findings in a moral and responsible way. As an important dimension of ethical principles in each stage of the research, it is critical to protect participants who take part of the investigation from harm and respect their privacy, to consider and gain consent from organisations involved in data gathering, and to adhere to codes of research ethics committees in the institutions that the researchers belong to (Anderson, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Many universities and organisations specify research norms, standards, codes, ethics, procedures and the limits of responsibilities towards other parties (Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Bryman and Bell, 2003). The purpose of these norms is to define the responsibilities and obligations of researchers and their duties towards accuracy and honesty in research. Thus, they aim to ensure the maintenance of researchers' rights, and to protect the confidentiality of research participants and the organisation's reputation (Bryman and Bell, 2003). In other words, they focus on the personal responsibility of the researcher towards others, whether the beneficiaries of the study or participants. This implies that the researcher should adhere to and fulfil the research ethical obligations, both professionally and institutionally (Green, 2008).

Regarding consent for conducting the fieldwork in Saudi organisations, the researcher sent a formal letter along with a supportive letter from the Saudi Cultural Bureau at the Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia in London to all organisations mentioned previously in section 3.4.3. This letter included the topic of this research, its objectives and expected period of conducting fieldwork, the occupational group targeted by the study, type of instrument to be used for collecting data, the sponsor of the study, and some information about the researcher, such as his name, the university in which he is studying, email, and phone number. Although the researcher followed up with them many times, the researcher received only three consents (see Appendix D, E, and F) and two organisations did not respond either negatively or positively. The organisations that agreed to allow the conduct of fieldwork are: Saudi Arabian Airlines (SAUDIA), Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC), and Saudi Railways Organization (SRO). Organisations' agreement to access was attached to a copy of the questionnaire and form of consent, and submitted to Hull University Business School (HUBS). The researcher received approval from HUBS (see Appendix G).

Moreover, this research has taken into account many ethical issues that must be respected, for example, assuring participants of anonymity and maintenance of confidentiality of their views and identities. More specifically, according to Saunders and his colleagues' (2009) recommendation, the covering letter of the current study questionnaire was designed to assure participants and remind them about many aspects, as follows:

- Respondents were invited to participate in the study and notified that completing the questionnaire means that they are happy to be part of the study.
- Participation was completely voluntary and not compulsory.
- The significance of respondents' participation for meeting the research objectives was emphasized.
- It was emphasized that there are no right or wrong answers and the participant had the right to decline to answer any question or set of questions.
- The participants had the right to withdraw at any time.
- Participants were assured that all information provided would be kept strictly confidential.
- It was explained that participants could return the completed questionnaire either by placing it into the sealed envelope enclosed with the questionnaire or handing it to the researcher, and participants were assured that their answers would be dealt with in confidence.

3.8 Summary

This chapter introduced and discussed the methodology that underpins the current research. More specifically, this chapter placed particular emphasis on the four aspects related to the methodology chosen in this study, the positivist paradigm as the philosophical perspective, the deductive approach, a quantitative method, and the type of investigation, which is characterised as explanatory and cross-sectional. Additionally, the chapter identified the instrument technique used for data collection and provided the justifications for choosing this technique.

Also, this chapter has introduced and discussed the context of the present study. Specifically, to set the research in its context, this section involved an explanation of the problem of lack of performance in Saudi public sector and the reasons and methods of reform followed in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to tackle this problem. Moreover, the population and sampling strategy, purposive sampling, were discussed and justified. Subsequently, the techniques selected for data analysis and ethical issues were explained and highlighted. The next chapter will highlight in more details the instruments used for data collection and the steps for testing them before conducting fieldwork.

Chapter 4: Questionnaire Development

Figure 4.1: Following the Research Stages

Number of Chapter	Title of Chapter	Page
Chapter One	Background of the Study	1
Chapter Two	Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	9
Chapter Three	Methodology	87
Chapter Four	Questionnaire Development	113
Chapter Five	Data Description and Treatment	137
Chapter Six	Data Analysis and Findings	157
Chapter Seven	Discussion and Conclusion	192

4.1 Introduction

While the previous chapter highlighted the main points of the methodology followed in this study, this chapter will concentrate essentially on all processes used to finalise the questionnaires, and the data collection strategy. More specifically, the structure of this chapter was built based on Thietart *et al.*'s (2001) techniques used in quantitative research for collecting data. They indicated that collecting data by survey involves three main steps; choosing scales, designing and pre-testing the survey to check its validity and reliability, and then administering its final version in the actual study. The following sections will focus on explaining how data were collected in this study, based on these three steps.

4.2 First Step: Choosing Measures Used for Collecting Data

Researchers who adopt a survey strategy have to determine whether to use scales already constructed and validated by previous researchers or create new scales (Thietart *et al.*, 2001). It is recommended by Thietart *et al.* (2001) to avoid constructing new scales in the presence of appropriate pre-existing scales, although the latter are strongly linked to the context in which they were created, as they suggested. In this case, researchers must re-test and make a great effort to ensure the validity of these scales to be consistent with the new context.

Hair and his colleagues (2014a) claim that almost all recent social science research uses well-established measurements published in prior research studies or scale handbooks. In addition to being considered as a common practice among researchers, this method of using existing questionnaires allows the researcher to draw comparisons with other research and may lead to exploration of whether the location of the current sample appears to make a difference to the findings (Bryman, 2012). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), using well-

validated and reliable instruments enhances researchers' ability to carry out scientific research. They also emphasize the importance of using measures that have better reliability and validity and are more frequently used. Besides time and expense considerations and development of the literature that emerges from using existing instruments, selecting measures from reliable sources with a high reputation reduces the possibility of criticism of these instruments (Brislin, 1986).

Although many instruments exist for measuring the variables examined in the current study (ROC, LMX, TL, JS, and OC), the most prominent justifications for selecting the instruments used in the present study instead of other instruments can be summarized as follows (more details in Table 4.1). It is worth noting that instruments used in this study were adopted from previously validated scale measures published in top academic journals such as *The Leadership Quarterly*, *Journal of Management*, and *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Moreover, in addition to their widespread use, except for the instrument of resistance to organisational change, these instruments have exhibited acceptable psychometric properties in previous studies.

Table 4.1: Measures Used for Collecting Data and Rationales for Choosing them in the Present Study

Measure/Source	Rationales for Choosing This Measure
Resistance to Organisational Change (ROC)/ Oreg (2006)	This is the only measure that is consistent with the point of view of several researchers who have called for study of resistance to organisational change as a multidimensional construct that comprises cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components (Piderit, 2000; Szabla, 2007). Oreg (2006: 85) stated that "because previous studies did not use a multidimensional conceptualization of resistance to change, three subscales were designed in order to measure the three components of employees' attitudes towards the change".
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX-7)/ Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995)	The measurement LMX-7 has become the most frequently used for measuring leader member exchange relationships (Gerstner and Day, 1997). A meta-analytic review of 164 LMX studies conducted by Gerstner and Day (1997) found strong support in these studies to the recommendation of Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) for using LMX-7. This recommendation, as Joseph <i>et al.</i> (2011) suggest, came on two grounds: (a) the LMX-7 exhibited higher internal consistency reliability than other LMX measures, on average, and (b) the LMX-7 showed stronger criterion validity correlations with some

Measure/Source	Rationales for Choosing this Measure
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX-7)/ Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995)	<p>organisational factors, including job attitudes, than did other LMX measures, on average.</p> <p>Although LMX measurement instruments have been continually developed over time (Howell and Hall-Merenda, 1999) and numerous different LMX scales have been employed (Schriesheim <i>et al.</i>, 1999), LMX-7 has the soundest psychometric properties (reliability and validity) of all instruments of LMX (Gerstner and Day, 1997).</p>
Transformational Leadership (TL)/ Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> (1990)	<p>Many scholars have adopted the TL (e.g., Bommer <i>et al.</i>, 2005; Podsakoff <i>et al.</i>, 1996; Rafferty and Griffin, 2004; Top <i>et al.</i>, 2015). Carless <i>et al.</i> (2000: 389) criticized some measures of transformational leadership as “relatively long and therefore time consuming to complete”. In addition to being practical and is preferred in the organisational context, compared to other measures of TL, this version is in line with Carless <i>et al.</i>’s (2000) and Kruiger <i>et al.</i>’s (2011) argument, as it comprises more dimensions (6 dimensions) and fewer items (22 items); however, it simultaneously maintains good validity and reliability.</p> <p>Additionally, Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) review critically the most commonly used instruments to assess transformational leadership in empirical studies. These models include Bass (1985), Bass and Avolio (1995), Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> (1990), Rafferty and Griffin (2004), Conger and Kanungo (1994), and Shamir <i>et al.</i> (1998). They conclude that although they have great overlap with the MLQ, the dominant guiding framework in transformational leadership research, the Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> (1990); and Rafferty and Griffin (2004) models were essentially developed as better measurement alternatives to the MLQ. Recently, Abrell-Vogel and Rowold (2014) argue that the contents of the single dimensions can be more easily and explicitly linked to leadership behaviours that have been identified as heavily important during change (e.g. articulating a vision).</p>

Table 4.1 (continued)

Measure/Source	Rationales for Choosing This Measure
Organisational Commitment (OC)/ Meyer <i>et al.</i> (1993)	It is one of the most widely used measures of commitment (Meyer <i>et al.</i> , 2002) and it has been adopted by many recent studies (e.g., Mathieu <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Russo <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Yousef, 2002; Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Even more, this measure does not suffer from heterogeneity compared to other measures such as the Mowday <i>et al.</i> (1979) questionnaire (Benkhoff, 1997). Therefore, as Benkhoff (1997) pointed out, some authors have preferred to use Allen and Meyer's scales. Moreover, since organisational commitment is so widely seen as an attitude (Solinger <i>et al.</i> , 2008), therefore it is consistent with the focus of the current study in examining the role of leaderships and employees' attitudes in their reactions, resistance in particular, towards organisational change.
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ- Short Form)/ Stringer (2006)	Dunham <i>et al.</i> (1977: 428) argued that "the MSQ provided the highest validity coefficients for the physical work, compensation, career future, and supervision facets". Moreover, it is a well-regarded measure and has been used in numerous studies (Arvey <i>et al.</i> , 1989; Mathieu <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Spector, 1997). In addition to being a commonly used measure, the short form of the MSQ has been shown to have good reliability and is well-validated in previous research (Rafferty and Griffin, 2009). What is more, it is distinctive in incorporating several dimensions that are not included in other measures, such as advancement, job security, and social status among others (Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Most importantly, it has generally good psychometric properties (Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> , 1996).

Table 4.1 (continued)

After choosing these measures, the questionnaires used in this study were designed and prepared for collecting data. The first page of the questionnaires, of which two versions were distributed to managers and employees, was a cover letter that explained the objectives of the study, voluntary participation and confidentiality of the information that the participants would provide, and the researcher's name and his contact numbers (see Appendix H and I). In addition to demographic questions (Section A), which were added by the researcher, Sections B to F related to measurements of dependent and independent variables adopted, as mentioned, from previously validated scale measures published in top academic journals.

In addition to designing each instrument in a separate table, at the beginning of each instrument a brief introduction was provided to guide the respondents about how to answer the question, the purpose of the question, and a short definition of some concepts that may not be known by the respondents, such as leader-member exchange and organisational commitment. However, instruments were modified to meet the study's objectives and answer its questions, and to be appropriate to the context being studied, as will be explained later (section 4.3). The demographic questions and measurements used are addressed in detail in the next sections.

4.2.1 Questions in Section A (Respondents' Demographic Profiles)

In general, this section was intended to identify the characteristics of the sample. The questions were selected in this section to be consistent with the variables of the study, which will be explained in the following paragraphs. Since the target groups of this study were managers and employees, questions differed to some extent for each party. Four questions were common to both parties. They related to age, experience in the current organisation, period of being supervised by an immediate manager, and qualifications. Other questions were asked to managers to determine the number of employees they supervised and duration of being managers in their departments. The latter questions were asked to enhance understanding of the relationship between managers and employees.

1. Age

This question included several categories ranging from the first category of the younger age group (less than 25 years), to the middle group (25 to less than 45 years), to older staff (more than 45 years). This classification of age groups may contribute to clarify the trends and opinions of each generation about the variables of the study.

2. Experience in the Current Organisation (Tenure)

This question was asked in order to identify the range of years that managers and employees had spent in the organisation targeted in this study. Respondents were asked to identify their tenure among six categories, from less than 5 years to 25 years and more. Specifically, the question helped the researcher to determine the degree of respondents' knowledge about changes in the organisation. Also, it was related to the questions in section F, which asked about organisational commitment and the likelihood of employees staying with the same organisation.

3. Duration of the Relationship with the Current Manager

This question shows to what extent the respondent knows his manager, as it is assumed that long duration increases knowledge of the other party in the relationship. Respondents were asked to choose one of the following categories; less than 6 months, 6 to less than 12 months, 1 year to less than 5 years, or 5 years and more.

4. Educational Qualification

Questions about qualifications were asked to identify the level of education of each respondent, as more education may increase the ability of respondents to understand the study variables.

5. Number of Persons that Managers Supervised

This question and the next one were included in the managers' version questionnaire. Managers were asked to determine how many persons they supervised among four categories, namely, fewer than 6 persons, 6 to fewer than 10 persons, 11 to 25 persons, or 26 persons or more. Thus, this question was designed to determine size of the department under the responsibility of the managers. This also shows the background and nature of social relations surrounding the managers.

6. Duration of Managing the Department

This question aimed to determine to what extent the managers knew and realized their department circumstances. Respondents could choose one of the following period; less than 6 months, 6 to less than 12 months, 1 year to less than 5 years, or 5 years and more.

4.2.2 Questions in Section B (Resistance to Organisational Change)

In this section, participants were asked to report their attitudes and reactions, self-reported, towards organisational change in their organisations. The questionnaire was adapted from a version of the Change Attitude Scale designed by Oreg (2006). This instrument, with 15 items, was designed to measure the three components of employees' attitudes towards organisational change, namely, affective, cognitive, and behavioural. According to Georgalis *et al.* (2015) and Oreg (2006), this scale is consistent with a multidimensional conceptualisation of resistance to change in the literature, which has been ignored by previous research. Five items were used for each sub-scale of this measurement.

Sample items included: “I was afraid of the change (Affective Resistance, $\alpha = 0.78$)”, “I looked for ways to prevent the change from taking place (Behavioural Resistance, $\alpha = 0.77$)”, and “I believed that the change would make my job harder (Cognitive Resistance, $\alpha = 0.86$)”. All Cronbach’s alpha values mentioned in Section 4.2 are as presented in the original sources of measurements. Participants indicated their degree of agreement or disagreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale (*1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree*). Higher values on this scale denote higher levels of resistance to organisational change. Four items were reverse-coded, namely, items R1, R5, R9 and R10 (see section B in Appendix H and I). The sub-scales of resistance to organisational change and their definitions are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Resistance to Organisational Change (ROC) Sub-scales (15 items)

No.	Sub-scale name	Definition
1	Affective	An individual’s feelings and emotions in response to the change.
2	Cognitive	An individual’s beliefs, opinions, and evaluations about the change.
3	Behavioural	An individual’s actions or intentions to act in response to the change.

Source: Oreg (2006); Piderit (2000).

4.2.3 Questions in Section C (Leader-Member Exchange)

Leader-member exchange relationship was assessed with the seven item scale designed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). Participants were asked to rate the LMX relationship with the other party of the relationship (supervisors vs. subordinates). An example item is, “How well do you understand your subordinates’ job problems and needs?” and the corresponding supervisor-reported LMX-7 item is, “How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?”. The managers’ version asked respondents to assess their relationship with up to five subordinates.

According to Podsakoff *et al.* (2003, 2012), by collecting data of this variable from different or multiple sources, employees and managers, it is possible to control or reduce the threat of common method variance. This also is consistent with the recommendation of Gerstner and Day (1997) that LMX should always be measured from the perspectives of both leaders and members. The results of Schriesheim *et al.*’s (2001) study support this recommendation.

This measurement characterizes various aspects of the working relationship between leaders and followers, including the overall effectiveness, or quality, of the relationship between supervisor and subordinate and other aspects related to this work relationship such as “understanding of job problems and needs, recognition of potential, and willingness to support the other” (Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001: 700-701). An example item was “How would you characterize your working relationship with your subordinates/leader?”. The sub-scales of leader-member exchange and their definitions are presented in Table 4.3. It is worth noting that Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995: 237) concluded that “the LMX construct has multiple dimensions, but these dimensions are so highly correlated they can be tapped into with the single measure of LMX. We suggest that the massive redundancy resulting from using more than one measure of LMX at this time can add little unique information”.

Table 4.3: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Sub-scales (7 items)

No.	Sub-scale name	Definition
1	Trust	Mutual respect for the capabilities of the other.
2	Respect	The anticipation of deepening reciprocal trust with the other.
3	Obligation	The expectation that interacting obligation will grow over time as career-oriented social exchanges blossom into a partnership.

Source: Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995: 237).

4.2.4 Questions in Section D (Transformational Leadership)

In this section, participants, both managers and employees, were asked to what extent they agreed or disagreed with statements reflecting their leaders' behaviours. Transformational leadership behaviour (TL) was measured using a modified version of Podsakoff *et al.*'s (1990) scale developed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1996). Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) found conceptual differences among the several approaches that were measuring transformational leadership. Their development of the transformational leadership scale was based on the construct definitions found in a comprehensive review of all the works that examined behaviours related to transformational leaders, including Bass's work. Thus, they identified and developed six dimensions to measure key behaviours of transformational leaders.

This instrument, with 22 items, was designed to assess the leaders' behaviours measured in the study (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1996). The original measure contained a scale for transactional leadership; however, this scale was excluded from the current study because the focus was on transformational leadership. Sample items included: my manager "Paints an interesting picture of the future for our group" (Articulating a Vision, $\alpha = 0.87$), "Leads by doing rather than simply by telling" (Providing an Appropriate Model, $\alpha = 0.84$), "Fosters collaboration among work groups" (Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals, $\alpha = 0.89$), "Insists on only the best performance" (High Performance Expectations, $\alpha = 0.80$), "Shows respect for my personal feelings" (Individualized Support, $\alpha = 0.90$), and "Has ideas that have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas I have never questioned before" (Intellectual Stimulation, $\alpha = 0.82$). Two items were reverse-coded, namely, items TL11 and TL12.

Participants indicated the degree to which they agreed or disagreed on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from (1) "*strongly disagree*" to (5) "*strongly agree*". A higher score indicates a higher level of practising transformational leadership behaviours. Table 4.4 provides more details about definition of the sub-scales of transformational leadership behaviour.

Table 4.4: Transformational Leadership Behaviour (TL) Sub-scales (22 items)

No.	Sub-scale name	Definition
1	Articulating a Vision	Behaviour on the part of the leaders aimed at identifying new opportunities for their department/organisation, and developing, articulating, and inspiring others with their vision of the future.
2	Providing an Appropriate Model	Behaviour on the part of the leaders that sets an example for employees to follow that is consistent with the values the leaders espouse.
3	Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals	Behaviour on the part of the leaders aimed at promoting cooperation among employees and getting them to work together toward a common goal.
4	High Performance Expectations	Behaviour that demonstrates the leaders' expectations for excellence, quality, and/or high performance on the part of followers.

No.	Sub-scale name	Definition
5	Intellectual Stimulation	Behaviour on the part of the leaders that challenges followers to re-examine some of their assumptions about their work and rethink how it can be performed.
6	Individualized Support	Behaviour on the part of the leaders that indicates that they respect followers and are concerned about their personal feelings and needs.

Table 4.4 (continued)

Source: Podsakoff *et al.* (1990: 112).

4.2.5 Questions in Section E (Job Satisfaction)

In this section, participants were asked to what extent they agreed or disagreed with statements reflecting their satisfaction, self-reported, with the job. Job satisfaction was measured with the Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ-short form) scale developed by Weiss *et al.* in 1967 (Stringer, 2006). This instrument of MSQ, with 20 items, comprises two distinct components: intrinsic satisfaction (12 items) and extrinsic satisfaction (6 items), while the general job satisfaction is simply a summation of the 20 items. The intrinsic satisfaction scale relates to job content and reflects some job facets such as ability utilization, achievement, and autonomy at work, while the extrinsic subscale relates to job context and the way company policies are administered, relationship with others within the workplace, payment for employees, and the opportunity for advancement in the job (see e.g., Arvey *et al.*, 1989).

A five-point Likert scale ranging from “1=*very dissatisfied*” to “5=*very satisfied*” was utilized. All items were positively worded, with higher scores being an indication of stronger agreement. A minimum score of 20 would result if the respondent was very dissatisfied with all respects of the job, whilst a maximum score of 100 would result if the respondent was very satisfied with all aspects of the job. Items for this scale included: “The working conditions” (General Satisfaction, $\alpha = 0.93$), “The freedom to use my own judgment” (Intrinsic satisfaction, $\alpha = 0.89$), and “The praise I get for doing a good job” (Extrinsic satisfaction, $\alpha = 0.78$) (Stringer, 2006). Table 4.5 shows definitions of the sub-scales of job satisfaction.

Table 4.5: Job Satisfaction (JS) Sub-scales (20 items)

No.	Sub-scale name	Definition
1	General Satisfaction	How people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs.
2	Intrinsic Satisfaction	It refers to the nature of job tasks themselves and how people feel about the work they do.
3	Extrinsic Satisfaction	It concerns aspects of work that have little to do with the job tasks or work itself, such as promotion, pay, and supervision.

Source: Spector (1997: 2 and 15).

4.2.6 Questions in Section F (Organisational Commitment)

Participants were asked to what extent they agreed or disagreed with statements reflecting their commitment, self-reported, with their organisations. Organisational commitment was measured using a modified version of Allen and Meyer's (1990) scale developed by Meyer *et al.* (1993). Sample items included: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation" (Affective Commitment, $\alpha = 0.87-0.85$), "It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to" (Continuance Commitment, $\alpha = 0.79-0.83$), and "I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer" (reverse coded) (Normative Commitment, $\alpha = 0.73-0.77$). Six items were used for each dimension of this scale. Four items were reverse-coded, namely, items OC4, OC8, OC9 and OC18.

Five-point Likert scales ranging from (1) "*strongly disagree*" to (5) "*strongly agree*" were used. Higher scores on this scale, 18 items, reflect stronger feelings toward and higher participants' identification with their organisations (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1996). The dimensions of organisational commitment and their definitions are listed in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Organisational Commitment (OC) Sub-scales (18 items)

No.	Sub-scale name	Definition
1	Affective Commitment	An affective attachment to the organisation.
2	Continuance Commitment	A perceived cost associated with leaving the organisation.
3	Normative Commitment	An obligation to remain in the organisation.

Source: Meyer *et al.* (1993: 539).

As indicated in the above description, sections B-F all used 5-point Likert scale response formats. This format was preferred for several reasons.

Generally, Bryman and Bell (2003) emphasise that the Likert scale is one of the most frequently encountered formats for measuring attitudes. Sachdev and Verma (2004) argue that a 5-point Likert scale has been most recommended by the researchers that it would reduce the frustration level of respondents and increase response rate and response quality. In this vein, Krosnick and Fabrigar (1997) have suggested that five-point Likert scales are the optimal scale length compared to four- or seven-point ones, because scales of this length combine the advantages of both shorter and longer scales, such as clarity of meaning and information gathered, respectively. Furthermore, in addition to being easier for respondents to answer as well as being prevalent in organisational behaviour research, the 5-point Likert scale is used because it meets the needs of the present study to assess individuals' attitudes and behaviours towards the environment around them. More specifically, it is used in order to assess employees' attitudes and behaviours toward their leaders, jobs, and organisational change in particular. In this respect, Bryman and Bell (2003) argue that questions about attitudes are very common in self-completion questionnaire research. Therefore, this study used questions based on a five-point Likert scales.

4.3 Second Step: Designing and Pre-Testing of the Questionnaires

The formulation and organisation of questions, the structure of the questionnaire, and accuracy and clarity of presentation undoubtedly impact on response rates, even more on the validity and reliability of the questionnaire (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, paying more attention to the design of questionnaire is not only reflected in attracting respondents to participate but, beyond that, affects the quality of their answers.

Although the instruments used in this study were translated from English to Arabic (see section 4.3.1), several considerations were taken into account in the design of the questionnaires to make them more attractive. The following points summarise them:

- A covering letter was designed to be attractive and simple to motivate respondents to answer the questions as honestly as possible. In this letter, the purpose of the study and its benefits were explained clearly and concisely, the importance of respondents' participation was emphasised, and protection of their privacy and confidentiality of their opinions were stressed (see Liao *et al.*, 2009). This technique, as Podsakoff *et al.* (2012)

suggest, may lead participants to expend the effort required to provide optimal answers.

- A brief introduction was provided before each question, focusing on how to answer the question and the definition of terms or concepts that respondents may not be familiar with. In addition to separating the groups of questions, this technique serves to draw the respondents' attention and increase their awareness about the subject investigated (Thietart *et al.*, 2001).
- Short and direct questions were used, with simple and clear language without deviation from the meaning intended by the original version of instruments.
- Careful attention was paid to writing the words to appear according to the rules of Arabic expression, as well as using punctuation and diacritics in the right place. This was intended to give more clarity to the meanings of the words, and establish a good impression in the respondents that care was taken in formulating and designing the questionnaire.
- Although the importance of the type and wording of questions needs to be considered, the order of these questions, unlike Saunders *et al.*'s (2009) argument, should be considered as well. Questions were ordered to avoid affecting respondents by successive questions that were too similar to each other (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003, 2012; Thietart *et al.*, 2001). More specifically, the ROC, TL, and OC measures had the same response formats or scales but were distinguished from other instruments. For example, ROC was followed by LMX, which had a different scale, and the latter followed by TL. Also, JS played the same role between TL and OC.
- Both positive and negative items were included in the questionnaires and ordered in a specific way to ensure that the respondents read each item carefully and chose the answer that reflected their opinion (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). To achieve this target, positive items were separated by some negative items. For example, negative items in ROC and OC instruments were placed after three positive items. In this method, as Spector (1992) suggested, bias produced by response tendencies will be minimized.
- An open-ended question was used at the end of the questionnaires to allow respondents to express their suggestions and opinions, and to make additional comments that they felt important to the study and related to the issues they were asked about.

Regarding testing the questionnaires used in this study and before conducting fieldwork, the questionnaires were translated, pre-tested, a pilot study was

conducted to detect any potential shortcomings in their design, then validity and reliability were examined. In the following subsections, the sub-steps of testing the questionnaires are explained:

4.3.1 Translation of Questionnaire Items

The main objective of translating a questionnaire is to achieve equivalence (Weeks *et al.*, 2007), or to provide the same meaning as the original instrument (McGorry, 2000). In this sense, Berry (1969: 125) stated that translation should aim to “elicit responses possesses similar meaning to individuals in different cultures (or in the extreme case, be equally meaningless)”. Similarly, Dorfman *et al.* (1997: 248) suggested that “a near-perfect translation does not eliminate all threats to conceptual equivalence of constructs, but it should reduce spurious findings due to inappropriate translation”. This means that care should be taken in translation to avoid any misleading results that may emerge from translating an instrument.

Based on the literature, Weeks and her colleagues (2007) argue that the key translation methods that researchers should consider to maximize equivalence in translating existing instruments and reduce its errors are one-way translations, back translation, bilingual techniques, the committee approach, and pre-test procedures. These techniques are briefly explained below (Cha *et al.*, 2007; Weeks *et al.*, 2007):

1. One-way translations: A bilingual person translates the questionnaire from the original language into the target language.
2. Back translations: back translation is a well-known method to maintain equivalence between the original and translated versions. It refers to the translation of a translation back into the source language. These techniques should be undertaken by qualified translators.
3. Bilingual techniques: A bilingual translator blindly translates an instrument from the original language to the target language; a second bilingual translator independently back-translates the instrument from the target language to the original language. In this approach, inconsistent responses can be easily identified.
4. Committee approach: A group of bilingual translators translate the questionnaire from the source to the target language. Any error in the translation from one committee member impacts negatively on the performance of other members.
5. Pre-test procedures: After a translation is completed, it is field-tested to ensure that future subjects will comprehend the questions.

The preferred and recommended approach, although time-consuming, for translation, and the one that was conducted in this particular study, is back-translation (Brislin, 1986; Weeks *et al.*, 2007). In addition to flexibility to change the source language in study instruments, this method “enables researchers to have some control over the final version of the translated study instruments because it enables them to examine the original and back-translated versions and make inferences about the quality of the translation” (Weeks *et al.*, 2007: 162).

The questionnaires used in this study were originally in English. They were reviewed and subsequently translated into Arabic, since Arabic is the native language of the Saudis and most of the participants would not be familiar enough with the English language and its terminology to fully comprehend the questions. This was expected to bring more responses and increase comprehension of the questions and respondents’ ability to answer them easily (see the two versions of questionnaire, English and Arabic, in Appendix H, I, J, and K). It is worth noting that two versions of the questionnaire were designed, for employees and managers. All questions of these versions were similar, except the questions related to the construct of LMX, which was formulated to urge managers to evaluate their relationship with employees and vice versa.

Following the steps of back-translation mentioned by McGorry (2000), two certified professional translators worked independently. The first one translated the English version to the target language, Arabic, and then the second translator translated from Arabic back to English. To ensure that the two versions were comparable, the last back-translated version was then reviewed and checked against the original English version to assess the quality of the translation and identify any inconsistencies, mistranslations, lost words or phrases (McGorry, 2000; Tierney *et al.*, 2002). Some translation differences were discussed with both translators and then the last version was revised.

4.3.2 Pre-Testing the Questionnaires

This sub-step was intended to refine and develop the questionnaires, both Arabic versions for managers and employees, in order to achieve the main objectives for which they were designed. To do that, two groups were chosen to review and assess the questionnaires and provide their comments and suggestions.

Spector (1992) indicated that item formulation is considered an essential part of scale development; therefore it should be clear, concise, unambiguous, and as concrete as possible. To achieve this recommendation, the two versions of the

questionnaire were tested informally by the first group, which included some friends and family members, to check how well the questions flowed and to what extent they were clear, simple, unambiguous, and understandable (Robson, 2011).

The second group included a group of academic experts who had been requested to comment on the representativeness and suitability of questions, and generally on the structure of the questionnaire (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Specifically, two members of the academic staff at King Abdul-Aziz University, Jeddah in Saudi Arabia, and four Arab PhD students at University of Hull evaluated the coherence and efficiency of items to ensure that all these items were clearly and appropriately formulated. Therefore, this group concentrated on assessing the questionnaire validity (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Both groups made significant comments and their suggestions were used to make further modifications that yielded the final versions of the questionnaire. The following section (4.3.3) will discuss how these questionnaires were tested in the pilot study.

4.3.3 Conducting a Pilot Study

The target of a pilot study, as Bryman (2012) argue, is not solely to ensure that the survey questions operate well but also to ensure that the research instrument as a whole functions well. Additionally, it enables the researcher to obtain some assessment of questions' validity and initial indicators about the reliability of the data that will be collected (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). This means that the pilot study aims mainly to ensure the appropriateness of the questionnaires for the actual study. In this step, the final versions of the questionnaires were used and, following some scholars, such as Pallant (2010), Robson (2011), and Saunders *et al.* (2009), the respondents were chosen from the intended sample.

Robson (2011) recommended that a researcher should aim for at least 20 respondents per subgroup. Therefore, thirty questionnaires were distributed to each group, managers and employees at Saudi Arabian Airlines (SAUDIA) in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Twenty-one managers and twenty-three employees returned completed questionnaires; therefore, the response rate was 70% and 76.7%, respectively. This study was conducted during the period of 15th April to 4th May 2014. Table 4.7 shows that the questionnaires were modified to meet all comments that emerged from this step and the previous steps.

Table 4.7: Comments and Actions Taken According to Pre-Test and Pilot Study

Place	Comments	Actions
Cover letter	Add "You do not have to answer every question"	Added
	Use your formal email at University of Hull in addition to the personal email	Added
	Add the name and email of the supervisor	Added
	Refer to Ethics committee approval at Hull University Business School (HUBS) to conduct fieldwork	Added
	Add a statement that suggests the approval of respondents to participate in the study	Added
Demographic Questions	Use the range of (25-34) and (35-44) rather than (25-less than 35 years) and (35-less than 45 years)	Did not change. This suggestion may make respondent more confused if he, for example, is more than 34 and less than 35 years old.
	Add "Diploma" after high school	Added
	Combine "Master" and "PhD" and replace them by "Higher Education"	Did not change. This may give opportunity to some participants who would express that they have qualifications that distinguish them from others such as PhD holder.
Measurement of ROC	The original instrument was phrased in the past tense, while this study asks participants about the present and their attitudes toward the current organisational change programme	Changed to present tense
	Standardise widths of the table	Changed in all tables
	Use "I disagree with the change" rather than "I protested against the change". The sentence suggested was in line with the Saudi context, that does not accept using "protest"	Changed

Place	Comments	Actions
Measurement of LMX	Provide a guide and example to participants about how they could answer the question of LMX	Added
Measurement of OC	Explain the meaning of organisational commitment	Added to the brief introduction of section F

Table 4.7 (continued)

4.3.4 Testing Goodness of Measures

Testing the measures statistically gives a researcher more confidence about how reliable they are for use as data collection instruments (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). In order to evaluate the measures used in the present study, this section explains their reliability and validity.

4.3.4.1 Reliability

Field (2009) shares similar views to Hair *et al.* (2010) who argue that reliability is a measure used to assess the degree of consistency of multiple measurements of a variable. Similarly, Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 161) stated that reliability is “an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the “goodness” of a measure”. Hence, this measure is used to test for both consistency and stability (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

According to many scholars (e. g. Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010; Schwab, 1980), there are two frequently used measures of reliability, test-retest and internal consistency. First, the test-retest method of reliability or temporal stability is used in order to measure the consistency between the same responses for one case of survey at two different times (Bryman, 2012; Thietart *et al.*, 2001). The chief point of this test is to ensure that responses do not fluctuate or are not too varied across time periods. The higher the values of this measure, the more reliable the scale is. Longitudinal research often uses this type of test (Bryman, 2012). However, Thietart *et al.* (2001) indicate that measurements can be unstable for reasons independent of the instruments themselves and may be due to individuals responding differently in the second test. It is argued by O’Leary-Kelly and Vokurka (1998) that given its many potential problems, the use of this technique has been strongly discouraged by numerous experts in this field.

Second, internal consistency assesses the degree to which the items that make up a scale are all measuring the same underlying attributes. Cross-sectional research often undertakes this type of test. Cronbach’s alpha is the most widely

assessment of the consistency (Cronbach, 1951; Hair *et al.*, 2010). It suggests how well the items in a set of data are positively correlated to one another (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The closer value of Cronbach's alpha is to 1, the stronger the internal consistency reliability of the scale (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010; Thietart *et al.*, 2001).

As a rule of thumb, although a .60 level is acceptable, reliability values should exceed a threshold of .70 and those over .80 are preferable (Field, 2009; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010). It is worth mentioning that, as O'Leary-Kelly and Vokurka (1998) suggested, there is no consensus on how large a value of Cronbach's alpha should be in order to be considered acceptable. Recent researchers such as Pallant (2010) and Thietart *et al.* (2001) concur with Cortina (1993) who demonstrated that this value is affected by some factors such as the number of items in the scale, the degree of correlation between the items, and the number of the dimensions of the concept being studied.

After reverse-scoring was performed for the negatively worded items, the reliability of the pilot study was obtained for the total scale and subscales. The results of Cronbach's alpha for the pilot study are presented in Table 4.8. The Table indicates that the lowest value of Cronbach's alpha was .87 for both constructs of resistance to organisational change and leader-member exchange; the highest value was .97 for the transformational leadership construct, and the rest were within this range.

Regarding the reliabilities of subscales, it was found that the highest value was for fostering the acceptance of group goals with .95 and the lowest value was for cognitive resistance with .62. Although the latter value of Cronbach's alpha is considered low, it is acceptable and generally sufficient to measure this subscale. Accordingly, these results indicate that reliability values were very good and reflect that the questionnaires were highly reliable. Finally, the Cronbach's alpha of the actual study will be discussed later in Chapter Five.

Table 4.8: Internal Consistency Reliability of the Measurements (Pilot Test)

Measurements and Their Sub-dimensions	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Resistance to Organisational Change	15	2.27	.43	.87
Affective Resistance	5	2.24	.52	.75
Behavioural Resistance	5	2.28	.49	.67
Cognitive Resistance	5	2.27	.48	.62
Leader-Member Exchange	7	3.52	.80	.87
Transformational Leadership Behaviour	22	3.49	.84	.97
Articulating a Vision	5	3.44	.89	.90
Providing an Appropriate Model	3	3.42	1.08	.91
Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals	4	3.50	.93	.95
High Performance Expectations	3	3.67	.86	.76
Intellectual Stimulation	4	3.49	1.03	.92
Individual Support	3	3.44	.82	.77
Job Satisfaction	20	3.61	.60	.92
Intrinsic Satisfaction	12	3.72	.60	.88
Extrinsic Satisfaction	6	3.39	.73	.78
Organisational Commitment	18	3.68	.57	.93
Affective Commitment	6	3.77	.78	.90
Continuance Commitment	6	3.59	.49	.79
Normative Commitment	6	3.67	.60	.82

4.3.4.2 Validity

Validity, according to Hair *et al.* (2010), refers to the degree to which a measure accurately represents the concept of interest. In other words, it refers to the ability of the measurement to achieve what the researcher intend to measure (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Based on the literature, the most often used types of validity are content, criterion, and construct (see e.g., Pallant, 2010; Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010; Thietart *et al.*, 2001). These types will be discussed briefly in the next paragraphs.

Content validity, sometimes known as face validity, is considered an essential process to ensure the researcher that the measure comprises adequate and representative items that tap the concept being measured. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) suggest that the more the scale items represent the concept, the greater the content validity. This can be assessed by a panel of experienced people or

experts in a field, to determine whether the measure seems to reflect the concept concerned or not (Bryman, 2012; Hair *et al.*, 2010).

Criterion validity is established when the measures differentiate respondents on a criterion that it is expected to predict (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). In short, it is, as Saunders *et al.* (2009) indicate, the ability of the measure to make accurate predictions. However, Thietart *et al.* (2001) claim that there is no universal criterion for assessing a measure of concepts used in an organisational context. This type of validity can be evaluated by either concurrent validity or predictive validity. Concurrent validity is used when the scale discriminates respondents who are known to be different, while predictive validity indicates the ability of the measure to differentiate among respondents with reference to a future criterion (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). They can be measured empirically by correlation analysis.

In respect of construct validity, it is considered a necessary and major element in the research process, as Schwab (1980) suggested. Pallant (2010) argues that this type of validity is explored by investigating a measure's relationship with other constructs, both related (convergent validity) and unrelated (discriminant validity). Generally, convergent validity assesses to what extent the scores of two different instruments measuring the same concept or phenomenon are correlated, while discriminant validity is used to examine to what extent two constructs measuring the same concept are uncorrelated (see Hair *et al.*, 2010; Hulland, 1999; O'Leary-Kelly and Vokurka, 1998; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010; Thietart *et al.*, 2001). Thus, they are considered complementary to each other, yet distinctive, as Hulland (1999) argued. Moreover, these types of validity are measured empirically by correlation analysis and factor analysis. In sum, as Bryman (2012: 173) argues, "Although reliability and validity are analytically distinguishable, they are related because validity presumes reliability". In other words, if a measure of a concept is unstable then it is considered unreliable; therefore, it cannot be valid to measure the concept.

As mentioned previously in section 4.2, this study adopted instruments that had good validity and were published in credible journals. These instruments were translated and the translation did not fundamentally change the meaning. Then content validity was tested based on the recommendations of some academic experts, as explained in second step. Moreover, the convergent validity and discriminant validity of constructs used in this study were examined, as reported in Chapter 6 (see section 6.3.1 Assessing PLS-SEM Measurement Model). The next section will focus on the last step of collecting data, administering the main study.

4.4 Third Step: Administering the Main Study

The final Arabic versions of the questionnaires were prepared for fieldwork and the actual study was performed during the period of 28th May to 28th August 2014. Two groups of respondents participated in filling the questionnaires: managers and employees who worked in the departments of human resources, finance, public relations, and other similar departments.

Oreg and Berson (2011) allude to the difficulty of collecting multisource and multilevel data and suggest that this process is not an easy task, especially collecting data from multiple organisations, including psychographic data from leaders. They (2011: 652) also emphasize that “this is even more difficult when looking for comparable organizations, with equivalent changes all being implemented at the same time. Obviously, any future study to obtain such data would be in position to greatly advance our understanding of the phenomena under study”.

Questionnaires were distributed to participants manually and one week later were collected by the researcher (Table 4.9 includes more details about the numbers of distributed and returned questionnaires). The main difficulties that faced the researcher in this phase are as follows:

- Data were collected during the summer season, which is the hottest season in Saudi Arabia, where the temperature may reach 50° F. The climate in Saudi Arabia is predominantly dry and relatively high temperatures prevail throughout the year.
- This season is one of the busiest seasons, especially in the major cities mentioned above. The difficulty appeared more obvious in SAUDIA, which has some buildings near to the city centre and others in the far north of Jeddah. In addition to its location in a busy commercial area, visiting SWCC required parking the visitor’s car at a very great distance and then walking to the main building at this very hot time, as well as strict processes of official permission to enter the main building of SWCC.
- It is one of the most expensive periods of the year, especially in housing costs and mobility among hotels in major cities is a great difficulty.
- The period of 22nd July to 2nd August 2014 was an official holiday for all staff; therefore, it was not possible to access them for the purpose of data collection.

4.5 Response Rate

According to Table 4.9, of 753 questionnaires distributed, 449 questionnaires were returned, and of these, 414 responses were usable. Thirty-five questionnaires were excluded due to many reasons such as incomplete or biased questionnaires. Therefore, the response rate across the total sample was 59.6%. More specifically, the highest response rate was in SAUDIA (67.1%) followed by SWCC (59.1%) and SRO. Although the response rate was lower in SRO, it was adequate for analysing (50%).

Baruch (1999) observed that survey responses rate can be low in behavioural studies. Also, Babbie (1973) suggested that a response rate of at least 50 per cent is adequate for analysis and reporting, a response rate of 60 per cent or more is good, and a response rate of at least 70 per cent is very good. Accordingly, the response rate of the current study (59.6%) is considered as barely good and generally is sufficient. However, it is argued by Robson (2011) that there is little consensus about what constitutes an adequate response rate.

In an attempt to maximize response, participants in this study were given the option of returning the completed questionnaires in a sealed envelope within a maximum of two weeks, or handing them directly to the researcher at the time of visiting them in their workplace. Moreover, in addition to clear instructions and an attractive layout of questionnaires, to boost survey responses, the researcher followed up, reminded, and encouraged those who did not complete the questionnaire (Bryman, 2012). However, it is possible that non-response may be attributed to some participants not wishing to respond, or losing the questionnaires. Even more likely, some employees and managers may have been absent from the workplace during the fieldwork or left for their summer holiday after receiving the questionnaires (Baruch, 1999). The number of population, sample size, responses rate, and valid questionnaires for analysis are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Population, Sample Size, and Responses Rate of the Fieldwork

Organisation	Population	Sample Size	Returned Questionnaires			Responses Rate
			Usable	Unusable	Total	
1 SAUDIA	1950*	322	200 (62.1%)	16	216	67.1%
2 SRO	622**	238	113 (47.5%)	6	119	50%
3 SWCC	387***	193	101 (52.3%)	13	114	59.1%
Total	2959	753	414 (55%)	35	449	59.6%

* Formal letter received from SAUDIA (see Appendix A), ** Formal letter received from SRO (see Appendix B), *** SWCC (2013) *Annual Report*, 91.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has delineated the steps followed in this study to develop questionnaires used for collecting data. The three steps for collecting data suggested by Thietart *et al.* (2001) followed in this study have been explained. These steps included choosing scales, designing and pre-testing the questionnaires, and then administering the actual study. Specifically, the discussion of the first step included the decision to use existing questionnaires instead of creating new measures and the justification in each case.

Furthermore, the second step included four sub-steps; translation of questionnaires, pretesting them, conducting a pilot study, and examining the goodness of the questionnaires, reliability and validity. Finally, the administration of the main study, the final step for collecting data, along with the response rate, have been presented in this chapter. Descriptive analysis of data and primary analyses will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Data Description and Treatment

Figure 5.1: Following the Research Stages

Number of Chapter	Title of Chapter	Page
Chapter One	Background of the Study	1
Chapter Two	Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	9
Chapter Three	Methodology	87
Chapter Four	Questionnaire Development	113
Chapter Five	Data Description and Treatment	137
Chapter Six	Data Analysis and Findings	157
Chapter Seven	Discussion and Conclusion	192

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a descriptive analysis of the data, a test of internal reliability of the measures, and the treatment of these data in order to prepare them for statistical analysis techniques in the next chapter. More specifically, the chapter begins with descriptive statistics of the demographic characteristics of the two sample groups, including frequencies and percentages and graphs. This is followed by an appraisal of the internal reliability of the measures used in this study by the results of Cronbach's alpha. Then in the last section, data preparation and screening are discussed. This process was carried out to examine missing data, outliers, and the main assumptions underlying the statistical bases for multivariate analysis, namely, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity, as well as dyadic data treatment.

5.2 Descriptive Analysis

Robson (2011) suggests that descriptive analysis, or initial analysis, is a way of summarising, organising, and representing statistically the data collected to clarify its most prominent features and characteristics. Therefore, this type of analysis enables researchers to describe variables numerically and compare differences between them (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Many techniques can be used to present this analysis, such as numerical, graphical, and tabular techniques.

In this particular study, frequencies and percentages, supported by various types of graphs, were utilised to report the descriptions of the characteristics and profiles of both samples, managers and employees. All of the results in this chapter and the subsequent chapter were generated from the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software (version 22) for Windows.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the sample was drawn from three Saudi organisations. The respondents were two subsamples, employees and their immediate supervisors/managers. Table 5.1 shows numbers and percentages for each group and provides more detailed characteristics of respondents in terms of their job, organisations, age, tenure or experience in the current workplace, the period of being supervised by their manager, and qualifications. The next paragraphs will shed light on these characteristics and illustrate the findings that can be derived from them. The results were derived from the original data, before treatment.

Table 5.1: Demographic Description of Managers and Employees

Demographic Factors		Managers (N=102)		Employees (N=312)	
		Number	%	Number	%
Organisation	Saudi Arabia Airlines (SAUDIA)	57	55.9	143	45.8
	Saudi Railways Organization (SRO)	28	27.5	85	27.3
	Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC)	17	16.6	84	26.9
Age	Less than 25 years	0	0	16	5.1
	25-less than 35 years	11	10.8	109	35.0
	35 - less than 45 years	35	34.3	95	30.4
	45 years and more	56	54.9	92	29.5
Tenure	Less than 5 years	4	3.9	59	18.9
	5- less than 10 years	8	7.9	55	17.6
	10- less than 15 years	7	6.9	55	17.6
	15 - less than 20 years	24	23.5	48	15.4
	20 - less than 25 years	19	18.6	31	10.0
	25 years and more	40	39.2	63	20.4
	Missing	0	0	1	0.3

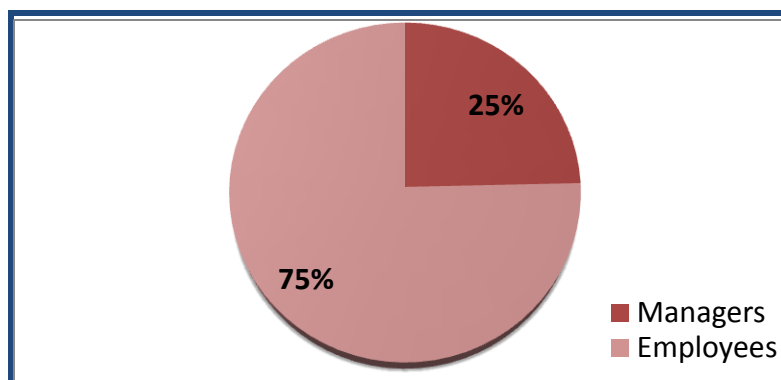
Demographic Factors		Managers (N=102)		Employees (N=312)	
		Number	%	Number	%
Period been Supervised by Current Manager	Less than 6 months	7	6.9	47	15.1
	6- less than 12 months	8	7.8	44	14.1
	1 year–less than 5 years	44	43.1	132	42.3
	5 years and more	42	41.2	87	27.9
	Missing	1	1.0	2	0.6
Qualification	Less than high school	6	5.9	13	4.2
	High school	22	21.6	84	26.9
	Diploma	14	13.7	70	22.4
	Bachelor	39	38.2	120	38.5
	Master	18	17.7	21	6.7
	PhD	3	2.9	2	0.7
	Other	0	0	1	0.3
	Missing	0	0	1	0.3

Table 5.1 (continued)

5.2.1 Job

By comparing the participants’ jobs of the two samples, it can be seen from Table 5.1 and Figure 5.2 that the majority of them were employees or subordinates (75.4%), whereas the managers or immediate supervisors represent almost a quarter of them (24.6%). This means that for each manager who participated, three employees participated in this study.

Figure 5.2: Percentage of Participants According to their Job



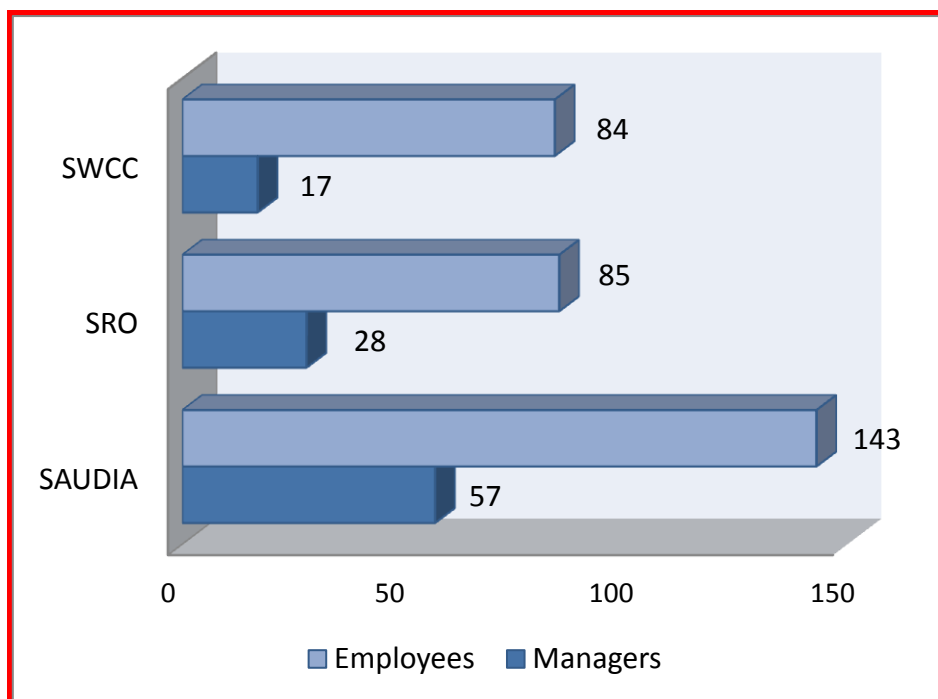
5.2.2 Organisation

According to Table 5.1, almost half of the respondents worked at SAUDIA (48.3%), or 200, while the rest of them worked at SRO and SWCC, 113 (27.3%) and 101 (24.4%) respectively. Similarly, roughly 56% of managers and 46% of employees were from SAUDIA. This does not come as a surprise, due to considerable differences between the population of SAUDIA and the populations of the other organisations. As previously mentioned in section 4.5, SAUDIA's population is more than three times that of SRO and more than five times that of SWCC. Figure 5.3 clearly shows these findings.

Moreover, fifty-seven managers (roughly 56% of the total number of managers) involved in this study worked at SAUDIA, while twenty-eight and seventeen managers worked in SRO and SWCC, respectively. Generally, the number of managers who participated in this study (102 managers) is considered good compared to their tasks and workload.

On the other hand, whilst 143 employees (almost 46% of total employees) worked at SAUDIA, 85 employees (27.3%) at SRO and 84 employees (26.9%) at SWCC participated in the study. Although there is a huge difference between the populations at SRO and SWCC, almost equal numbers of employees from both organisations participated in this study. This reflects noticeable cooperation from both groups, especially employees who worked at SWCC, compared to the population of each organisation.

Figure 5.3: Number of Participants According to Organisation

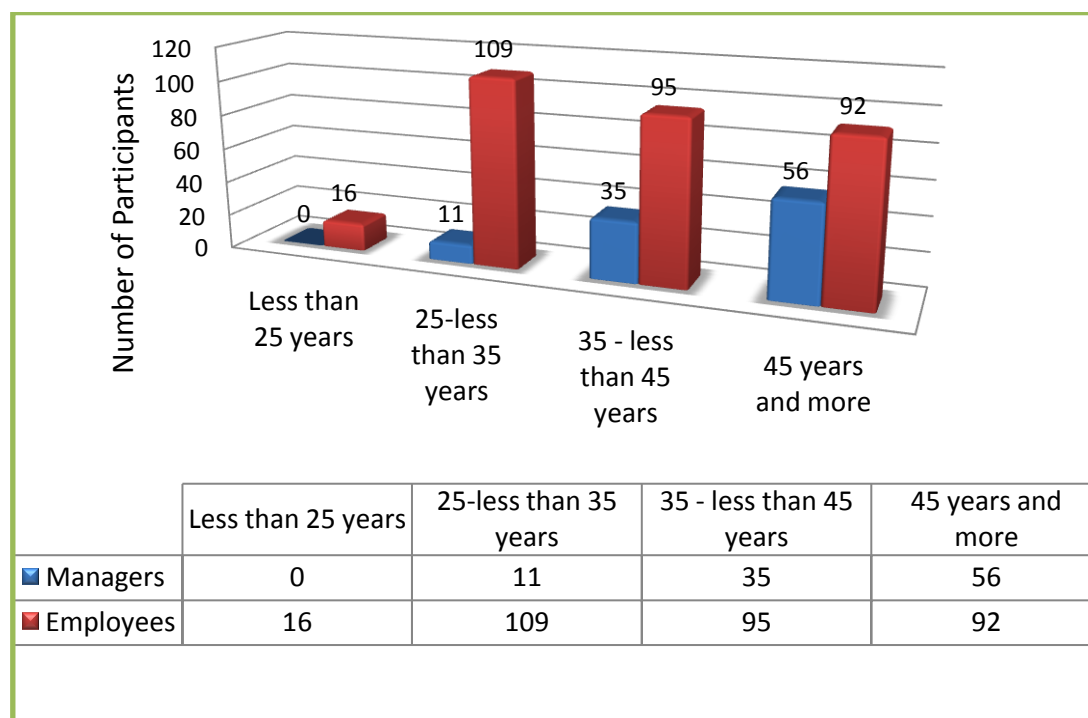


5.2.3 Age

Across all respondents, fifty-six managers were concentrated in the range 45 years old and above (55%), followed by 35-less than 45 years old (34%), while, on the other hand, 109 employees were concentrated in the range of 25-less than 35 years old (35%), followed by 35-less than 45 years old (30.4%) (see Figure 5.4). This means that young adulthood is the most prevalent among employees and managers. The figure also shows that the majority of both samples, managers and employees, were more than 35 years old, 89% and 60% respectively.

These results are presented more clearly in Figure 5.4. Generally, this figure shows that while there are no huge differences between employees in age, except the first category, there is a clear difference in age between managers.

Figure 5.4: Number of Participants According to Age Category



5.2.4 Tenure

Tenure is the period of working in the same workplace. It is found that more than half of managers had at least 20 years of experience (57.8%), and only a small percentage of them had worked for less than 10 years (11.8%) (see Table 5.1). Conversely, the data show that a third of employees had more than 20 years of experience (30.4%), while more than half of them had a maximum of 15 years of experience (54.1%). Figure 5.5 shows these results more clearly.

These statistics reflect that both samples had knowledge and good experience regarding the circumstances and development stages in their organisations.

Figure 5.5: Number of Participants According to Tenure Category

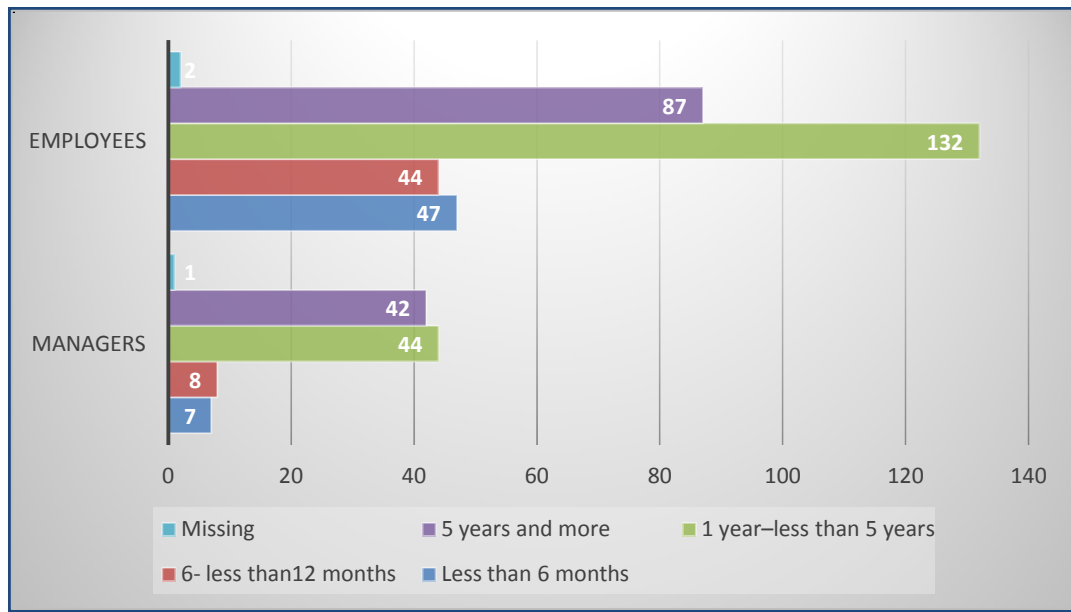


5.2.5 Duration of Supervision by Current Manager

Table 5.1 shows the duration of supervision of participants by current managers. More specifically, 132 employees, or 42.3% of them, had been working with their current managers for between a year and less than five years, while 44 managers, or 43.1% of them, had been supervised by their senior managers for the same duration. A high number from both samples, 87 employees (27.9%) and 42 managers (41.2%), had spent more than five years working with their managers. This means that the vast majority of employees (70.2%) and managers (84.3%) had worked with their managers for a long time. Furthermore, it is noted that a not insignificant percentage of employees (29.2%), or 91 of them, had worked with their managers for less than a year, while a few managers (14.7%), or 15 of them, had been supervised by their leaders for less than a year. These findings are illustrated in Figure 5.6.

Finally, duration of supervision clarifies to what extent both parties of the relationship between leaders and subordinates had worked together; therefore, it is regarded as an essential element that helps this study to evaluate this relationship in a more realistic way.

Figure 5.6: Number of Participants According to Duration of Supervision

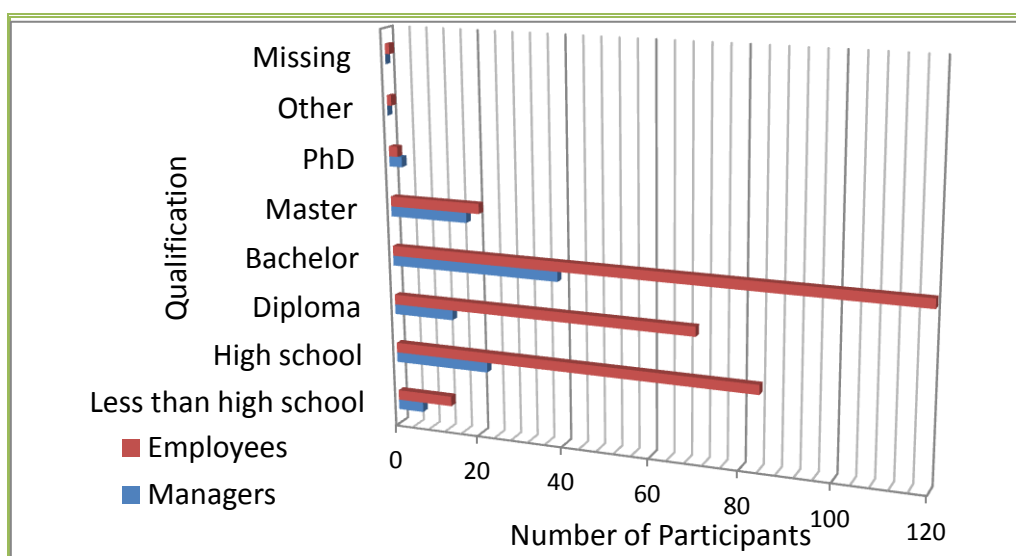


5.2.6 Qualification

From the results, it can be seen that the respondents in both samples were very well educated. More specifically, 143 employees, or 45.8% of them had a Bachelor degree and above, and 60 managers, or 58.8% of them had the same degree. Moreover, the holders of high school certificates were 84 (26.9%) and 22 (21.6%) for employees and managers, respectively.

What is more, more than one fifth of employees had a diploma and one employee had an educational diploma, which is considered higher than a Bachelor degree but lower than a Master degree. Lastly, there were almost equal numbers of higher educated participants in both samples, managers (21) and employees (23), see Figure 5.7. These results are in line with participants' ages, as the majority of employees and managers were in the range 25-45 years old.

Figure 5.7: Number of Participants According to Qualification



5.2.7 Number of Persons that Managers Supervised

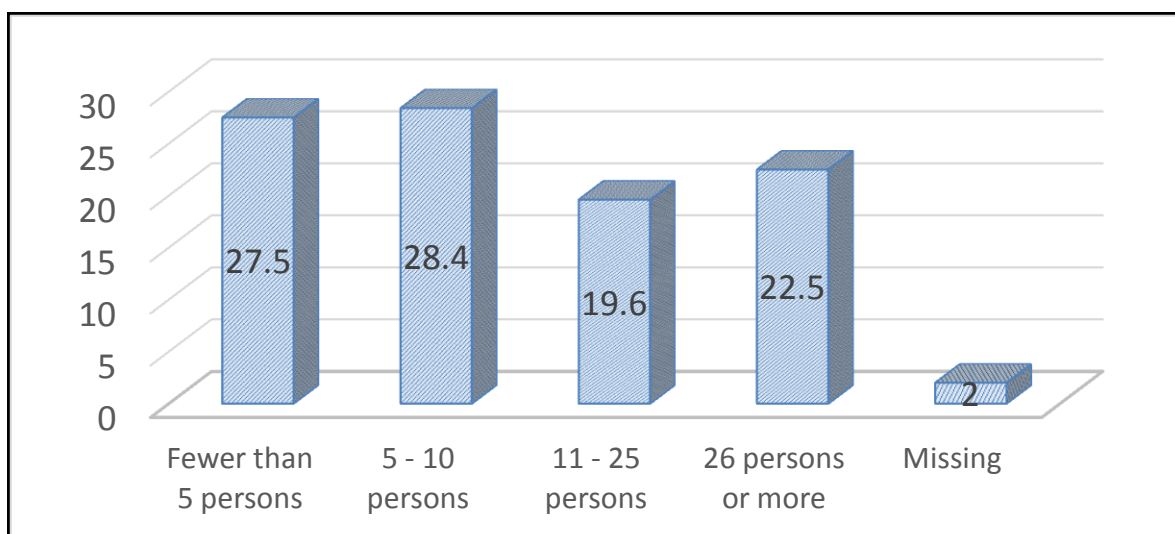
The data shown in Table 5.2 indicate that a high percentage of managers (28.4%) were supervising from 5 to 10 persons, while a similar percentage of managers (27.5%) were supervising fewer than 5 persons. Moreover, less than a quarter of managers (22.5%) were supervising 26 persons and more, whilst one fifth of them (19.6%) were supervising between 11 to 25 persons.

These data suggest that more than a quarter of managers were supervising small departments (fewer than 5 persons), about half of them were supervising medium departments (5 to 25 persons), and less than a quarter of them were in charge of the administration and supervision of large departments (26 persons and more). These results are illustrated in Figure 5.8.

Table 5.2: Number of Persons that Managers Supervised

Number of Persons	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Fewer than 5 persons	28	27.5	28.0
5 - 10 persons	29	28.4	57.0
11 - 25 persons	20	19.6	77.0
26 persons or more	23	22.5	100.0
Missing	2	2.0	

Figure 5.8: Percentage of Persons that Managers Supervised



5.2.8 Duration of Managing the Department

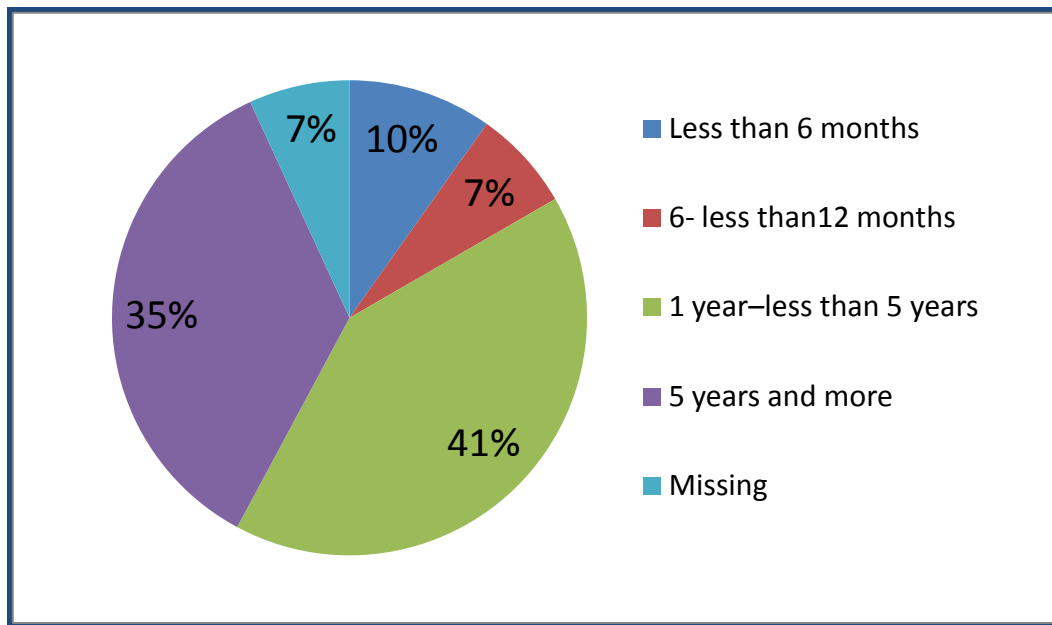
Table 5.3 reveals that only 16.7% of managers had been their positions less than a year, while the majority of them had more than one year’s experience in these positions (76.4%). What is interesting is that more than a third of managers (35.3%) still retained their positions in the workplace after more than five years. These findings are presented in Figure 5.9.

These results are generally consistent with participants’ duration of supervision by the current manager, where a high percentage of employees (70.2%) had worked with their managers for more than a year and more than a quarter (27.9%) had worked with them for a long time, five years and more. Accordingly, it seems that each party in the relationship, managers and employees, had adequate knowledge and understanding of the other party, which would enable them to assess the relationship accurately.

Table 5.3: Period as a Manager

Period as a Manager	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 6 months	10	9.8	10.5
6- less than 12 months	7	6.9	17.9
1 year–less than 5 years	42	41.1	62.1
5 years and more	36	35.3	100.0
Missing	7	6.9	-

Figure 5.9: Period as a Manager by Percentage



5.3 Internal Reliability of Measures

The means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of all of the constructs used in the present study are reported in Table 5.4. Generally, the reliabilities of constructs in this study are considered in the acceptable range for measures used in the behavioural sciences, .70 to .90 (Cohen *et al.*, 2009, Hair *et al.*, 2010). More specifically, an examination of this table suggests that the internal consistency reliabilities for all five constructs used in the study were very high, meeting or exceeding the Cronbach's alpha values previously mentioned in section 4.3.4.1. The construct of TL had the highest value (.96) of Cronbach's alpha, while LMX had the lowest value (.88).

According to Field's (2009) recommendation, subscales' reliabilities are shown in Table 5.4 as well. Their results indicate that all of these values, except one subscale, fostering the acceptance of group goals ($\alpha = .93$), reported lower values of reliability, although they were in the acceptable range. High performance expectations had the lowest value (.71), whilst, as mentioned, fostering the acceptance of group goals had the highest value (.93).

Table 5.4: Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of All Constructs Used in This Study

Measure	Source	Subscales	Number of items	M.	S. D.	α
ROC	Oreg (2006)	-	15	2.34	.58	.91
		Affective Resistance	5	2.32	.68	.82
		Behavioural Resistance	5	2.38	.60	.72
		Cognitive Resistance	5	2.30	.62	.78
LMX	Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995)	-	7	3.64	.80	.88
TL	Podsakoff et al. (1996)	-	22	3.57	.79	.96
		Articulating a Vision	5	3.49	.84	.87
		Providing an Appropriate Model	3	3.49	.95	.84
		Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals	4	3.59	.98	.93
		High Performance Expectations	3	3.71	.81	.71
		Intellectual Stimulation	4	3.72	.88	.83
		Individual Support	3	3.39	.86	.74
JS	Stringer (2006)	-	20	3.53	.63	.91
		Intrinsic Satisfaction	12	3.64	.63	.87
		Extrinsic Satisfaction	6	3.32	.77	.74
OC	Meyer et al. (1993)	-	18	3.64	.57	.90
		Affective Commitment	6	3.73	.77	.85
		Continuance Commitment	6	3.60	.55	.77
		Normative Commitment	6	3.60	.67	.75
All items			82			

Note: ROC=Resistance to Organisational Change, LMX=Leader-Member Exchange, TL=Transformational Leadership, JS=Job Satisfaction, OC=Organisational Commitment, M.= Mean, S. D.= Standard Deviation, α =Cronbach's Alpha.

5.4 Data Preparation and Screening

The previous sections reported the sample profile and reliability of measurements used, while the next sections will focus on data treatment.

Examination of data, as a prior stage before analysing data, is very crucial in all types of investigations but is particularly important when a researcher

anticipates using SEM (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). The importance of this stage stems from its role in increasing validity and reliability in answering the research questions (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). In this regard, Pallant (2010) emphasizes that it is important to check data to avoid violating any of the assumptions mentioned later. More importantly, lack of attention to this stage or ignoring it may lead to invalid or biased results (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

In this context, screening data to ensure their accuracy can be done in two stages. The first stage focuses on treatment of the whole dataset to remedy any defects or errors in data entry or mistakes in coding. It is, therefore, related directly to the researcher's responsibility and under his/her control and enables corrections to be made before statistical analysis is carried out. In this study, the data was checked by proofreading the original data against the computerised data file, checking for errors such as errors in data entry that created invalid codes. The whole dataset was checked by examining each variable by descriptive statistics and using graphical techniques in the SPSS software, then all the errors were corrected.

The second stage includes exploring and examining data to identify issues related to characteristics of the data and deal with them properly. This section briefly addresses missing data, outliers, and the main assumptions underlying the statistical bases for multivariate analysis, namely, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and assessing multicollinearity. Also, their impacts on the characteristics of the data collected and how they were dealt with will be explained in this section.

5.4.1 Missing Data

Missing data poses an important challenge and is considered one of the most pervasive problems that faces researchers in data analysis, especially in social science research (Hair *et al.*, 2014a; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). It can have a significant impact on any analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The seriousness of this problem depends on the pattern of missing data, how much is missing, and why it is missing (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Nevertheless, they can provide valuable information and different perspective, if analysed properly and interpreted correctly (Peng, 2009).

This issue occurs when respondents either inadvertently or purposely fail to answer one or more questions (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). Based on the missing data literature, missing data generally falls into three categories: Missing Completely

At Random (MCAR), Missing At Random (MAR), and Missing Not At Random (MNAR) (see e.g., Bowen and Guo, 2012; Schumacker and Lomax, 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014 among others). Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) suggest that missing data scattered randomly throughout cases and variables of a data matrix often pose less serious problems. Their deletion is meaningless and can lead to substantial loss of data. While Robson (2011) claims that there is no really satisfactory way of dealing with missing data, however, Hair *et al.* (2010) state that if missing data on an observation exceed 15%, the relevant item should be removed from the data set.

Schumacker and Lomax (2010) point out that researchers have various options for dealing with missing data either deleting subjects with these values, replacing the missing data values, or using robust statistical procedures that accommodate for the presence of missing data. In the current study, IBM SPSS MVA (Missing Values Analysis) was used to examine and “determine whether the extent or amount of missing data is low enough to not affect the results” (Hair *et al.*, 2014a: 47). This technique revealed that the missing data were at random and less than 5%. This is consistent with the rule of thumb recommended by Hair *et al.* (2010) and Hair *et al.* (2014a) that for any missing data less than 10%, any imputation technique can generally be employed.

However, Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) agree with Meyers *et al.* (2013) that although using data transformations can significantly improve the precision of multivariate analysis, they can simultaneously pose formidable data interpretation problems. The mean substitution method for missing data is one of the most widely used methods, based on replacing all missing values of a variable with the mean of that variable calculated from all valid responses (Cohen *et al.*, 2009; Hair *et al.*, 2010). Use of this method of mean value replacement is in line with Hair *et al.* (2014a) and Schumacker and Lomax’s (2010) recommendation that researchers can use mean substitution as an imputation method when only a small number of missing values is present in the data, less than 5% in particular. Consequently, the mean substitution method was used in this study to deal with missing data.

5.4.2 Outliers

Cohen *et al.* (2009) argue that even when the data set has been thoroughly cleaned and checked, errors, unusual cases, or both may appear. According to Hair *et al.* (2010: 64), outliers are “observations with a unique combination of

characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other observations”. In simple terms, outliers are values substantially lower or higher than other values or an anomalous combination of values on more than one variable (Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). This phenomenon distorts statistical tests and can cause completely misleading results, and even more, weaken the researcher’s ability to generalise results (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

Hair *et al.* (2010) classified outliers into four classes. The first class denotes a procedural error, such as incorrect data entry or a coding mistake. This type of outlier should be determined in the data cleaning stage and should be eliminated or recoded as missing data. The second class occurs as the result of an extraordinary event. In such cases, the researcher must investigate to what extent these outliers fit the objectives of the research then decide whether they should be retained in the analysis or deleted. The third type of outlier comprises extraordinary observations for which the researcher has no explanation. The decision whether to retain these outliers or delete them is based on their validation to the population. The final class of outlier includes observations that fall within the ordinary range of values on each of the variables. They are not particularly high or low values, but are unique in their combination of values across the variables. In this situation, these outliers should be retained unless specific evidence is available that discounts the outlier as a valid member of the population.

The Mahalanobis distance measure is considered the most commonly used measure for detecting multivariate outliers. It measures the distance between the specific case’s values on the predictor variables and the centroid of the independent variables (IV) (Cohen *et al.*, 2009). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), the criterion for multivariate outliers is Mahalanobis distance at $p < .001$. In a dataset with four IVs, as in this study, any case with a Mahalanobis distance greater than 18.47 is considered a multivariate outlier (Pallant, 2010). Following Tabachnick and Fidell’s (2014) recommendation of screening and dealing outliers several times until no more outliers remain, one run for identifying outliers were conducted, which revealed four cases of outliers (see Table 5.5). These cases are 82, 333, 2, and 387. Since deletion of the outliers provided a better analysis of data and enhanced the generalisability of the results, it was decided to delete them.

Table 5.5: Results of Mahalanobis Distance Measurement for Detecting Outliers

Order of Run	Case Number	Statistic
First Run	82	<u>23.71</u>
	333	<u>23.17</u>
	2	<u>19.42</u>
	387	<u>19.37</u>
	366	16.73
Second Run	366	17.96

5.4.3 Testing the Most Important Statistical Assumptions

The aim of the previous steps was to clean the data to a format most suitable for multivariate analysis, while the next steps concern testing the data for the assumptions underlying the statistical bases for this analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010). According to Hair *et al.* (2010), the importance of such testing stems from the fact that meeting some of these assumptions is critical to a successful data analysis. These assumptions are addressed in the following subsections.

5.4.3.1 Normality

Normality is considered the most fundamental assumption in multivariate analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). It is claimed that researchers should verify that the data are not too far from the traditional parametric distribution, normal distribution, as extremely non-normal data prove problematic, which ultimately may lead to invalid statistical results and contribute to other assumption violations (Hair *et al.*, 2010). In general, normal distribution is used to describe a symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle of the distribution (Pallant, 2010).

Normality of a single variable can be assessed either by visual inspection or by statistical tests. Normality can be checked visually by plots such as histograms, Q-Q plots (quantile-quantile plot), P-P plot (probability-probability plot), and Boxplots (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). These methods are criticized on the grounds that they are subjective, as what some consider to be a normal distribution of data may not necessarily be so to others (Yap and Sim, 2011).

Also, normality can be assessed by obtaining two statistical measures; kurtosis and skewness (Pallant, 2010). Kurtosis indicates the height of the distribution, either peakedness or flatness, compared with the normal distribution and skewness is a way to describe the balance of the distribution (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

In other words, a skewed variable is a variable whose mean is not in the centre of the distribution. According to Meyers *et al.* (2013), skewness and kurtosis values within the range ± 1 indicate that the data are likely to be normally distributed. These tests, as Pallant (2010) suggest, are too sensitive with large samples. Alternatively, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests are considered the most reliable test of normality (Pallant, 2010). A non-significant result (a *Sig.* value of more than 0.05) refers to normal distribution.

In order to assess data normality, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests were computed for managers and employees on resistance to organisational change (ROC), leader-member exchange (LMX), transformational leadership (TL), job satisfaction (JS), and organisational commitment (OC). As can be seen in Table 5.6, all variables of the study have significant results, which means that the data was non-normally distributed, with the exception of LMX and JS results ($p > .05$) in the group of managers.

Table 5.6: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks Tests for Normality

Variables	Job	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
ROC	Employee	.143	309	.000	.923	309	.000
	Manager	.127	101	.000	.918	101	.000
LMX	Employee	.076	309	.000	.976	309	.000
	Manager	.083	101	.086	.979	101	.098
TL	Employee	.084	309	.000	.968	309	.000
	Manager	.140	101	.000	.942	101	.000
JS	Employee	.072	309	.001	.978	309	.000
	Manager	.082	101	.088	.987	101	.441
OC	Employee	.108	309	.000	.953	309	.000
	Manager	.118	101	.001	.926	101	.000

Note: df= degree of freedom, Sig.= level of significance, ROC=Resistance to Organisational Change, LMX=Leader-Member Exchange, TL=Transformational Leadership, JS=Job Satisfaction, OC=Organisational Commitment.

Lastly, although violation of the assumption of normality is quite common in large samples, 200 or more, many notable scholars, such as Cohen *et al.* (2009), Field (2009), Hair *et al.* (2010), Pallant (2010), and Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), argue that large sample size reduces the detrimental effects of non-normality, such that it will not make a substantive difference in the analysis

(Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Further, Field (2009) suggests that predictors do not need to be normally distributed. Consequently, since the overall number of useable questionnaires in this study was more than 400, with no less than 100 cases in each group, non-normality can be considered negligible (Hair *et al.*, 2010) and further analyses were based on this principle.

However, Hair *et al.* (2010) emphasize the serious effects of non-normality in small samples of 50 cases or fewer, especially if the sample size is fewer than 30 or so. Based on Meyers *et al.* (2013) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), some structural equation modelling (SEM) programmes, which were used in this study, are able to accommodate some departures from normality. More specifically, the PLS-SEM technique is the preferred technique when it is difficult or impossible to meet the requirement of normal data distribution (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). Distributional assumptions, according to Hair *et al.* (2014a), are of less concern because of the nonparametric nature of this technique.

5.4.3.2 Homoscedasticity

The concept of homoscedasticity suggests that the variability in the dependant variable(s) (DV) is expected to have equal levels of variance across all independent variables (IV) values. This assumption, in short, refers to dependence relationships between variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). According to Hair *et al.* (2010), Levene's test, the most common test for assessing homoscedasticity, is used to assess whether the variances of a single variable are equal across any number of groups. In other words, as Field (2009) suggests, this test is used to see whether variances are different in different groups. Obtaining a significance value of less than .05 suggests that variances for the groups are not equal, which means that the assumption of homogeneity of variances has been violated (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010).

With respect to the present study, Levene's test through one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to obtain the variances between organisations. The results of this test (see Table 5.7) suggest that the significance values were greater than .05 or not significantly different, indicating that there were equal variances across organisations. This means that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated or, as Field (2009) suggests, the variances were roughly equal and the assumption was tenable.

Table 5.7: Test of Homogeneity of Variance

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
ROC	1.345	2	407	<u>.262</u>
LMX	1.931	2	407	<u>.146</u>
TL	.256	2	407	<u>.774</u>
JS	1.150	2	407	<u>.318</u>
OC	.356	2	407	<u>.700</u>

Note: df= degree of freedom, Sig.= level of significance, ROC=Resistance to Organisational Change, LMX=Leader-Member Exchange, TL=Transformational Leadership, JS=Job Satisfaction, OC=Organisational Commitment.

5.4.3.3 Linearity

Linearity is based on the premise of a straight-linear relationship observed between the variables in the analysis (Meyers *et al.*, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Meyers *et al.* (2013) emphasize that no observed linear relationship does not mean necessarily that variables are unrelated. Cohen *et al.* (2009), Hair *et al.* (2010), and Meyers *et al.* (2013) suggest that since the correlation coefficient assesses only the degree of linear association between variables, this coefficient may lead to underestimation of the actual strength of the relationships between variables and does not assess nonlinear relationships between them.

The most common way of assessing linearity is by using the scatterplots approach (Hair *et al.*, 2010). If one of the variables is not normally distributed, as found for all variables in this study, linearity will not be achieved (Cohen *et al.*, 2009; Meyers *et al.*, 2013). In this case, it is recommended to transform one or both variables to meet linearity (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Although there is no agreement between methodologists about which transformation methods researchers can follow (Meyers *et al.*, 2013), four common transformations to remedy nonlinearity were used, namely, logarithmic, inverse, square root and square, but unfortunately none of these transformation methods were successful in transforming data to a linearity situation.

5.4.3.4 Assessing Multicollinearity

As indicated by Hair *et al.* (2010), the ideal situation in any research is the presence of high correlation relationships between independent variables and the dependant variable, but with little correlation among themselves. Multicollinearity occurs when any single independent variable is very highly

correlated, $r = .80$ or $.90$ and above (Field, 2009), with a set of independent variables (e.g., Cohen *et al.*, 2009; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014).

The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and Tolerance were used to assess the multicollinearity assumption. A rule of thumb recommended by several researchers such as Cohen *et al.* (2009), Hair *et al.* (2010), and Pallant (2010) suggests that a VIF of 10 or more and Tolerance values of $.10$ or less provide evidence of serious multicollinearity. According to these measures, multicollinearity was found absent in this study, as the maximum value of VIF was 2.21 and the minimum value of Tolerance was $.45$ (see Table 5.8). These are unsurprising results, given that the intercorrelations among independent variables were not high, as they did not exceed $.66$. Therefore, this assumption is unlikely to threaten the results and conclusions of this study.

Table 5.8: Test of VIF and Tolerance to assess the Multicollinearity Assumption

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	3.327	.206		16.165	.000		
	LMX	-.105	.048	-.142	-2.176	.030	.536	1.867
	TL	.097	.054	.129	1.805	.072	.452	2.213
	JS	-.167	.062	-.180	-2.689	.007	.514	1.946
	OC	-.101	.057	-.096	-1.757	.080	.762	1.312

a. Dependent Variable: ROC

5.5 Dyadic Data Treatment

Becker and Useem (1942: 13) suggested that “two persons may be classified as a dyad when intimate, face to face relations between them have persisted over a length of time sufficient for the establishment of a discernible pattern of interacting personalities”. Therefore, the relationship between supervisors/managers and subordinates/employees, as was assessed in the present study through using LMX instrument for both samples, is considered dyadic.

In dyadic research, as Kenny *et al.* (2006) point out, it is important to distinguish between the two dyad members by some variable. There are two types of dyads: distinguishable and indistinguishable. In the distinguishable

case, for example, there is some variable that can be used to differentiate between the two members of dyad (Kenny *et al.*, 2006). Accordingly, manager-employees who participated in this study would be distinguished by job.

Furthermore, Kenny and colleagues (2006) argue that the nonindependence concept points to the existence of something in common between the two members of a dyadic relationship. Conceptually, it has defined as the degree of similarity or difference in the scores of a variable between the two members of the dyad (Kenny *et al.*, 2006). To measure nonindependence with interval-level and distinguishable dyad members, researchers should use the Pearson correlation coefficient (Kenny *et al.*, 2006). Nonsignificant results mean that there is no relationship between the two variables, or they are independent. According to Table 5.9, there is no significant correlation between LMX-managers and LMX-employees, indicating that these data should be analysed at an individual level.

Table 5.9: Correlation between LMX-Managers and LMX-Employees

	Job	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	R	Sig.
LMX Managers and Employees	Employee	309	3.5437	.82982	.091	.366
	Manager	101	3.9859	.52625		

5.6 Summary

This chapter has presented the methods that were followed to process the data collected before advanced statistical analyses were used in the current study. These methods included presenting a descriptive analysis of data, testing the internal reliability of measures, checking and remedying defects and mistakes before data entry stage.

The treatment of the whole dataset also involved assessment of missing data and outliers. Additionally, this chapter briefly addressed and tested four main assumptions of multivariate analysis, namely, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. In other words, all steps of treating data and their expected impacts on the characteristics of the data collected and how they were dealt with were explained in this chapter. Finally, dyadic data treatment has been presented in the last section of this chapter. The next chapter will shed light on the data analysis and findings.

Chapter 6: Data Analysis and Findings

Figure 6.1: Following the Research Stages

Number of Chapter	Title of Chapter	Page
Chapter One	Background of the Study	1
Chapter Two	Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	9
Chapter Three	Methodology	87
Chapter Four	Questionnaire Development	113
Chapter Five	Data Description and Treatment	137
Chapter Six	Data Analysis and Findings	157
Chapter Seven	Discussion and Conclusion	192

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on presenting a descriptive analysis of the data and testing the main assumptions of multivariate analysis and other issues related to them. The main concern of this chapter is to assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis, to justify choosing partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM), and to provide, based on Hair *et al.*'s (2014a) method, the results of the measurement and structural models, and to test the hypotheses mentioned in Chapter 2.

6.2 Assessment of the Suitability of the Data for Factor Analysis

Two sophisticated statistical tests can be used to assess the factorability of the data: the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity for the overall significance of all correlations among the variables. The KMO value should be greater than 0.5 and the Bartlett's test should be significant ($p < .05$) for good and reliable factors (Field, 2009; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014).

The factor loadings are worth consideration. Hair *et al.* (2010) suggest that factor loadings represent the degree of correlation of each variable with each factor and the main objective of factor analysis is to maximize the association between variables and factors. Stevens (2009) argues that the absolute magnitude and the number of loadings are essential elements in determining reliable components. Taking into account many requirements in this regard, such as that each factor should have at least three items, Hair *et al.* (2010) emphasize the role of the researcher's judgment as to the adequacy of the solution and representation of the structure of the variables and ability to meet the goals of the researcher.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) argue that the greater the loading of a variable, its correlation with other variables, the more it is a pure measure of the factor. It can be obtained from the component matrix as part of the outputs from factor analysis. As a rule of thumb, .40 or greater is considered the minimum acceptable loading (Stevens, 2009). More specifically, while Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) indicate that it should be .32 or larger, Stevens (2009) takes sample size into account and recommends that for a sample size of 100 a loading should be greater than .512, and for 300 it should be more than .298.

In the present study, all questionnaires were designed based on 5-point Likert-type scales, which means that they were in line with Field's (2009) suggestion mentioned previously. Moreover, the main data were collected from a sufficient sample size for both subsamples; managers and employees. These numbers of sample are within the recommended range of sample size, as mentioned above; therefore are adequate for using factor analysis.

Additionally, to verify that the data set is suitable for factor analysis, the KMO and Bartlett's test of scales were checked for the sample. The results, which are presented in Table 6.1, show that all KMO values ranged between .895-.963. These values exceeded the recommended value as mentioned above. The table also shows that all Bartlett's test results were highly significant ($p < .001$). Accordingly, factor analysis was appropriate for these data.

Table 6.1: KMO and Bartlett's Test of Scales (N=410)

Scales	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
		Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Resistance to Organisational Change	.936	2576.896	105	.000
Leader-Member Exchange	.895	1289.550	21	.000
Transformational Leadership	.963	6571.181	231	.000
Job Satisfaction	.919	3148.631	190	.000
Organisational Commitment	.911	2833.707	153	.000

In addition, based on the maximum likelihood method of extraction, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to ensure the validity of the data collected and to confirm that items under investigation were loaded similarly to

the literature (Hair *et al.*, 2010). In this sense, Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) indicate that this method is considered useful for this type of analysis. This analysis also was conducted with Varimax rotation and the Eigen value greater than 1 was selected for the retention of all scale items. Finally, factor loadings were specified at the value of .40.

The results of factors loading, presented in Table 6.2, show that all loading values of scales ranged between .424 and .864, indicating that each scale clearly was above the minimum level of .40. Moreover, the results indicate that all items of the resistance to organisational change construct loaded above 0.40, except that there was no loading for item R14. This item was “I present my objections regarding the change to management”. Moreover, the job satisfaction construct and organisational commitment construct had some items with values less than 0.40. There were two such items in the former construct and four in the latter construct. These items were item JS7: “Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience”, item JS13: My pay and the amount of work I do, item OC6: “I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now”, item OC7: “Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now”, item OC10: “I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation”, and item OC17: “One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives”. All these unloaded items were removed from the analysis.

Table 6.2: Factors Loading, Mean, Standard Deviation, and Reliability of each scale (N=410)

Scale	Scale Items	Mean	SD	Loadings	Cronbach’s Alpha
Resistance to Organisational Change	R1	2.38	.807	.536	.91
	R2	2.36	.906	.647	
	R3	2.24	.902	.654	
	R4	1.97	.938	.599	
	R5	2.49	.779	.588	
	R6	2.17	.915	.696	
	R7	2.44	.939	.694	
	R8	2.22	.966	.786	
	R9	2.28	.785	.594	
	R10	2.49	.807	.589	
	R11	2.39	.922	.661	
	R12	2.29	.923	.761	
	R13	2.33	.834	.610	
	R15	2.25	.881	.684	

Scale	Scale Items	Mean	SD	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Leader-Member Exchange	LMX1	3.76	.914	.578	.88
	LMX2	3.70	1.083	.790	
	LMX3	3.93	.989	.656	
	LMX4	3.65	1.001	.742	
	LMX5	2.94	1.218	.674	
	LMX6	3.62	1.024	.730	
	LMX7	3.98	1.026	.821	
Transformational Leadership	TL1	3.62	.969	.763	.96
	TL2	3.60	1.092	.793	
	TL3	3.66	1.024	.825	
	TL4	3.88	.951	.649	
	TL5	3.96	.994	.714	
	TL6	3.58	1.013	.751	
	TL7	3.57	1.024	.763	
	TL8	3.58	1.086	.785	
	TL9	3.71	1.098	.848	
	TL10	3.88	.993	.770	
	TL11	3.75	1.123	.575	
	TL12	3.82	1.111	.536	
	TL13	3.26	1.066	.510	
	TL14	3.44	1.029	.715	
	TL15	3.33	1.089	.748	
	TL16	3.52	1.040	.844	
	TL17	3.40	1.059	.463	
	TL18	3.41	1.078	.655	
	TL19	3.36	1.052	.693	
	TL20	3.41	1.005	.748	
	TL21	3.53	1.115	.864	
	TL22	3.47	1.079	.775	

Table 6.2 (continued)

Scale	Scale Items	Mean	SD	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha		
Job Satisfaction	JS1	3.81	.965	.581	.91		
	JS2	3.63	1.025	.595			
	JS3	3.65	1.076	.577			
	JS4	3.72	.883	.580			
	JS5	3.77	.955	.508			
	JS6	3.57	1.082	.603			
	JS8	4.01	1.034	.424			
	JS9	3.18	1.084	.652			
	JS10	3.26	1.121	.695			
	JS11	3.67	.967	.660			
	JS12	3.47	.996	.559			
	JS14	3.37	1.044	.684			
	JS15	3.37	1.029	.664			
	JS16	3.42	1.121	.648			
	JS17	3.45	1.008	.677			
	JS18	3.44	.960	.683			
	JS19	2.94	1.226	.480			
	JS20	3.78	1.011	.454			
	Organisational Commitment	OC1	3.55	1.053		.606	.89
		OC2	3.81	.808		.564	
OC3		3.65	.958	.492			
OC4		3.82	1.046	.683			
OC5		3.74	.797	.448			
OC8		3.54	1.037	.515			
OC9		3.90	.995	.651			
OC11		3.89	.978	.745			
OC12		3.53	1.033	.593			
OC13		3.53	.720	.503			
OC14		3.44	.965	.505			
OC15		3.80	.952	.731			
OC16		3.90	.902	.807			
OC18		3.69	1.011	.691			

Table 6.2 (continued)

Moreover, Cronbach's Alpha test was used to assess reliability of the data. This test was used after the above stage of removing items. The results, as can be seen in Table 6.2, show that all values are at an acceptable level (see e.g., Field, 2009; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010), ranging from .88 to .96.

6.3 PLS-SEM Analysis Results

To assess the proposed theoretical model of the present study, a PLS-SEM (using SmartPLS Version 3.0) was used to empirically test and estimate both the measurement (relationships between indicators and their construct or latent variables) and the structural model (relationships between constructs). The choice of the PLS-SEM technique is due to the nature of the study and the size and complexity of the model (Hair *et al.*, 2014a; Duarte and Raposo, 2010). This analytical technique has been used by a growing number of researchers from various social sciences disciplines, including organisational behaviour (Henseler *et al.*, 2009), which is the main area of the present study.

Moreover, data analysis in this study was based on considering participants as a one group. This method is based on the results of multi-group analyses, which will be shown in section 6.6.3. As will be presented later, PLS multi-group analyses revealed no differences among all groups in the effects of the main factors (leader-member exchange, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment) on resistance to organisational change. Finally, this study included five latent variables with reflective measurements (resistance to organisational change, leader-member exchange, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment). Further details of the assessment of these measurements and the structural model are discussed in the following sections.

6.3.1 Assessing PLS-SEM Measurement Model Results

To ensure that a reflective measurement is reliable and valid before any further assessment of structural model, evaluation of such a measurement should include two main aspects of validation: reliability and validity of the measurement (Henseler *et al.*, 2009; Hulland, 1999). Reflective measurement reliability can be evaluated by checking outer loadings to assess individual indicator reliability and composite reliability to evaluate internal consistency. While composite reliability values of 0.708 or higher are considered as satisfactory, values below 0.60 indicate a lack of internal consistency reliability. Moreover, the outer loadings should be 0.708 or higher and indicators with outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 should be considered for removal from the scale only when deleting the indicator(s) leads to an increase in the value of composite reliability and AVE or does not affect the content validity of the construct (Hair *et al.*, 2011; Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

On the other hand, the average variance extracted (AVE) can be used to evaluate convergent validity and the Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings can be examined to assess discriminant validity (Hair *et al.*, 2014a;

Hulland, 1999). An AVE value of 0.50 or higher is required to establish the convergent validity, whilst for cross loadings, an indicator's outer loadings on the associated construct should be more than all of its loadings on other constructs. The Fornell-Larcker criterion compares the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations. The latter should be greater than its highest correlation with any other constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Table 6.3 shows PLS-SEM results for reflective measurements used in the current study. The following sections discuss these results in details:

1. Job Satisfaction (JS)

It was found that the JS construct did not reach the minimum level of AVE of 0.50, while the composite reliability value was clearly higher than 0.708. To increase the value of AVE to be more than the minimum level, some indicators were removed. These indicators were JS8 (0.429), JS20 (0.490), JS19 (0.495), JS5 (0.528), JS12 (0.564), JS1 (0.622), and JS4 (0.626). In addition, indicators JS3 and JS6 were removed due to having cross loadings with the TL construct. This step led to increase the square root of AVE to be more than the construct's highest correlation with any other construct in the model, which resulted in achieving good validity of this construct.

2. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Although composite reliability of the LMX construct (0.905) clearly exceeded the recommended value as mentioned previously, indicators LMX1 (0.640) and LMX3 (0.693) (see Table 6.3) had outer loadings less than the threshold of 0.708, but they were generally within the acceptable range (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). These indicators were retained because their deletion could affect the content validity of the construct, since these indicators measure some aspects of the relationships between supervisors and their subordinates.

The AVE value of this construct (0.580) is above the required minimum level of 0.50. Moreover, the results of Fornell-Larcker criterion (see Table 6.4) and the cross loadings indicate that the root of the AVE is higher than its highest correlation with any other constructs and an indicator's outer loading on this construct is higher than all its cross loadings with other constructs. Thus, these results provide evidence for the construct's discriminant validity (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

3. Organisational Commitment (OC)

PL-SEM results indicated that the AVE value for the OC construct was less than the minimum threshold value of 0.50; at 0.422. Removing some indicators (OC3, OC5, OC8, OC12, and OC14) resulted in a value of 0.509, which exceeds the minimum acceptable level. Moreover, the composite reliability of the OC construct is 0.902, demonstrating that the construct has a high level of internal consistency reliability.

Furthermore, the results shown in Table 6.4 revealed that discriminant validity is established for the OC construct. More specifically, based on the results of Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings, the square root of AVE for this construct (0.713) is higher than its correlations with other constructs (see Table 6.4), while the cross loadings indicate that an indicator's outer loading on this construct is higher than all its cross-loadings with other constructs.

4. Resistance to Organisational Change (ROC)

The AVE value for the ROC construct was found to be less than the minimum acceptable value of 0.50. Therefore, to achieve this level, four indicators with lower outer loadings were removed. These indicators were R9, R10, R1, and R5 (0.591, 0.598, 0.620, and 0.637 respectively). Although their outer loadings were more than 0.40, removing these indicators led to increasing the value of AVE to exceed the minimum required value. It is worth noting that although the indicator R4 had a lower outer loading (0.606) than R5 (with outer loading 0.637), it was retained for two reasons. First, taking into account the three sub-dimensions of resistance mentioned previously in Chapter 2 (affective, behavioural, and cognitive), removing this indicator (R4) would decrease the number of indicators measuring behavioural resistance to be just two indicators (R7 and R11). Second, deleting this indicator may affect the content validity of this sub-dimension. Moreover, the composite reliability of this construct, as presented in Table 6.3, is 0.912, which obviously is greater than the recommended value of 0.708.

Finally, as can be seen in Table 6.4, the square root of AVE for the ROC construct is found to be 0.722, which is larger than the correlation values in the column of ROC and also larger than those in its row. This result, as well as the cross loading results, suggests that discriminant validity is well established for this construct.

5. Transformational Leadership (TL)

The results shown in Table 6.3 reveal that the AVE value for TL construct is more than the minimum acceptable value of 0.50, while the composite reliability of such construct is 0.963, which obviously exceeds the recommended threshold value of 0.708. It is worth noting that all indicators perform remarkably well, as their loadings ranged from 0.477 to 0.859. Consequently, there is no need to delete indicators with outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70.

Table 6.3: Results for the Measurement Model

Latent Variable	Indicators	Loadings	Composite Reliability	AVE
Job Satisfaction (JS)	JS10	0.718	0.901	0.504
	JS11	0.695		
	JS14	0.730		
	JS15	0.733		
	JS16	0.707		
	JS17	0.755		
	JS18	0.714		
	JS2	0.642		
	JS9	0.688		
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)	LMX1	0.639	0.906	0.580
	LMX2	0.820		
	LMX3	0.694		
	LMX4	0.787		
	LMX5	0.736		
	LMX6	0.787		
	LMX7	0.848		
Organisational Commitment (OC)	OC1	0.693	0.902	0.509
	OC11	0.769		
	OC13	0.537		
	OC15	0.735		
	OC16	0.811		
	OC18	0.748		
	OC2	0.607		
	OC4	0.757		
	OC9	0.721		

Latent Variable	Indicators	Loadings	Composite Reliability	AVE
Resistance to Organisational Change (ROC)	R11	0.721	0.912	0.511
	R12	0.793		
	R13	0.659		
	R15	0.738		
	R2	0.703		
	R3	0.669		
	R4	0.637		
	R6	0.724		
	R7	0.744		
	R8	0.810		
Transformational Leadership (TL)	TL1	0.779	0.963	0.547
	TL10	0.776		
	TL11	0.610		
	TL12	0.573		
	TL13	0.528		
	TL14	0.731		
	TL15	0.768		
	TL16	0.844		
	TL17	0.477		
	TL18	0.684		
	TL19	0.721		
	TL2	0.807		
	TL20	0.759		
	TL21	0.859		
	TL22	0.782		
	TL3	0.826		
	TL4	0.672		
	TL5	0.739		
	TL6	0.772		
	TL7	0.775		
TL8	0.799			
TL9	0.842			

Table 6.3 (continued)

Furthermore, the results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings support the discriminant validity of the TL construct (see Table 6.4). It can be seen from the table that the square root of the AVE for each construct, as well as cross loading results, are higher than the correlations of other constructs,

providing evidence for all constructs' discriminant validity. Consequently, all reflective measurements model evaluation criteria have been met, providing support for the measures' reliability and validity (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). Therefore, the analysis can proceed to the assessment of the structural model, which will be discussed in the next section.

Table 6.4: Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	JS	LMX	OC	ROC	TL
JS	0.710				
LMX	0.498	0.762			
OC	0.487	0.409	0.713		
ROC	-0.204	-0.193	-0.265	0.722	
TL	0.579	0.667	0.345	-0.100	0.740

Note: JS=Job Satisfaction, LMX=Leader-Member Exchange, OC=Organisational Commitment, ROC=Resistance to Organisational Change, TL=Transformational Leadership. The square root of the AVE values are on the diagonal (in bold).

6.3.2 Assessing PLS-SEM Structural Model Results

Assessment of the structural model results enables the researcher to determine how well empirical data support the theory/concept and therefore to decide if a theory/concept has been empirically confirmed. Moreover, it involves examining the model's predictive capabilities to predict endogenous constructs and the relationships between the constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

According to Hair and his colleagues (2011, 2014a, 2014b) and Henseler *et al.* (2009), there are five fundamental criteria for assessing the structural model: the level of coefficients of determination (R^2); the significance of the path coefficients; the f^2 effect size; the predictive relevance (Q^2); and the q^2 effect size. Hair *et al.* (2014b) emphasize that prior to this assessment, it is essential to test the inner model for potential collinearity issues. Therefore, these criteria will be addressed in the following sections:

1) Collinearity Assessment

To assess collinearity, by using IBM SPSS, each set of predictor constructs was examined separately with its dependent variable. These sets of predictors are: 1) LMX, TL, JS, and OC as predictors of ROC; 2) LMX and TL as predictors of JS; 3) LMX and TL as predictors of OC; and 4) JS and OC as predictors of ROC.

Table 6.5 shows the results of collinearity assessment. According to these results, all tolerance and VIF values are clearly above the threshold of tolerance value (0.20) and below the maximum value required for VIF (5). For example, VIF values ranged between 1.315 (JS and OC) and 2.049 (TL), providing confidence that collinearity among predictor constructs is not an issue in the structural model of the present study (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Table 6.5: Collinearity Assessment

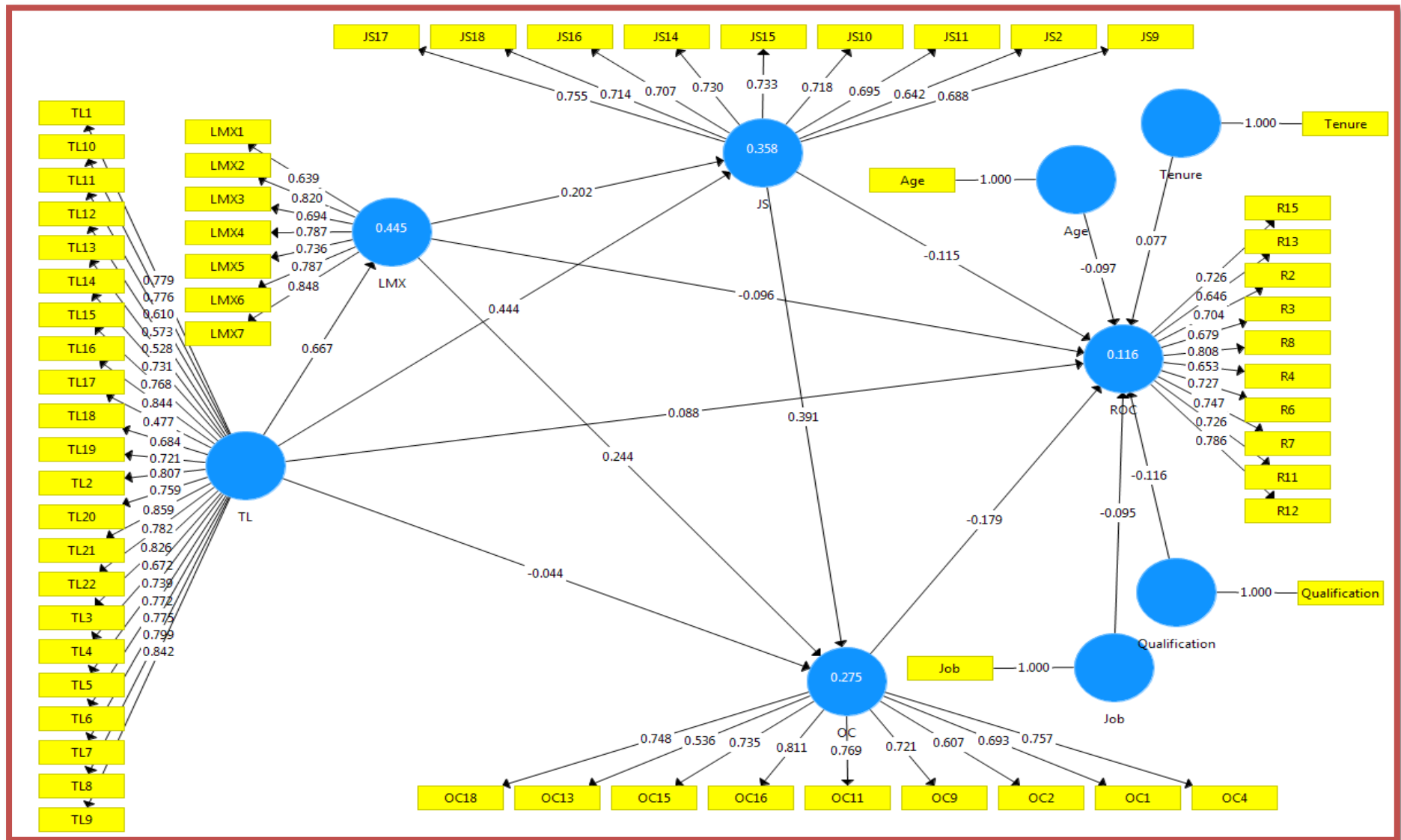
First Set			Second Set		
Constructs	Tolerance	VIF	Constructs	Tolerance	VIF
LMX	.525	1.906	LMX	.569	1.758
TL	.488	2.049	TL	.569	1.758
JS	.566	1.768			
OC	.726	1.377			
Third Set			Fourth Set		
Constructs	Tolerance	VIF	Constructs	Tolerance	VIF
LMX	.569	1.758	JS	.761	1.315
TL	.569	1.758	OC	.761	1.315

2) Coefficient of Determination (R^2 value)

Hair *et al.* (2014a) argue that the coefficient of determination (R^2 value) is considered the most commonly used measure to evaluate the structural model. It measures the model's predictive accuracy and is calculated as the squared correlation between a specific endogenous construct's actual and predicted values (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). The closer the R^2 value to one, the higher the levels of predictive accuracy (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). According to Hair *et al.* (2011), coefficients of determination (R^2 values) of 0.75, 0.50, or 0.25 for endogenous latent variables in the structural model can be described as substantial, moderate, or weak, respectively.

Figure 6.2 presents the results of R^2 value in the current study. Evaluating these results indicates that the R^2 values of LMX (0.45), JS (0.36), and OC (0.28) can be considered moderate, while the R^2 value of ROC (0.12) is weak (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Figure 6.2: PLS-SEM Results of R² Value



3) Structural Model Path Coefficients

The path coefficients that are statistically significant and close to +1 represent strong positive relationships (and the converse applies for negative values), while the closer the estimated coefficients are to zero, the weaker the relationships (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). In this regard, Hair *et al.* (2011) suggest that paths that are significant and show signs in the hypothesized direction empirically support the proposed causal relationship, whereas paths that are nonsignificant or show signs contrary to the hypothesized direction do not support a prior hypothesis. Bootstrapping analysis allows for the statistical testing of hypotheses in PL-SEM (Hair *et al.*, 2011).

Generally, all cases of exogenous constructs (independent variables) that are significantly related to endogenous constructs (dependent variables) contribute to explaining the variation in the latter, while, in contrast, an exogenous construct that is not significantly related to an endogenous construct does not contribute to explaining the latter (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Running the bootstrapping procedure (410 bootstrap cases and 5000 bootstrap samples, no sign changes option) reveals that eight out of fourteen structural relationships are significant. Table 6.6 displays the path coefficients, the t values, their significance levels, and p values of these structural relationships. The results, as can be seen in Table 6.6 as well as in Figure 6.3, show that organisational commitment has a negative significant relationship with resistance to organisational change, with a path coefficient of -0.20, while surprisingly other constructs have no significant effect on resistance. These results indicate that the organisations under investigation should exert efforts to enhance organisational commitment among employees and strengthen it within the workplace, more than increasing other factors, to alleviate resistance to organisational change. Moreover, it is found that job and qualifications were negatively related to resistance with path coefficients of -0.10 ($p < 0.05$) and -0.12 ($p < 0.05$), respectively, whilst age and tenure had no significant effect on the resistance.

On the other hand, it can be seen that job satisfaction is the strongest factor influencing organisational commitment, followed by the exchange relationships between leaders and followers, with path coefficients of 0.39 and 0.24, respectively, whilst unexpectedly there is no significant relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the table shows that transformational leadership, with a path coefficient of 0.44, is a

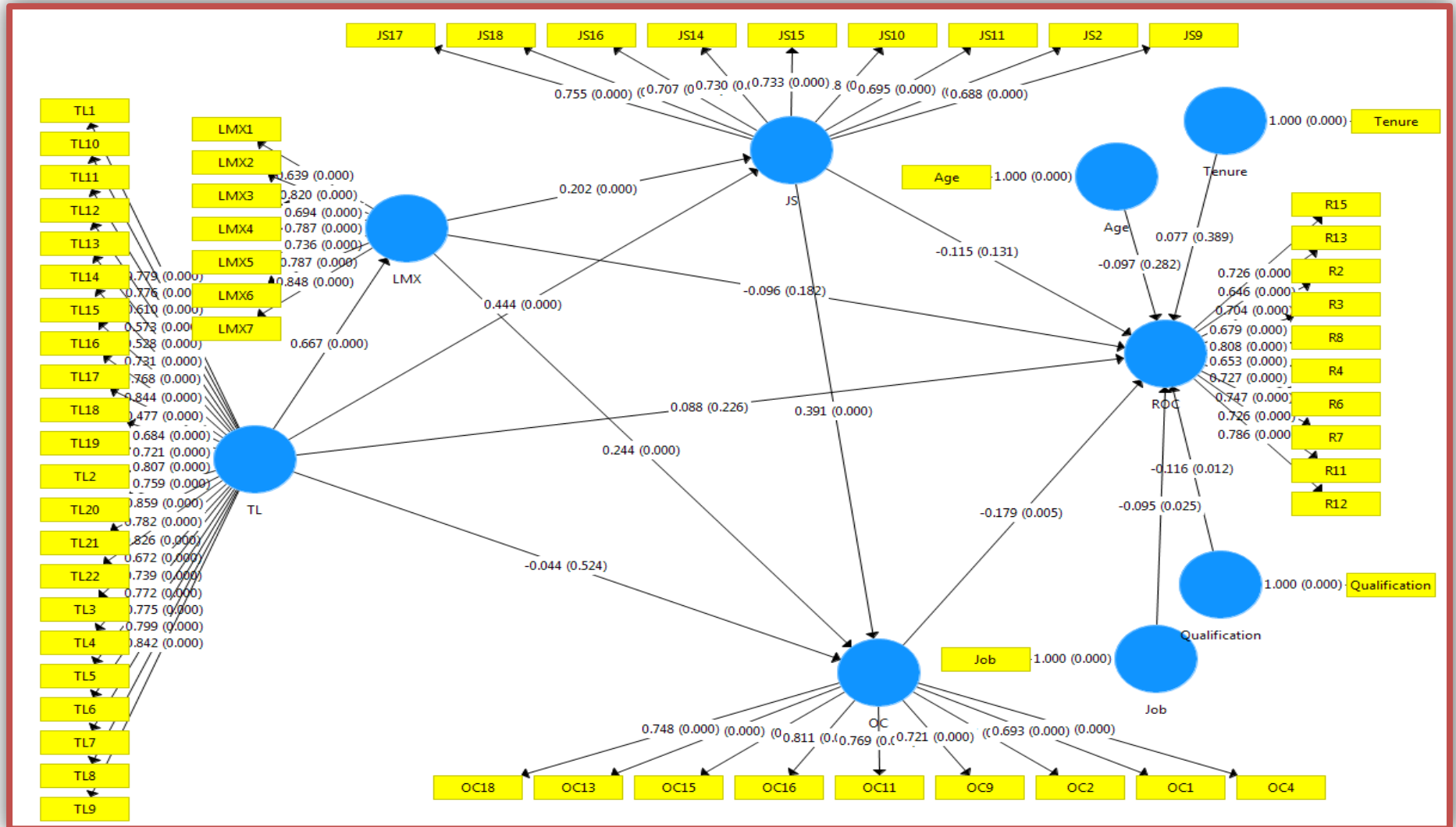
stronger influential factor on job satisfaction than leader-member exchange relationship, with a path coefficient of 0.20. These results are illustrated in Figure 6.3.

Table 6.6: Significance Testing Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients

Relationship	Path Coefficients	t Values	Significance Levels	p Values
Age → ROC	-0.10	1.077	NS	0.282
JS → OC	0.39	6.899	**	0.000
JS → ROC	-0.12	1.511	NS	0.131
Job → ROC	-0.10	2.240	*	0.025
LMX → JS	0.20	3.686	**	0.000
LMX → OC	0.24	4.139	**	0.000
LMX → ROC	-0.10	1.334	NS	0.182
OC → ROC	-0.18	2.818	**	0.005
Qualification → ROC	-0.12	2.523	*	0.012
TL → JS	0.44	8.201	**	0.000
TL → LMX	0.67	20.384	**	0.000
TL → OC	-0.04	0.637	NS	0.524
TL → ROC	0.09	1.210	NS	0.226
Tenure → ROC	0.08	0.861	NS	0.389

Note: All path coefficients values have been rounded to two decimal places. NS = not significant. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Figure 6.3: PLS-SEM Results of Path Coefficients



4) Effect Size f^2

According to Hair *et al.* (2014a), the effect size f^2 allows assessing an exogenous construct's contribution to an endogenous latent variable's R^2 value. In other words, it concentrates on evaluating whether omitting a specific exogenous variable from the model has a substantive impact on the endogenous constructs. The f^2 values of 0.35, 0.15, and 0.02, indicate an exogenous construct's large, medium, or small effect, respectively, on an endogenous construct (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Table 6.7 summarises PL-SEM outcomes of the effect size f^2 of the current study. According to the results of this criterion, the exogenous constructs JS, LMX, and TL for explaining endogenous construct of ROC have very small f^2 effect sizes of 0.008, 0.005, and 0.004, respectively, while the effect size of the construct of OC on the endogenous construct ROC is small (0.024). Moreover, the exogenous construct of JS for explaining the endogenous construct OC has a small f^2 effect size of 0.135, whereas the effect sizes of the constructs LMX (0.044) and TL (0.001) on the same endogenous construct are small and very small, respectively. Furthermore, while the effect sizes of the constructs TL (0.170) and LMX (0.035) are medium and small, respectively, for explaining endogenous construct of JS, the exogenous construct of TL for explaining the endogenous construct of LMX has a very large f^2 effect size of 0.802. Finally, all demographic factors (age, job, qualification, and tenure) have very small f^2 effect sizes of 0.003, 0.009, 0.014, and 0.002 respectively (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Lastly, based on these results, the OC construct has the highest effect size f^2 for explaining the ROC construct, while the JS construct has the highest effect size f^2 for explaining the OC construct (see Table 6.7).

Table 6.7: Results of the Effect Size f^2

	JS	LMX	OC	ROC
JS	-	-	0.135	0.008
LMX	0.035	-	0.044	0.005
OC	-	-	-	0.024
TL	0.170	0.802	0.001	0.004
Age	-	-	-	0.003
Job	-	-	-	0.009
Qualification	-	-	-	0.014
Tenure	-	-	-	0.002

5) Predictive Relevance (Q^2) and q^2 Effect Sizes

Generally, Q^2 values larger than zero for a particular endogenous construct indicate the path model's predictive relevance for this particular construct (Hair *et al.*, 2011, 2014a). Moreover, q^2 effect size of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 respectively indicate that an exogenous construct has a small, medium, or large predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Blindfolding, with omission distance of 7, was utilised to assess the model's predictive relevance for each of the endogenous constructs. Based on results shown in Table 6.8, the predictive relevance Q^2 values of all endogenous constructs are above zero. Specifically, LMX has the highest value of 0.252, JS has a value of 0.171, and OC has a value of 0.130, while ROC has the lowest value of 0.055, thus providing support for the model's predictive relevance (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Table 6.8: Results of Q^2 Values

Endogenous Latent Variable	Q^2 Value
JS	0.171
LMX	0.252
OC	0.130
ROC	0.055

Furthermore, because the SmartPLS does not provide q^2 effect sizes, they were computed manually. Table 6.9 shows values of the effect size q^2 . According to the results presented in this table, all exogenous constructs of JS, LMX, OC, and TL (0.003, 0.002, 0.011, and 0.001, respectively) have very small predictive relevance for the ROC construct. Moreover, the exogenous constructs of LMX (0.018) and TL (0.001) have very small predictive relevance for the OC construct, whereas the JS construct has a small (0.053) predictive relevance for the same construct.

Additionally, while the LMX construct has very small predictive relevance (0.011) for the JS construct, the exogenous construct of TL has a small (0.063) predictive relevance for the same construct. Based on these results, the TL construct has the largest effect size q^2 for the JS construct. Simultaneously, this construct has the smallest effect size q^2 for the ROC and OC constructs (see Table 6.9). Consequently, the results presented in the preceding sections provide sufficient assessment of the structural model of the current study.

Table 6.9: Results of q^2 Effect Sizes

	JS	OC	ROC
JS	-	0.053	0.003
LMX	0.011	0.018	0.002
OC	-	-	0.011
TL	0.063	0.001	0.001

6.4 Results of the Structural Model

While the structural model path coefficients were discussed previously, this section highlights the model's total effects and its indirect effects. According to Hair *et al.* (2014a), the total effects of a relationship between two constructs is the sum of all the direct and indirect effects in the structural model. This means that the total effect of the relationship between, for example, TL and ROC is the sum of: (1) TL→ROC (direct) +(2) TL→LMX→ROC (indirect) +(3) TL→JS→ROC (indirect) +(4) TL→OC→ROC (indirect) +(5) TL→LMX→JS→ROC (indirect) +(6) TL→LMX→OC→ROC (indirect) +(7) TL→LMX→JS→OC→ROC (indirect). It allows researchers to evaluate how strongly each exogenous constructs influences the key target variable, endogenous construct, via the mediating constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Table 6.10 presents the results of the total effects of the full model used in the present study. Speaking generally, it is obvious that all total effects are significant, except the total effects of age and tenure on ROC. These results are relatively different compared to the results of the structural model path coefficients. For example, whilst the path relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment is (-0.04, $p>0.05$), the total effect of this relationship is (0.35, $p<0.05$). This means that the total effects may absorb some of the direct effect between these constructs. More specifically, job satisfaction has the strongest total effect on resistance to organisational change (-0.19), followed by organisational commitment (-0.18) and leader-member exchange (-0.18), then transformational leadership (-0.11).

Table 6.10: Significance Testing Results of the Total Effects

Relationship	Path Coefficients	t Values	Significance Levels	p Values
Age → ROC	-0.10	1.077	NS	0.282
JS → OC	0.39	6.899	**	0.000
JS → ROC	-0.19	2.538	*	0.011
Job → ROC	-0.10	2.240	*	0.025
LMX → JS	0.20	3.686	**	0.000
LMX → OC	0.32	5.406	**	0.000
LMX → ROC	-0.18	2.488	*	0.013
OC → ROC	-0.18	2.818	**	0.005
Qualification → ROC	-0.12	2.523	*	0.012
TL → JS	0.58	17.313	**	0.000
TL → LMX	0.67	20.384	**	0.000
TL → OC	0.35	6.751	**	0.000
TL → ROC	-0.11	1.975	*	0.048
Tenure → ROC	0.08	0.861	NS	0.389

Note: All path coefficients values have been rounded to two decimal places. NS = not significant. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Even more, the significant indirect effects of the structural model are required to conclude that job satisfaction and organisational commitment generally mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). The PLS-SEM outcomes of indirect effects, as presented in Table 6.11, indicate that all indirect effects have p value less than 0.01, providing support for such a requirement. Examining the mediating role of such mediators requires some steps to be followed. The following section addresses the examination of the role of mediators.

Table 6.11: Significance Testing Results of the Indirect Effects in the Full Model

Relationship	Indirect Effect	t Values	Significance Levels	p Values
Age → ROC				
JS → OC				
JS → ROC	-0.07	2.595	**	0.009
Job → ROC				
LMX → JS				
LMX → OC	0.08	3.043	**	0.002
LMX → ROC	-0.08	3.314	**	0.002
OC → ROC				
Qualification → ROC				
TL → JS	0.14	3.519	**	0.000
TL → LMX				
TL → OC	0.39	8.675	**	0.000
TL → ROC	-0.19	3.143	**	0.002
Tenure → ROC				

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

6.5 Testing Direct and Indirect Effects

This section aims at determining or evaluating how strongly each exogenous construct, leader-member exchange (LMX) and transformational leadership (TL), impacts resistance to organisational change (ROC) directly and indirectly via the mediating role of job satisfaction (JS) and organisational commitment (OC). Also, this section seeks to examine the effects of demographic factors on resistance to organisational change. Therefore, it includes three subsections as follows:

6.5.1 The Direct Effects of the Main Constructs on Resistance to Organisational Change

Generally, according to Cohen (1988) and Field (2009), a correlation coefficient of 0 (zero) means that there is no effect, and a value of 1 means that there is a perfect effect, while $r \leq 0.10$, $r \leq 0.30$, $r \geq 0.50$ are considered small, moderate, and large or strong effect, respectively. Tables 6.12 and 6.13 show that organisational commitment has the strongest direct effect on resistance to organisational change (-0.279, $p < 0.01$), followed by job satisfaction (-0.230, $p < 0.01$), leader-member exchange (-0.200, $p < 0.01$), then transformational leadership (-0.168, $p < 0.05$), yet all these negative relationships are considered

moderate. This reflects that, from a direct effect perspective, organisational commitment and job satisfaction are more influential on resistance to organisational change than both leadership styles mentioned. Notably, the results shown in Table 6.13 suggest that transformational leadership has a strong and significant positive relationship with leader-member exchange (0.669, $p < 0.01$) and job satisfaction (0.591, $p < 0.01$), while it has moderate and significant positive relationship with organisational commitment (0.362, $p < 0.01$). What is more, it is found that job satisfaction has a strong and positive relationship with organisational commitment (0.496, $p < 0.01$), whilst leader-member exchange has a strong and significant positive relationship with job satisfaction (0.511, $p < 0.01$) and it is moderately and positively correlated with organisational commitment (0.412, $p < 0.01$).

Thus, hypotheses 1 to 4 have been empirically substantiated. Furthermore, the significance level of direct effects between constructs, as presented in Table 6.12, indicates that all direct effects have p value of less than 0.05, providing support for the requirement previously mentioned.

Table 6.12: Results of Testing the Hypotheses from 1 to 4

Hypotheses		Path Coefficients	t Value	p Value*	Outcome
H1	There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change.	-0.230	4.931	0.000	Supported
H2	There is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and resistance to organisational change.	-0.279	6.774	0.000	Supported
H3	There is a negative relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change.	-0.200	4.391	0.000	Supported
H4	There is a negative relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change.	-0.168	2.215	0.027	Supported

*The significance of the p value is determined at the 0.001, 0.01 or 0.05 levels (2-tailed)

6.5.2 The Indirect Effects of the Main Constructs on Resistance to Organisational Change

In regard to testing the mediation role, according to Hair *et al.* (2014a), the procedure for testing mediating effects should follow the next steps sequentially:

1/ The direct path relationship between exogenous and endogenous should be significant, if the mediator is not included in the model, to continue the mediating analysis.

2/ After including the mediator, the indirect effect must be significant.

3/ The final analysis step is to determine the strength of mediation. This can be done by computing the variance accounted for (VAF). This criterion is the size of the indirect effect relative to the total effect or:

$$VAF = \frac{\text{Indirect Effect}}{\text{Total Effect}}$$

A VAF value of more than 80% suggests that there is full mediation, while when the VAF is between 80-20%, it indicates there is a partial mediation. In contrast, when the VAF is less than 20%, this means there is no mediation (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Since each hypothesis of mediators focuses on predicting a mediating role of a specific construct between two constructs, as mentioned previously, the total effect of the relationship between the exogenous construct and the endogenous construct is the sum of all the direct and indirect effects between them. For example, the total effect of the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change is the sum of: (1) JS→ROC (direct) + (2) JS→OC→ROC (indirect). Thus, to examine the mediators' effects in the current study, the approach described above was followed by examining each mediator separately (Klarner *et al.*, 2013; Liao *et al.*, 2009), leading to the results presented in Table 6.13. The table illustrates the direct and indirect effects between constructs used in the current study and at the same time shows the VAF values of mediations. It is obvious that all direct path relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables have significantly negative relationships, as do the indirect effects.

More specifically, after calculating the VAF value, it is found that job satisfaction has partial mediation (36.9%) between leader-member exchange

and resistance to organisational change, as well as full mediation (>80%) between transformational leadership and resistance, supporting hypotheses 5a and 5b, respectively. On the other hand, the results show that organisational commitment partially mediates (49.3%) the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change and also partially mediates (48.9%) the relationship between leader-member exchange and resistance, while it fully mediates (>80%) the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance. Hence, these results provide empirical evidence for hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c, respectively. Moreover, leader-member exchange fully mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance, which provides empirical evidence for hypothesis 7.

Table 6.13: Analysis of Mediating Effects of All Mediators

Source Constructs	The Mediators											
	Job Satisfaction				Organisational Commitment				Leader-Member Exchange			
	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	VAF	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	VAF	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	VAF
LMX → ROC	-0.200***	-0.072*	-0.195***	0.369 (36.9% Partial Mediation)	-0.200**	-0.095***	-0.194***	0.489 (48.9% Partial Mediation)	-			
TL → ROC	-0.168*	-0.132**	-0.105 (NS)	1.25 (> 80% Full Mediation)	-0.168*	-0.095***	-0.114*	0.833 (> 80% Full Mediation)	-0.168*	-0.156**	-0.098 (NS)	1.59 (> 80% Full Mediation)
JS → ROC	-				-0.230***	-0.105***	-0.213***	0.493 (49.3% Partial Mediation)	-			

Note: LMX= Leader-Member Exchange, JS= Job Satisfaction, TL= Transformational Leadership, ROC= Resistance to Organisational Change, NS= not significant. *p< .05. **p< .01, ***p< .001 (2-tailed).

OC→ROC (-0.279, p<0.001).

TL→LMX (0.669, p<0.001).

TL→JS (0.591, p<0.001).

TL→OC (0.362, p<0.001).

JS→OC (0.496, p<0.001).

LMX→JS (0.511, p<0.001).

LMX→OC (0.412, p<0.001).

Accordingly, the results shown in Table 6.13 indicate that all VAF values more than 20%, provide evidence to support hypotheses from 5a to 7. Table 6.14 illustrates all the results of testing the hypotheses related to the mediators, while Figure 6.4 below displays these results more clearly.

Table 6.14: Results of Testing the Hypotheses from 5a to 7 (The Mediators)

Hypotheses		VAF*	Outcome
H5a	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change.	0.369 (36.9%)	Supported (Partial Mediation)
H5b	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change.	> 80%	Supported (Full Mediation)
H6a	Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change.	0.493 (49.3%)	Supported (Partial Mediation)
H6b	Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change.	0.489 (48.9%)	Supported (Partial Mediation)
H6c	Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change.	> 80%	Supported (Full Mediation)
H7	LMX mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change.	> 80%	Supported (Full Mediation)

*VAF value of: >80% (full mediation), 80-20% (partial mediation), and <20% (no mediation).

6.5.3 Demographic Factors' Effects on Resistance to Organisational Change

The results of PLS, show that unexpectedly, three out of four demographic factors negatively affect resistance to organisational change, while one of them is not related to resistance. As can be seen in Table 6.15, age of participants has a negative relationship with resistance to organisational change (-0.147,

$p < 0.01$). This means that, contrary to hypothesis 8a, younger participants are more resistant to organisational change than older participants are. Moreover, although it is significant at the level of < 0.10 , the results suggest that tenure is not related to resistance (-0.113 , $p > 0.05$), which is contrary to hypothesis 8b.

Furthermore, the level of education has a negative relationship with resistance (-0.129 , $p < 0.01$), which means that having a higher education degree is associated with less resistance to change. This result obviously supports H8c, that level of education is negatively associated with resistance to organisational change. Finally, level of job is related negatively to resistance (-0.186 , $p < 0.01$), which means that employees are more resistant to the change than managers are (employee=1, manager=2). Although this result has a level of significance less than 0.001, it is contrary to the hypothesis, which assumed level of job would be positively associated with resistance to organisational change.

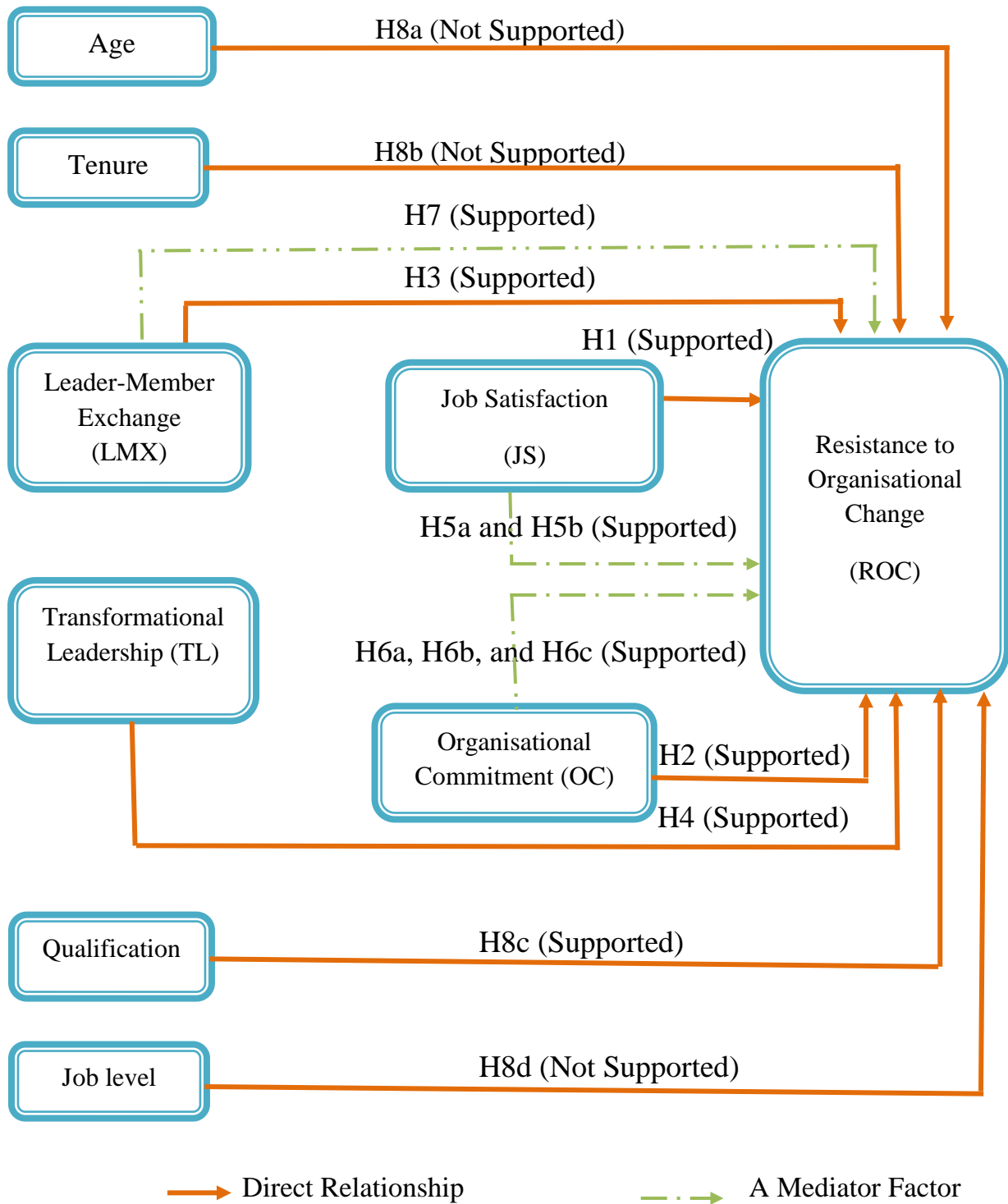
Accordingly, hypotheses 8a, 8b, and 8d are not supported, while hypothesis 8c is supported (see Table 6.15). Figure 6.4 below illustrates these results and displays them more clearly. Finally, it should be noted that a very small number of respondents answered the open-ended question and the majority of the answers were not related to the subject matter of this study, as they concentrated on thanking the researcher or requesting a copy of the study after its completion. Therefore, there was no need to analyse these answers.

Table 6.15: Results of Testing Hypotheses 8a, b, c, d.

	Hypotheses	Path Coefficients	t Value	p Value*	Outcome
H8a	Age of respondents will be positively associated to resistance to organisational change.	-0.147	3.415	0.001	Not Supported
H8b	Tenure will be positively associated with resistance to organisational change.	-0.113	1.862	0.063	Not Supported
H8c	Level of education will be negatively associated with resistance to organisational change.	-0.129	2.907	0.004	Supported
H8d	Level of job will be positively associated with resistance to organisational change.	-0.186	5.710	0.000	Not Supported

*The significance level of p value is determined at either the 0.001, 0.01 or 0.05 (2-tailed).

Figure 6.4: Results of Examining the Hypotheses of the Present Study



6.6 Further Analyses

This section aims at providing some further analyses of the data collected. It contributes to highlight the direct effects of organisational commitment, job satisfaction, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership on the three sub-dimensions of resistance to organisational change. These sub-dimensions are: affective resistance, behavioural resistance, and cognitive resistance. Also, it will focus on examining the role of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and leader-member exchange as mediators between the main constructs used in the study and these three sub-dimensions of resistance. The last section will present the results of multi-group analyses of the effects of main factors on resistance to organisational change.

6.6.1 The Direct Effects of the Main Constructs on the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

Generally speaking, Table 6.16 shows the direct and indirect effects between the main constructs, the mediators, and the sub-dimensions of resistance to organisational change. Compared to the other main constructs and based on the results presented in the table, organisational commitment has the strongest direct effect on the three sub-dimensions of resistance to organisational change. The results show that organisational commitment is related negatively to behavioural resistance (-0.286 , $p < 0.001$), affective resistance (-0.274 , $p < 0.001$), and cognitive resistance (-0.197 , $p < 0.001$).

According to these results, all the main constructs have significant negative relationships with behavioural resistance. More specifically, organisational commitment has the strongest effect on behavioural resistance (-0.286 , $p < 0.001$), followed by job satisfaction (-0.269 , $p < 0.001$), leader-member exchange (-0.239 , $p < 0.001$), then transformational leadership (-0.211 , $p < 0.001$). This emphasizes the role of organisational commitment and job satisfaction in alleviating behavioural resistance in surveyed organisations. In this context, although the impact of leadership on behavioural resistance is considered less than the role of both work-related attitudes mentioned, this does not necessarily mean that leadership is not effective in reducing behavioural resistance but demonstrates the need to strengthen organisational commitment and job satisfaction before and during any organisational change.

Moreover, while organisational commitment has the strongest effect on affective resistance (-0.274 , $p < 0.001$), followed by job satisfaction (-0.240 , $p < 0.001$), then leader-member exchange (-0.183 , $p < 0.001$), transformational

leadership (-0.162, $p > 0.05$) was found not related to this sub-dimension. This indicates that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are more influential on affective resistance to change than both the leadership styles mentioned. Furthermore, organisational commitment also has the strongest impact on cognitive resistance (-0.197, $p < 0.001$), followed by job satisfaction (-0.168, $p < 0.001$), then leader-member exchange (-0.158, $p < 0.01$), whilst transformational leadership (-0.132, $p > 0.05$) was found not related to cognitive resistance. This also reflects that both organisational commitment and job satisfaction are more influential on the cognitive resistance than both leadership styles.

6.6.2 The Indirect Effects of the Main Constructs on Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

Based on the VAF values shown in Table 6.16, it is found that job satisfaction has partial mediation (49.7%) between leader-member exchange and affective resistance, as well as partial mediation (36.9%) between leader-member exchange and behavioural resistance. This mediator also has partial mediation (64.7%) between transformational leadership and behavioural resistance.

Additionally, the VAF values suggest partial mediation for organisational commitment between leader-member exchange, on the one hand, and all sub-dimensions of resistance, on the other hand. Specifically, the values of VAF for the mediator, organisational commitment, between leader-member exchange and affective resistance, behavioural resistance, and cognitive resistance were 53.6%, 40.1%, 39.7%, respectively (see Table 6.16). What is more, this mediator partially mediates (43.3%) the relationship between job satisfaction and affective resistance and also partially mediates (40%) the relationship between job satisfaction and behavioural resistance, while it partially mediates the relationship of transformational leadership with just one dimension of resistance, behavioural resistance, with 45.5%. Moreover, leader-member exchange partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and behavioural resistance with a VAF value of 69.8%. The VAF values of other relationships have not been calculated due to not achieving the minimum level of significance in one of the mediation testing conditions, whether direct effect or indirect effect.

Table 6.16: Analysis of Mediating Effects of All Mediators between the main Constructs and Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

Source Constructs	The Mediators											
	Job Satisfaction				Organisational Commitment				Leader-Member Exchange			
	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	VAF	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	VAF	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	VAF
LMX → AR	-0.183***	-0.088*	-0.177**	0.497 (49.7% Partial Mediation)	-0.183***	-0.096***	-0.179***	0.536 (53.6% Partial Mediation)	-			
LMX → BR	-0.239***	-0.086*	-0.233***	0.369 (36.9% Partial Mediation)	-0.239***	-0.092***	-0.229***	0.401 (40.1% Partial Mediation)				
LMX → CR	-0.158**	-0.054 (NS)	-0.149**	Indirect effect is non-significant	-0.158**	-0.060*	-0.151**	0.397 (39.7% Partial Mediation)				
JS → AR	-				-0.240***	-0.097**	-0.224***	0.433 (43.3% Partial Mediation)	-			
JS → BR					-0.269***	-0.101***	-0.252***	0.400 (40% Partial Mediation)				
JS → CR					-0.168***	-0.064 (NS)	-0.159**	Indirect effect is non-significant				
TL → AR	-0.162 (NS)	-0.149***	-0.093 (NS)	Direct effect is non-significant	-0.162 (NS)	-0.095***	-0.099 (NS)	Direct effect is non-significant	-0.162 (NS)	-0.158**	-0.076 (NS)	Direct effect is non-significant
TL → BR	-0.211***	-0.123**	-0.190***	0.647 (64.7% Partial Mediation)	-0.211***	-0.087***	-0.191***	0.455 (45.5% Partial Mediation)	-0.211***	-0.132**	-0.189***	0.698 (69.8% Partial Mediation)
TL → CR	-0.132 (NS)	-0.096*	-0.080 (NS)	Direct effect is non-significant	-0.132 (NS)	-0.065**	-0.089 (NS)	Direct effect is non-significant	-0.132 (NS)	-0.119*	-0.075 (NS)	Direct effect is non-significant

Note: LMX= Leader-Member Exchange, JS= Job Satisfaction, TL= Transformational Leadership, AR= Affective Resistance, BR= Behavioural Resistance, CR= Cognitive Resistance, NS= not significant. *p< .05. **p< .01, ***p< .001 (2-tailed), OC→AR (-0.274, p<0.001), OC→BR (-0.286, p<0.001), OC→CR (-0.197, p<0.001).

6.6.3 Multi-Group Analysis

PLS Multi-Group Analysis (MGA) is a technique used to test the difference in magnitude of particular model path estimates for two or more different sampled populations (Chin and Dibbern, 2010; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2011). In other words, it aims at identifying differences in path coefficients across subgroups (Henseler *et al.*, 2009). According to Chin and Dibbern (2010), the permutation procedure is now the preferred test of significance for non-normal data, as requires no parametric assumptions. Similarly, Henseler *et al.* (2009) argue that it would be meaningless to introduce distributional assumptions, such as t-test or ANOVA when a researcher uses the PLS technique. Since the data of the current study was non-normally distributed, as mentioned previously in Chapter 5 (section 5.4.3.1), therefore, it is preferred to use the permutation test.

Based on the permutation test, Table 6.17 provides the results of multi-group comparisons between groups included in the data collected (managers vs employees, 35 years (age) and more vs less than 35 years, less than Bachelor vs higher education, 20 years (tenure) and more vs less than 20 years, SAUDIA vs SRO, SAUDIA vs SWCC, and SRO vs SWCC), for the effects of the main factors on resistance to organisational change. These results suggest that generally no evidence can be found for significant differences in the effects of leader-member exchange, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment on resistance to change, between groups.

Table 6.17: Multi-group Comparison Test Results

Comparisons		Relationships	Path Coefficients Permutation Mean Difference	Permutation p-Values
Age	35 years and more vs less than 35 years	JS → ROC	0.006	0.663
		LMX → ROC	0.004	0.521
		OC → ROC	0.008	0.080
		TL → ROC	-0.007	0.969
Tenure	20 years and more vs less than 20 years	JS → ROC	-0.001	0.110
		LMX → ROC	-0.001	0.234
		OC → ROC	0.008	0.557
		TL → ROC	-0.004	0.410

Note: ROC= Resistance to Organisational Change, LMX= Leader-Member Exchange, JS= Job Satisfaction, TL= Transformational Leadership, OC= Organisational Commitment. ***p< .001 (2-tailed).

Comparisons		Relationships	Path Coefficients Permutation Mean Difference	Permutation p-Values
Education	Less than Bachelor vs Higher Education	JS → ROC	0.002	0.897
		LMX → ROC	-0.003	0.657
		OC → ROC	0.001	0.452
		TL → ROC	0.000	0.172
Level of Job	Managers vs Employees	JS → ROC	0.003	0.092
		LMX → ROC	0.003	0.412
		OC → ROC	0.019	0.420
		TL → ROC	-0.005	0.673
Organisation	SAUDIA vs SRO	JS → ROC	0.004	0.360
		LMX → ROC	-0.006	0.318
		OC → ROC	0.009	0.717
		TL → ROC	-0.001	0.434
	SAUDIA vs SWCC	JS → ROC	-0.004	0.252
		LMX → ROC	0.016	1.000
		OC → ROC	0.010	0.545
		TL → ROC	-0.010	0.002***
	SAUDIA vs SRO	JS → ROC	0.008	0.893
		LMX → ROC	0.001	0.456
		OC → ROC	0.004	0.408
		TL → ROC	0.004	0.108

Table 6.17 continued.

These findings, which confirm the absence of significant differences between participants' points of view in this study, are generally consistent with previous studies that confirmed that the Saudi society is generally homogenous. For example, Noer *et al.* (2007) are in line with Idris (2007) who indicates that studies of the culture in Saudi Arabia have indicated that it is fairly homogenous, like most Middle Eastern nations. These studies among others

supported an earlier study conducted by Robertson *et al.* (2001) who argue that the Saudi society has a somewhat homogenous culture.

Nevertheless, one reason that may explain such findings is the cross-sectional design of the current study. One limitation of this type of design is that analysing data collected at a single point in time may find differences or correlations between variables or may not. The studied time period may be untypical in some way, or capture only part of the picture, especially when studying something like resistance to change, which may form over a period of time, or may be temporary. Another reason that may lead to these findings is that the three organisations studied have undergone a similar type of change processes. Although these organisations were at three different stages of organisational change, the regulator and supervisor of the organisational change processes is one entity, the Council of Economic and Development Affairs (CEDA), and they have to apply the same government instructions and regulations. The Council sets standards and procedures for change in these organisations and monitors the stages of their implementation. Additionally, the procedure of choosing the sample of the present study may contribute to these findings as well. Specifically, the sample was confined to administrative staff; thus the samples were matched on the basis of tasks and level of job. In other words, since the participants were in the same level of job and performed similar functional tasks, therefore, it is possible that the views and attitudes of participants toward their work environment were close or there were no significant differences between them.

Furthermore, it should be noted that there are many studies (see e. g. Ansari *et al.*, 2007; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Chung *et al.*, 2012; Herold *et al.*, 2007; Kang *et al.*, 2011; Liao *et al.*, 2009; Lok and Crawford, 2001; Michel *et al.*, 2013; Yousef, 2002) whose data have been collected from various types of organisations, whether from private or public sectors; moreover the job classifications of their samples were quite varied. However, the samples in these studies were treated as a single sample, without considering the extent to which there was a difference between the sample participants in terms of age, experience, job, or organisation. For instance, in a similar study conducted by Herold *et al.* (2007), the researchers examined the degree to which attitudes toward organisational changes may be affected by contextual (other changes going on) and personal (self-efficacy) factors. Data were collected from 553 employees of 25 organisations in the south-eastern United States representing a

wide variety of industry sectors, including finance, manufacturing, education, consumer products, and high technology. Since Chi-square tests for differences between the distributions of responses across the categories for three demographics were all non-significant (age, tenure, and sex), the researchers integrated the samples into a single sample. Similarly, in the fourth study conducted by Michel *et al.* (2013), data collected were analysed as a single sample, while participants were 780 employees from different sectors, representing a variety of professions.

6.7 Summary

This chapter focused primarily on presenting the results of data analysis and at the same time the findings of testing hypotheses. Specifically, two statistical tests were used to assess the factorability of the data, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity, while confirmatory factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha were used to assess the validity and reliability of the data, respectively. The results of these tests confirmed that the data are adequate for using factor analysis and suitable for advanced analyses.

Furthermore, assessment of the measurement and structural models hypothesised are discussed in details. According to the PLS-SEM analysis results, hypotheses of direct relationships between constructs, as well as hypotheses of mediations effects were supported, while three hypotheses of demographic factors' effects (age, tenure, and level of job) on resistance to organisational change were not supported and the hypothesis of level of education effect on resistance was supported. Finally, further analyses related to the direct and indirect effects of the main constructs on the sub-dimensions of resistance to organisational change (affective, behavioural, and cognitive) and the results of multi-group analyses of the effects of these factors on resistance were provided.

Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusion

Figure 7.1: Following the Research Stages

Number of Chapter	Title of Chapter	Page
Chapter One	Background of the Study	1
Chapter Two	Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	9
Chapter Three	Methodology	87
Chapter Four	Questionnaire Development	113
Chapter Five	Data Description and Treatment	137
Chapter Six	Data Analysis and Findings	157
Chapter Seven	Discussion and Conclusion	192

7.1 Introduction

The focus in this chapter is on discussing the findings of the present study, which were reported in the previous chapter, with the aim of shedding light on some related issues. More specifically, the chapter discusses the direct effects of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership on resistance to organisational change in the Saudi context.

Moreover, the chapter also discusses the role of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and leader-member exchange relationships, as mediators between some factors and resistance to organisational change, as well as the role of demographic factors in resistance. Furthermore, the findings of further analysis, the study implications, its limitations, and proposed future research are also addressed.

7.2 Discussion of the Role of Main Constructs in Resistance to Organisational Change

This section aims at discussing the results of direct effects of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership on resistance to organisational change. It basically provides answers for the first four questions posited in the first chapter of this thesis.

7.2.1 The Role of Job Satisfaction in Resistance to Organisational Change

The first question was concerned with the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change. In order to answer this question, hypothesis 1 was formulated, based on the literature, and tested. This hypothesis

suggests that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change. As shown in the previous chapter, testing hypothesis 1 confirmed, as expected, that there was a moderately significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and resistance. This finding implies that participants who were satisfied with their jobs were less resistant to organisational change. It is indicated that if individuals' job satisfaction improves, they would show less resistance to any initiative for organisational change.

Previous studies have similarly observed relationships between job satisfaction and resistance to change (Oreg, 2006; Wanberg and Banas, 2000; Yousef, 2000b). For example, Yousef (2000b) concluded that satisfaction with certain facets of the job directly and indirectly (via different dimensions of organisational commitment) influenced different dimensions of attitudes toward change. One possible explanation of this situation is that, for example, in a situation of high satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, security, and co-workers, it is expected that employees will work hard and seek constantly to accomplish organisational goals and the converse also applies (Yousef, 2000b). Van Dam (2005) found similar findings. Consequently, increasing employees' satisfaction is a motivation to support organisational change or a method of avoiding resistance to change.

Also, this finding is partially in line with other studies (e.g. Oreg, 2006; Wanberg and Banas, 2000). While the current study proposed that job satisfaction is related negatively to resistance, Oreg (2006) found that affective resistance was correlated negatively to job satisfaction. This means that both studies agreed that the two concepts are correlated negatively to each other, although they differ in the position of each variable. Moreover, based on the conceptualisation of resistance as low acceptance of change (Oreg, 2006), Wanberg and Banas's (2000) results demonstrated that individuals with lower levels of change acceptance reported less job satisfaction, more work irritation, and increased intentions to quit.

Apart from that, although not related directly to the context of organisational change, there is another possible explanation of such a finding that is related to emotion research. A growing body of emotion research has found that happiness and positive emotions at work are related to some organisational attitudes and behaviours. Recently, Fisher (2010) emphasized that although past research has tended to underestimate the importance of happiness at work, there is evidence

that happiness-related constructs such as job satisfaction, engagement, and affective commitment have important and positive consequences for both individuals and organisations. Therefore, it is not surprising that a work environment that makes people feel happy often generates positive work attitudes, decreases negative work attitudes, and enhances employees' conviction towards their organisation's targets and plans (Fisher, 2010). In the same direction, Avey *et al.* (2008) suggest that low levels of positive emotions lead to cynical attitudes and deviant behaviours within the workplace that would be indicative of resistance to change.

However, the results of further analysis presented in the previous chapter related to the direct relationship between job satisfaction and multi-dimensions of resistance to organisational change reinforce the negative impact of job satisfaction on resistance (see Table 6.16). More specifically, it was found that job satisfaction had moderate negative relationships with the three sub-dimensions of resistance, affective, behavioural, and cognitive; moreover, job satisfaction was found to be more influential on individuals' behavioural resistance to organisational change than their affective and cognitive resistance.

7.2.2 The Role of Organisational Commitment in Resistance to Organisational Change

The second question aimed at investigating whether there is a relationship between organisational commitment and resistance to organisational change. Consistent with expectations, the result of hypothesis 2 supported that there is a negative relationship between organisational commitment and resistance. The result suggests that higher levels of organisational commitment are associated with less resistance to change. In other words, individuals, both managers and employees, who are more committed to their organisations or act in the best of interest of the organisations, have less inclination to resist organisational change initiatives. On the contrary, a low level of organisational commitment among managers and employees leads them to more resistance to organisational changes.

Although the evidence in support of a negative relationship between organisational commitment and resistance to organisational is more limited, the above result supports the findings of recent studies conducted by McKay *et al.* (2013), Peccei *et al.* (2011), Zhao *et al.* (2016), and Yousef (2017). The main argument in their study is that employees who are more strongly committed to their organisation are less likely to engage in anti-change behaviour or less

likely to resist organisational change. Peccei *et al.* (2011) found that organisational commitment, together with the perceived benefits of change and involvement in the process of change, had significant negative direct and indirect effects on resistance to organisational change. The indirect effect was mediated by employees' overall attitudes towards the change. Overall, the result of the present study provides clear support for the relationship of OC-ROC and reinforces the findings of some recent studies (McKay *et al.*, 2013; Peccei *et al.*, 2011; Zhao *et al.*, 2016; Yousef, 2017). More specifically, the result suggests that those who remain with their organisations because they want to do so, or have a sense of obligation toward the organisation, or even perceive high costs of leaving the organisation, are more likely to accept change and support the organisation's plan, or less inclined to resist it (Yousef, 2000c). Although it was not the focus of their study, the findings of Seo *et al.*'s (2012) study revealed a negative relationship between organisational commitment and behavioural resistance to change.

Further, the study has supported earlier findings that organisational commitment affects significantly individuals' attitudes toward organisational change (Iverson, 1996; Yousef, 2000b). Evidence from the literature suggests that organisational commitment is associated with positive attitudes to organisational change. For example, Vakola and Nikolaou (2005) indicated that organisational commitment has a positive relationship with attitudes towards organisational change. Similarly, Iverson (1996) found that, after union membership, organisational commitment was the second most important determinant of the acceptance of organisational change. Put differently, employees with high organisational commitment are more congruent with the goals and values of organisations, willing to expend considerably more efforts on behalf of organisations toward organisational goals accomplishment, and have a strong desire to maintain organisational membership. Thus, they are more likely to accept organisational change or not resist it (Iverson, 1996).

Yousef's (2000c) findings supported these results. Specifically, Yousef (2000c) found that organisational commitment significantly influenced attitudes toward organisational change. The results indicated that affective commitment had positive effects on both effective and behavioural tendency attitudes to change but it had no effects on cognitive attitude to change, while continuous commitment had negative effects on both cognitive and behavioural tendency

attitudes to change. Moreover, the results indicated that normative commitment had positive effects on cognitive attitude to change.

Furthermore, Yousef (2000b) concluded that employees' affective and behavioural tendency attitudes toward organisational change increase with the increase in affective commitment, and that continuous commitment negatively affects cognitive attitudes toward change. Since organisational commitment reflects a belief in the values and goals of the organisation, therefore, strong organisational commitment leads employees to accept change as far as such change is seen as beneficial to the organisation and not expected to conflict with or alter the basic values and goals of the organisation (Yousef, 2000b). Therefore, organisational commitment as well as job satisfaction, as Yousef (2000b) indicated, play a vital role in individuals' reactions toward organisational change, especially acceptance of change.

Additionally, Lau and Woodman (1995) investigated the role of organisational commitment in shaping individuals' attitudes toward organisational change. They suggested that individuals who are highly committed to an organisation are expected to strongly resist organisational change if they feel it threatens and harms the organisation. Further, they found that organisational commitment had a direct negative effect on attitude toward specific change. Although Lines's (2004) study found a strong positive relationship between participation in strategic change processes and goal achievement and organisational commitment, as well as a strong negative relationship with resistance, the study did not investigate the relationship between organisational commitment and resistance to organisational change.

Although the current study is consistent with Van Dam's (2005) study in the effect of organisational commitment on resistance to organisational change, they arrived at different results. More specifically, Van Dam (2005) found that employees who were highly committed to their job were less eager or willing to change. This means that high (low) level of organisational commitment leads to increase (decrease) negative attitudes towards change or resistance to organisational change. This result is in line with Schaubroeck *et al.*'s (1998: 886) argument that "persons who are more dispositionally drawn to an organization may be more attached to the status quo, and thus change is more difficult for them".

Results of further analysis that confirmed the direct relationship between organisational commitment and three components of resistance to organisational change strengthen the evidence for a negative impact of organisational commitment on resistance (see Chapter 6-Table 6.16). According to this analysis, organisational commitment had moderate negative relationships with the three components of resistance, affective, behavioural, and cognitive. Moreover, organisational commitment was found to be more influential on individuals' behavioural resistance to organisational change than their affective and cognitive resistance, respectively.

7.2.3 The Role of Leader-Member Exchange in Resistance to Organisational Change

To answer research question 3, it was proposed in this study that a high quality of LMX relationships leads to a low level of resistance to organisational change. Testing hypothesis 3, as presented in the previous chapter, suggested that there was a significant negative relationship between LMX and resistance. This result also provides strong support for the importance of a direct effect of LMX in reducing or minimizing resistance. Thus, the higher than quality of the relationship between supervisors and subordinates, the more positive individuals were about the change and the lower level of resistance that they exhibited (Giangreco and Peccei, 2005). This finding also reinforces Mueller and Lee's (2002) argument that the quality of LMX plays a pivotal role in shaping individuals' attitudes towards changes in organisations.

In a similar vein, Hyland (2007) found that LMX relationships were related positively to employees' attitudes toward organisational change. Bhal *et al.* (2009) concluded that, in merger and acquisition situations, the perceived contribution dimension of leader-member exchange showed positive significant correlations with affective, cognitive, and behavioural reactions to change, while the affect dimension of the LMX showed only a positive significant correlation with cognitive reaction to change.

Researchers have indeed shown the importance of negative influence of LMX on individuals' resistance to change (Georgalis *et al.*, 2015; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). For example, Georgalis *et al.* (2015) suggest that the direction and support provided by leaders in quality relationships with followers are more essential during organisational change and are likely to lessen the potential for resistance. Accordingly, it can be confirmed that the low quality of the exchange relationship between a leader and followers is likely to affect

negatively individuals' reactions to organisational change, and more specifically it leads to increase their resistance to change. This implies that low quality of LMX can increase resistance to change because leaders with low LMX do not provide enough guidance and support to followers during changes, which may boost and spread unsupportive behaviour toward change (Heuvel *et al.*, 2014).

A plausible explanation for this finding is that, during organisational change, employees with leaders providing high quality LMXs receive more information about the change and a wider range of opportunities to participate in it; therefore, they report more favourable outcomes than their peers in low-quality LMX relationships (Georgalis *et al.*, 2015; Mueller and Lee, 2002; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). In this sense, Van Dam *et al.* (2008) indicate that work situations that are characterised by close and supportive relationships between leaders and subordinates lead to a better chance of gaining employee acceptance. Thus, compared to employees involved in high-quality LMX relationships, subordinates in low quality LMX relationships will report greater resistance to change.

This result is in line with some researchers' findings (e.g., Furst and Cable, 2008; Georgalis *et al.*, 2015; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). For instance, Furst and Cable (2008) showed that employees in low LMX relationships were more resistant to organisational change. In contrast, employees with a high quality of LMX were more likely to have a low level of resistance to organisational change. Accordingly, this result may reflect the strength of LMX in reducing employees' resistance. It also underlines Van Dam *et al.*'s (2008) argument that the effect of leaders during change depends on the exchange relationship leaders have developed with their followers. Similar results were suggested by Van Dam *et al.* (2008) who found evidence to support Tierney's (1999) study. They found a negative relationship between LMX and perceived development climate with resistance to change. The result also supported Georgalis *et al.*'s (2015) findings that LMX was significantly and negatively related to resistance to change. In this regard, Townsend *et al.* (2000) found that employees in poor exchange relationships were more likely to engage in retaliation behaviours against the organisation than those in high-quality LMX relationships. Therefore, as Townsend and colleagues (2000) explained, the lack of a high-quality exchange relationship was not just associated with the absence of positive behaviours and consequences but also led to reports of potentially disruptive behaviours.

7.2.4 The Role of Transformational Leadership in Resistance to Organisational Change

Research question 4 attempted to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change. According to the results, it was found in the testing of hypothesis 4 that there is a direct negative correlation between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change, and accordingly it can be concluded that transformational leaders' behaviours, under conditions of organisational change, contribute to decrease the level of employees' resistance. This result illustrates that leading change is fundamentally about setting direction and inspiring others, as well as the powerful influence of transformational leaders on employees' reactions and change outcomes (Fugate, 2012). This result also reinforces the view of many scholars that transformational leaders are more influential in organisational context, especially during times of change through their effective role in reducing individuals' resistance to the change (see e.g., Bommer *et al.*, 2005; Herold *et al.*, 2008; Oreg and Berson, 2011; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990).

This result is in support of prior research. For example, Nemanich and Keller (2007) demonstrated positive relationships between transformational leadership and acquisition acceptance, job satisfaction, and performance. More specifically, they indicated that creating a climate for change was a mediating mechanism between transformational leadership and reducing the effects of uncertainty during acquisition integrations, which ultimately led to acceptance of this type of change. They argue that by creating a climate emphasizing goal clarity, transformational leaders can alleviate ambiguity and thereby help employees to achieve their objectives. Similar findings were obtained by Hyland (2007) who found that transformational leadership was related positively to employees' attitudes toward organisational change. Additionally, Seo *et al.* (2012) found evidence that transformational leaders were directly associated with employees' positive affective reactions to organisational change and negatively associated with their negative affective reactions. They suggest that these affective reactions triggered the predicted chain of relationships from employee affect to change commitment and then to supportive, resistant, and creative change behaviours.

7.3 Discussion of the Role of Mediators in Resistance to Organisational Change

As mentioned previously, mediation analysis enables researchers to evaluate how strongly each exogenous, or independent, construct ultimately influences the key target variable, endogenous or dependent, via the mediating construct (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). This means that, for example, examining the role of job satisfaction as a mediator between leader-member exchange and resistance to organisational change will reveal how strongly LMX relationship impacts on resistance after including the job satisfaction construct in this relationship. This section mainly aims at addressing the results of mediators used in the present study. More specifically, it provides answers for the current study questions from five to seven.

7.3.1 Job Satisfaction as a Mediator

In order to address research questions five, hypotheses 5a and 5b were formulated to examine the mediating role of job satisfaction between leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand. The following subsections shed light on discussing findings of testing these hypotheses:

1) Job Satisfaction as a Mediator between LMX-ROC

Hypothesis 5a predicted that job satisfaction would mediate the relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change. The findings of the present study asserted that job satisfaction, as expected, partially mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and resistance to organisational change. Within an organisational change situation, this result illustrates the importance of employees' satisfaction with the work environment, such as satisfaction with their jobs, organisations' policies toward all aspects of jobs, their relationships with colleagues and superiors in the workplace.

Hence, it can be established that job satisfaction facilitates the influence of leader-member exchange by reducing the level of resistance to organisational change. Put differently, employees who perceived a high-quality LMX relationship were more satisfied with their jobs, as a result of having more information, greater support, and higher trust from leaders, and subsequently reported less resistance to the change (Dulebohn *et al.*, 2012; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). This result suggests that when in-group employees are content with their jobs, the positive effects of a high quality LMX influence their attitudes and behaviours towards the organisation, leading to reduced resistance to

organisational change (Cheung *et al.*, 2009). In other words, followers who have high quality relationships with their leaders and are also satisfied with their jobs, they will be less likely to resist organisational change. Accordingly, leader-member exchange relationship alone is not sufficient to have a direct impact on resistance to organisational change but it needs to rely on job satisfaction to extend its effects to resistance to organisational change.

Such a result is much in line with the results of some past research that confirmed the mediating role of job satisfaction between LMX and other organisational factors but not with resistance to organisational change. For instant, Hackett and Lapierre (2004) revealed that overall job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between LMX and organisational commitment, as well as the relationship between LMX and organisational citizenship behaviour. Moreover, Liao *et al.* (2009) showed that job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between leader-member relations and organisational commitment. Similarly, Cheung *et al.* (2009) found that job satisfaction fully mediates the relationship between leader-member relationships and employees' organisational commitment, participatory management, and intention to leave. These results were supported by Yousaf *et al.* (2011) who suggested that satisfaction with human resource practices fully mediated the relationship between LMX and affective organisational commitment.

While these findings confirm the mediating role of job satisfaction between leader-member relations exchange and organisational commitment, the present study is distinct from these findings by emphasizing that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and resistance to organisational change. Thus, the study supports previous studies by emphasizing that job satisfaction plays a key role in strengthening the role of leaders' and followers' exchange relationship in the work environment, especially in organisational change situations.

Furthermore, previous studies have suggested that the relationship between LMX-ROC is mediated by some organisational factors, but not either job satisfaction or organisational commitment. For example, Van Dam *et al.* (2008) showed that three change process characteristics (i.e. information, participation, and trust in management) fully mediated the relationships of LMX and perceived development climate with resistance to change. Specifically, "employees who perceived a high-quality LMX relationship and a strong development climate had received more information and opportunities for

participation, experienced more trust in management, and subsequently reported less resistance to the change” (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008: 326). Linked to these findings, the present study supported Van Dam *et al.*’s (2008) findings and further found that the LMX-ROC relationship is mediated by job satisfaction.

Thus, the findings of the present study undoubtedly contribute to extend our understanding of social exchange processes and the norms of reciprocity between supervisors and their subordinates (Cheung *et al.*, 2009). Accordingly, as Liao and colleagues (2009) argue, leaders must keep high quality relations with followers and let employees feel satisfaction in their job. As a result, the employees will have less inclination to resist organisational change.

2) Job Satisfaction as a Mediator between TL-ROC

Hypothesis 5b predicted that job satisfaction would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change. The findings confirmed that job satisfaction, as expected, fully mediates the relationship between these two constructs. Consequently, the present study found strong empirical support that without job satisfaction, as a mediator, transformational leadership cannot exert a direct impact on resistance to organisational change.

Also, this result suggests that although transformational leaders play a crucial role in change situations by helping employees to accept that a bright future lies in organisational change, which means facilitating their acceptance of change (Bommer *et al.*, 2005; Nemanich and Keller, 2007; Oreg and Berson, 2011), employees’ satisfaction seems more important to avoid provoking resistance to organisational change. Moreover, it supports expectation that transformational leaders would enable followers to be convinced for change and support it by enhancing and increasing their job satisfaction.

Although no previous studies, so far, have addressed the role of job satisfaction as a mediator between TL-ROC, there are some studies that have found similar results to the result outlined above. For example, Williams and Hazer (1986) found support for the mediation role of job satisfaction between leadership consideration for subordinates’ feelings, problems, and input to decisions, as assessed by subordinates, and organisational commitment. Furthermore, Nemanich and Keller (2007) concluded that a climate supporting new ways of thinking fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and acquisition acceptance. They suggested that a creative climate facilitates the

change process during acquisition integration by encouraging employees to be flexible, more positive, and take an open-minded approach toward change and thereby develop a more accepting attitude toward the acquisition. Also, they found that goal clarity and support for creative thinking partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. This means that transformational leadership indirectly influences job satisfaction by creating a climate of goal clarity and by creating a climate receptive to new ideas (Nemanich and Keller, 2007).

7.3.2 Organisational Commitment as a Mediator

To answer research question 6, it was proposed in hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c that organisational commitment mediates the relationships between three constructs, job satisfaction, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand. The following subsections will discuss the results of testing these hypotheses:

1) Organisational Commitment as a Mediator between JS-ROC

As predicted by hypothesis 6a, the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change is mediated by organisational commitment. The result, therefore, supported the expectation, showing that the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance to organisational change were partially mediated by organisational commitment. Such a result lends strong support for organisational commitment being responsible for the effect of job satisfaction on resistance to organisational change, providing evidence to support previous research that established the impact of job satisfaction on individuals' attitudes toward organisational change, especially resistance to change.

More specifically, the result suggests that participants who were more satisfied with their jobs would be more committed to their organisations and consequently less willing to resist any organisational change initiatives. In other words, individuals who are satisfied with their jobs will only be less resistant to organisational change if they are committed to their organisations. Job satisfaction alone is not sufficient to have a direct impact on resistance to organisational change. Hence, the findings indicate that job satisfaction needs to rely on organisational commitment to extend its effects to resistance to organisational change.

The present finding seems to be generally consistent with prior research (e.g., Yousef, 2000b, 2000c). Past studies suggested that organisational commitment played a mediator role between some organisational factors and dimensions of attitudes toward organisational change but not resistance to organisational change. For instance, Yousef (2000b) concluded that affective commitment (remaining with the organisation because employees want to do so) mediated the influences of job satisfaction with work conditions, pay, supervision, and security on both affective and behavioural tendency dimensions of attitudes toward organisational change. Moreover, he found that continuous commitment (low perceived alternatives) mediated the influence of satisfaction with pay on cognitive attitudes toward organisational change. These findings supported an early work of Williams and Hazer (1986), who found that organisational commitment was a mediator between job satisfaction and intent to leave.

Additionally, Yousef (2000c) concluded that the influences of the Islamic work ethic on both affective and behavioural tendency dimensions of attitudes toward organisational change are mediated by affective commitment. While the influences of the Islamic work ethic on the cognitive dimension of attitudes toward change are mediated by continuance and normative commitments, continuance commitment mediates the influences of the Islamic work ethic on the behavioural tendency dimension of attitudes toward change (Yousef, 2000c).

2) Organisational Commitment as a Mediator between LMX-ROC

Consistent with mediation hypothesis 6b, the results supported the role of organisational commitment as a mediator between leader-member exchange and resistance to organisational change. Therefore, this result supported the expectation, showing that the relationship of LMX-ROC was partially mediated by organisational commitment. Accordingly, it could be concluded that employees who perceived their LMX relationship as high in quality were more committed to accept the goals of and remain with their organisations, and subsequently reported less resistance to the change (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008).

Thus, while some employees may be more likely to resist change if they experience low-quality LMX relationships, the converse is probable for those in the 'in-group' who received a good quality of relationship with their leaders (Georgalis *et al.*, 2015). In other words, only when those followers who have high quality relationships with their leaders are also committed to their organisations, they will be less likely to resist organisational change. Hence, this

result suggests that leader-member exchange relationships alone is not sufficient to have a direct impact on resistance to organisational change but it needs to rely on organisational commitment to extend its effects to resistance to organisational change.

Such a result indicates that the positive effects of a high quality of exchange relationship between leaders and followers are translated into increased organisational commitment and reduced resistance to organisational change. Therefore, it emphasizes that organisational commitment plays a mediating role in the relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change. In other words, the result shows that participants who have a better quality of LMX feel in a relatively advantageous position compared to their colleagues and, therefore, are more committed to their organisations; thus, they tend to reciprocate with a lower level of resistance to organisational change (Yousaf *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, it is no surprise that resistance to organisational change results from high-quality LMX and a higher level of organisational commitment. As mentioned earlier, high-quality LMX provides a supportive and stimulating environment that leads to employees' increased loyalty and belonging to their organisations, and experience of meaningful work (Soldner, 2009; Yousaf *et al.*, 2011); therefore, it ultimately contributes to decrease the level of employees' resistance to change.

While organisational commitment as a mediator between leader-member exchange and a number of work-related consequences was found in the literature, it has not yet been found as a mediator between leader-member exchange and resistance to organisational change, except in the present study. For example, Hackett and Lapierre (2004) found that organisational commitment operating as a mediator between LMX and job satisfaction as well as the organisational commitment partially mediated the relationship between LMX and organisational citizenship behaviour. Also, a recent study conducted by Kang *et al.* (2011) showed that organisational commitment was a mediator between leader-member exchange relationships and motivation to participate in training and employees' turnover intention.

3) Organisational Commitment as a Mediator between TL-ROC

Hypothesis 6c predicted that organisational commitment would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change. The findings of the current study demonstrated that organisational commitment, as expected, fully mediates the relationship

between TL-ROC. Thus, it can be established that organisational commitment enhances the influence of transformational leadership by reducing the level of resistance to organisational change. This implies that building and paying more attention to increasing employees' commitment to their organisations is particularly essential before adopting any organisational change initiatives. In this regard, scholars suggest that leaders can directly influence organisational outcomes by continuously influencing and shaping their followers' attitudes throughout change and indirectly affecting their followers' commitment and significantly reduce resistance to change by adopting the style appropriate to the organisational environment (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2015).

More specifically, this result is in support of Zhao *et al.*'s (2016) findings, the only study is existed in the literature to date. They found evidence that the indirect effect of the new leader's transformational leadership on employees' behavioural resistance to change, but not affective and cognitive resistance, through commitment to the changing organisation is stronger when the former leader's transformational leadership is lower (Zhao *et al.*, 2016).

7.3.3 Leader-Member Exchange as a Mediator between TL-ROC

Hypothesis 7 predicted that leader-member exchange would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance to organisational change. The result of testing this hypothesis suggests that transformational leadership is related negatively to resistance to organisational change and that this relationship is fully mediated by leader-member exchange relationships. Accordingly, the present study found strong empirical evidence that without LMX, as a mediator, transformational leadership cannot exert a direct impact on resistance to organisational change.

The finding strongly supports the theoretical proposition that leader-member relationships translate the positive effect of transformational leadership into reduced resistance to organisational change. In other words, this finding indicates that when followers perceive their leaders as behaving transformationally and when they report a higher-quality exchange relationship, their resistance to organisational change is less salient (Hughes *et al.*, 2010).

Perhaps, the reason for this situation is that leaders may have engaged effectively in the organisational change processes, which enhanced effective working relationships and was ultimately reflected in a low level of individuals' resistance to change (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006). Put differently,

transformational leaders influenced positively followers' attitudes toward organisational change and inspired them to support the change by building high-quality personalized exchange relationships (Day and Misencenko, 2016).

Although previous studies have not investigated, so far, the mediation role of LMX between TL-ROC as shown in the current study, the result above is generally in support of some research that confirmed LMX as a mediator between TL and other work-related outcomes but not with resistance. For example, Wang *et al.* (2005) showed that leader-member exchange fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance (task performance and reported organisational citizenship behaviour). A similar finding was found by Lee (2005) who revealed that LMX quality was a mediator between leadership and organisational commitment. These findings supported Gottfredson and Aguinis (2017) and Howell and Hall-Merenda's (1999) findings, which found that the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance was mediated by LMX. Furthermore, Hughes *et al.* (2010) found that LMX fully mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and intentions to quit, and also LMX partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and behaviours oriented towards intention to leave the organisation.

7.4 Discussion of the Role of Demographic Factors in Resistance to Organisational Change

Research question 8 attempted to investigate the relationship between demographic factors, namely, age of participants, tenure, educational level, and level of job, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand. In order to answer this question, hypotheses 8a, 8b, 8c, and 8d were formulated, based on the literature, and tested. These hypotheses suggested that there are positive relationships between these factors and resistance to organisational change, except for a negative relationship between educational level and resistance to change.

The following sections focus on discussion of the findings of hypotheses relating to the relationship between demographic factors and resistance to organisational change. More specifically, it provides answers for research question 8.

7.4.1 Age and Resistance to Organisational Change

It was proposed in the current study, based on the literature, that older employees are more likely to resist change than their younger counterparts are. In other words, employees' age and their resistance to organisational change were expected to be positively correlated. Kunze *et al.* (2013) argue that this relationship is often assumed to be positive due to common stereotypes existing in the workplace. Posthuma and Campion (2009) summarise the common stereotypes that older employees are more difficult to train, less adaptable to change, less flexible, and more resistant to change than younger employees do.

Interestingly, testing hypothesis 8a unexpectedly revealed that there was a significant negative relationship between participants' age and resistance, implying that younger participants were more resistant to change than their older colleagues, challenging the common stereotype aforementioned (Kunze *et al.*, 2013). Although this result was not expected in this study, it is consistent with certain studies that have shown age to be negatively correlated with resistance to organisational change (e.g., Alsaedi, 1996; Kunze *et al.*, 2013; Oreg, 2006 among others). Recent empirical results have supported this finding by reporting that employee age is negatively related to resistance to organisational change (Kunze *et al.*, 2013). Such a finding implies that younger employees were more resistant to change compared with older employees. Furthermore, these findings were partially supported by Oreg (2006). Although it was not hypothesized, Oreg (2006) found that age was negatively correlated with affective resistance, while it was not correlated with cognitive and behavioural components of resistance.

A possible explanation for this result is that individuals as they age often become more emotionally stable, more capable to understand and have deeper awareness about changes in their surroundings and are more conservative to show behaviours that may be considered contrary to the public context. In this regard, Kunze *et al.* (2013) argued that, based on psychological research, individuals have a tendency to process positive emotional information more deeply than negative emotional information and become more emotionally stable as they age. Therefore, older employees might have a better capability to cope emotionally with changes occurring in their environments and be less resistant to these changes (Kunze *et al.*, 2013; Oreg, 2006).

7.4.2 Tenure and Resistance to Organisational Change

Evidence from the literature reported inconsistent results, as mentioned in Chapter 2, regarding the relationship between tenure and resistance to organisational change. Unlike hypothesis 8b, which assumed a positive relationship between tenure and resistance, the findings of the current study reported no relationship between tenure and resistance to change, yet this finding is in line with some studies (e.g., Abu-Hamdieh 1994 cited in Rees and Althakhri, 2008: 125; Georgalis *et al.*, 2015; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001).

One possible reason for the lack of relationship found between tenure and resistance to organisational change may be due to the cross-sectional research design adopted in the present study. Another reason might be attributed to the different types of organisations that participated in this study (Vakola *et al.*, 2004). As previously indicated, three Saudi organisations participated in the present study, namely, Saudi Arabia Airlines (SAUDIA), Saudi Railways Organization (SRO), and Saline Water Conversion Corporation (SWCC). These organisations provide different types of activities and tasks and represent different sectors. SAUDIA provides air transport services domestically and internationally, SRO is the only organisation in the railway transport sector that provides transportation and shipping services in Saudi Arabia, while SWCC is responsible for the desalination of seawater, producing electric power and supplying various regions in Saudi Arabia with desalinated water.

7.4.3 Level of Education and Resistance to Organisational Change

It was proposed that educated individuals, who have a Bachelor degree and above, are less likely to resist change than others are. This means that employees' level of education and their resistance to organisational change were expected to be negatively correlated. Based on the results presented in the previous chapter, hypothesis 8c, that employees' level of education will relate negatively to employees' resistance to organisational change was supported. Accordingly, it can be concluded that educated employees are less resistant to change than their counterparts are.

As has been demonstrated in previous studies, significant relationships have been found between level of education and resistance to organisational change. The finding was consistent with prior research, which suggests that employees with higher education are less resistant to change (e.g., Alsaedi, 1996; Battistelli *et al.*, 2013; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001). Similarly, other research indicated that employees with higher education tend to have more confidence to face

uncertainties; therefore, they are more effective in coping with any changes within the workplace (Kumar and Kamalanabhan, 2005). Kumar and Kamalanabhan (2005) found that education is positively related to coping with change. Likewise, Iverson (1996) suggested that the acceptance of organisational change is increased when employees have higher education.

This result may be explained by the fact that educated employees, as Iverson (1996) argued, are better able to meet the new challenges of their job and more flexible and adaptable to a new environment, and therefore less resistant to change. Accordingly, higher education contributes to increase awareness of employees about the importance of change and its positive consequences on organisations, and more importantly leads to reduce their negative attitudes towards organisational change.

7.4.4 Level of Job and Resistance to Organisational Change

Unexpectedly, the result of hypothesis 8d confirms that level of job (employee=1, manager=2) was negatively correlated with resistance to change. Therefore, the result of hypothesis 8d did not support the expectation that level of job will related positively with resistance to organisational change. It can be concluded that employees are more resistant to organisational change than managers. Also, this result may indicate that employees in the surveyed organisations suffered from a lack of information and clarity about the organisational change programme in these organisations.

On the other hand, the low level of resistance among managers may imply that they had accurate and adequate information about the organisational change programme, including assurance about their benefits and future career; therefore, they were more accepting of change and less resistant to it. This argument is in line with García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014) who stated that managers have greater access to information and more opportunities for participation than employees do, so they are likely to show lower resistance.

Although this result was not expected, it is consistent with some previous research that has shown level of job to be negatively correlated with resistance to organisational change (e.g., Alsaedi, 1996; García-Cabrera and Hernández, 2014). For example, a recent study conducted by García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014) showed that managerial responsibility was associated with individuals offering less resistance. Additionally, Alsaedi (1996) found that both senior managers and middle management were more supportive and less resistant to

change compared to non-managers. Similarly, Iverson (1996) suggested that managers expressed greater belief in the change process when alerted to the problems facing the organisation. Kumar and Kamalanabhan (2005) found that seniority was positively correlated to coping with change and that hierarchically lower level employees, particularly clerks and other non-management staff, would resist the change initiative more.

7.5 Discussion of Further Analyses Results

Beyond the hypothesised relationships, the current study reported the outcomes of further analysis in regard of three aspects. First, the direct effects of organisational commitment, job satisfaction, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership on the three sub-dimensions of resistance to organisational change, namely, affective resistance, behavioural resistance, and cognitive resistance. Second, the indirect effects of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and leader-member exchange as mediators between the main constructs and the three sub-dimensions of resistance. Third, multi-group analyses of the effects of the main factors on resistance to organisational change.

It is worth noting that the findings of the present study, as shown in the multi-group analyses in the previous chapter, showed no differences between demographic factors regarding the impact of the main constructs on resistance to organisational change. Therefore, the following subsections will concentrate on only the first and second aspects.

7.5.1 The Direct Effects of the Main Constructs on the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

As presented in the previous chapter, it was found that all main constructs, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and leader-member exchange were correlated directly, negatively, with all the three resistance components, with the exception of transformational leadership, which was related negatively with only the behavioural component of resistance. With the exception of transformational leadership, the main constructs mentioned had the strongest effects on this component of resistance, followed by affective resistance, then cognitive resistance. As mentioned earlier, the emotional/affective resistance component refers to individuals' sensations, feelings, and emotions about the change, the intentional/behavioural resistance component comprises the actions already taken or which will be taken in the future for or against change, while

the cognitive component includes individuals' opinions, evaluations, and interpretations about the change (Bouckennooghe, 2010; Oreg, 2006).

In addition, these findings demonstrated that these relationships could not have been revealed were it not for the multifaceted conceptualisation of resistance (Oreg, 2006). Even more, they, as will be illustrated later, they emphasized what have been suggested by some scholars such as García-Cabrera and Hernández (2014) and Oreg (2006) that each one of the three resistance components has different antecedents. These findings will be discussed in the following subsections.

1) The Direct Effects of Job Satisfaction on the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

The present study found that job satisfaction was negatively correlated with behavioural, affective, and cognitive resistance, and had a particularly strong effect on participants' behavioural resistance to the change, followed by affective resistance, then cognitive resistance. In other words, increased level of job satisfaction was related significantly to reduced feelings of anger, frustration, and anxiety with respect to the change, to decreased negative evaluations and interpretations of the need for and value of the organisational change, and in particular to decreased actions and negative behaviours against the change (Oreg, 2006).

This result partially supports Oreg's (2006) findings. While the current study found that job satisfaction had negative effects on resistance components, Oreg (2006) demonstrated, on the other hand, that affective resistance was negatively correlated with job satisfaction, behavioural resistance was positively correlated with intention to quit, and cognitive resistance was negatively associated with continuance commitment. Furthermore, Oreg (2006) argued that each resistance component was particularly related to the corresponding work-related outcome (i.e., affective resistance to an affective outcome, behavioural resistance to a behavioural outcome, and cognitive resistance to a cognitive outcome). On the other hand, the present study confirms that employees' satisfaction plays a crucial role in their reactions towards organisational change, where the more employees are satisfied with their jobs, the less they fear, have negative evaluations about, and intend to exhibit behavioural resistance to the change.

2) The Direct Effects of Organisational Commitment on the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

The findings of the current study asserted that organisational commitment was negatively associated with behavioural, affective, and cognitive resistance. However, it was found that organisational commitment has the strongest direct effects on behavioural resistance to organisational change, followed by affective resistance, then cognitive resistance. This finding implies that participants, both managers and employees, who were committed to their organisations were less resistant to organisational change. More specifically, participants who felt highly committed towards their organisations or believed it was worthwhile to remain in these organisations were less prone to practising anti-change behaviours (e.g., convincing others that the change was not important or unfeasible), had less negative feelings and emotions about the change (anxiety, anger, frustration, or fear), and were less likely to have negative evaluations about the change (Oreg, 2006).

To some extent, this result is consistent with some previous studies (Peccei *et al.*, 2011; Seo *et al.*, 2012), although these studies used resistance to organisational change as a uni-dimensional construct. For example, Peccei *et al.* (2011) found that organisational commitment was correlated negatively with resistance to organisational change. A study conducted by Seo *et al.* (2012) found that organisational commitment was negatively correlated with behavioural resistance to change, but the study did not include other components of resistance to change.

3) The Direct Effects of Leader-Member Exchange on the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

According to the findings, leader-follower exchange relationships were negatively associated with the three resistance components. These results suggest that employees in low LMX relationships were more practising of anti-change behaviours, had more negative feelings and emotions about the change, and had more negative evaluations of the change. Conversely, employees with high quality of LMX were more likely to have low levels of these three different components of resistance to organisational change.

Such a result is generally in line with some past works (Georgalis *et al.*, 2015; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). However, this result is characterized by emphasizing that the impact of the exchange relationship between superiors and subordinates

is not limited to reducing resistance to organisational change; it also confirms that the three dimensions of resistance are adversely affected by this relationship, and more specifically, behavioural resistance is affected more strongly by this relationship compared to other sub-dimensions.

4) The Direct Effects of Transformational Leadership on the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

The current research demonstrates that behavioural resistance was the only sub-dimension of resistance to organisational change affected by transformational leadership. This result implies that transformational leaders' behaviours mitigate employees' behavioural resistance to change, but do not necessarily decrease their affective and cognitive resistance to change, signifying its lack importance in forming employees' affective and cognitive resistance to organisational change. In this regard, Fugate (2012) comments that it seems that leader openness to change begets openness and leader resistance begets resistance.

This result is in line with the leadership literature that emphasizes the role of leaders' traits, values, and behaviours in predicting their followers' behaviours and reactions to an organisational change (Oreg and Berson, 2011). Podsakoff *et al.* (1990 and 1996), for example, found that transformational leadership behaviours impacted on followers' attitudes and behaviours. Oreg and Berson (2011) found evidence to support these findings. They revealed that individuals' intentions to resist organisational change were negatively related to transformational leadership behaviours and leaders' dispositional resistance to change positively influenced employees' intentions to resist a given organisational change. Furthermore, they suggested that followers of transformational leaders were less likely to report resistance intentions, in comparison with employees of non-transformational leaders, and that leaders' dispositional resistance to change is likely to be translated positively into employees' reactions.

7.5.2 The Indirect Effects of the Main Constructs on Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

The following subsections will discuss briefly the effects of mediators between the main constructs, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership, and the three resistance

components, namely, affective resistance, cognitive resistance, and behavioural resistance.

1) Job Satisfaction as a Mediator between LMX and the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

According to the findings, it was found that job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange relationships and two resistance components, affective resistance and behavioural resistance. On the other hand, the indirect effect of this mediator between leader-member exchange relationships and cognitive resistance was nonsignificant, suggesting that the study does not have enough evidence to support the mediation role of job satisfaction between these factors.

These findings confirm that employees' satisfaction enhances the direct negative effect of exchange relationships between leaders and followers on affective and behavioural resistance towards organisational change. Accordingly, it can be concluded that leader-member exchange affects negatively employees' affective and behavioural resistance through job satisfaction and directly negatively affects their cognitive resistance regardless of their job satisfaction. In other words, employees who perceived a low-quality LMX relationship were less satisfied with their jobs, and subsequently reported high affective and behavioural resistance to the change. Alternatively, when followers have a low quality of relationship with their leaders and are dissatisfied with their jobs, they will be more afraid and worried about change and have more intention to resist it.

2) Job Satisfaction as a Mediator between Transformational Leadership and the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

The findings showed that job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and behavioural resistance, whereas no mediation effect was found between transformational leadership and affective resistance and cognitive resistance, since transformational leadership did not affect directly these either of components.

This a result confirms that employees' satisfaction supports the direct negative effect of transformational leaders on employees' behavioural resistance towards organisational change. Accordingly, it can be concluded that transformational leadership negatively affects employees' behavioural resistance through job satisfaction. This means that followers of non-transformational leaders were less

satisfied with their jobs, and subsequently reported more behavioural resistance or were more inclined to resist change.

3) Organisational Commitment as a Mediator between Job Satisfaction and the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

Based on the findings, it was found that organisational commitment partially mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and two resistance components, affective resistance and behavioural resistance. What is more, the indirect effect of this mediator between job satisfaction and cognitive resistance was nonsignificant, suggesting that the study does not have enough evidence to support the mediation role of organisational commitment between these factors.

Accordingly, it can be concluded that job satisfaction negatively affects employees' affective and behavioural resistance through organisational commitment and directly negatively affects their cognitive resistance, regardless of their organisational commitment. Put differently, employees who were satisfied with their jobs were more committed to their organisations, and subsequently reported low affective and behavioural resistance to change.

4) Organisational Commitment as a Mediator between LMX and the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

It was found that organisational commitment partially mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange relationships and all resistance components, providing evidence that organisational commitment plays an important role in facilitating the effect of exchange relationships between leaders and followers in reducing affective, cognitive, and behavioural resistance towards organisational change. Consequently, it can be concluded that participants felt that their resistance to organisational change was affected negatively by their organisational commitment when the quality of LMX was high.

Based on these results, it can be argued that to extend the effects of LMX to reducing the level of resistance organisational change, organisations should pay more attention to increasing organisational commitment among employees and managers alike. This means that leader-member exchange relationship alone is not sufficient to have a direct influence on the three resistance components. Thus, it is essential to strengthen relations between superiors and subordinates and intensify efforts to promote the concept of organisational commitment among individuals in order to reduce their resistance to any initiative for organisational change.

5) Organisational Commitment as a Mediator between Transformational Leadership and the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

The findings indicated that organisational commitment partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and behavioural resistance. On the other hand, no mediation effects were found between transformational leadership and affective resistance and cognitive resistance, since transformational leadership did not affect directly either of these components, suggesting that the study does not have enough evidence to support the mediation role of organisational commitment between these factors.

This result confirms that employees' commitment to their organisations supports the direct negative effect of transformational leaders on employees' behavioural resistance towards organisational change. Therefore, it can be concluded that transformational leadership negatively affects employees' behavioural resistance through organisational commitment. This means that followers of non-transformational leaders were less committed to their organisations, which led them to show more behavioural resistance to the change.

6) LMX as a Mediator between Transformational Leadership and the Sub-dimensions of Resistance to Organisational Change

It was found that leader-member exchange relationships partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and behavioural resistance. However, the direct effects of TL on affective and cognitive resistance were nonsignificant, suggesting that the study does not have enough evidence to support the mediation role of LMX between these factors.

In view of the above, it can be concluded that transformational leaders negatively affect employees' behavioural resistance through a high quality of leader-member exchange relations. In other words, employees of transformational leaders were less inclined to exhibit behavioural resistance to change, especially when they perceived themselves to have high quality LMX with such leaders.

7.6 Summary of Findings

The need for change in contemporary organisations has not become an option for these organisations, but it has become a reality that must be taken for survival. This fact of the need to adopt organisational change has provoked many management scientists and organisational behaviour researchers to generate and examine many theories and strategies that enhance chances of successful organisational change initiatives. More importantly, many recent studies have shown that failure of the majority of organisational change initiatives is due mainly to individuals' resistance to organisational change. Therefore, in order to gain a broader understanding of this phenomenon and organisational factors that affect it, this study has come to achieve these objectives.

The results of the present study have emphasized views of many scholars that leaders are more influential in an organisational context, and their crucial role is more apparent during times of change, through reducing individuals' resistance to change. Within an organisational change situation, employees are often keen to know the details of the change in terms of its objectives, benefits, and expected impacts on them. This situation creates some uncertainty about their future resulting in different reactions that lead to their supporting the change or resisting it. Consequently, as stated earlier, the importance of the role of leaders in implementing organisational change successfully stems from providing accurate and timely information about change, giving direct support to followers, shaping positively followers' responses to change, and embodying an appropriate model of behaviour during the change, thereby reducing employees' confusion and uncertainty.

More specifically, the study found empirical evidence that both types of leadership style, leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, were directly negatively associated with employees' resistance to organisational change. As previously mentioned, in high-quality LMXs, followers receive greater access to resources and information, a high degree of interpersonal attractions, and mutual confidence and respect, which lead them to reciprocate by exhibiting less resistance to change. In addition, transformational leaders influence followers' reactions toward the change by promoting a climate of creativity to enable them to better understand the need for change, inspiring followers by offering a compelling vision of future changes in the organisation, instilling confidence in their ability to meet high expectations, and motivating

them to maintain their job satisfaction and performance despite the uncertainty and anxiety of the change. Accordingly, it is not surprising that followers are more likely to react favourably to change, both attitudinally and behaviourally by offering more support to the change or less resistance to it.

Meanwhile, the study has emphasized the importance of the direct influences of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which are the most work-related attitudes most frequently studied in the literature, in mitigating individuals' resistance to organisational change. Specifically, the findings confirmed that participants who were satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their organisations were less resistant to organisational change. This means that if individuals' job satisfaction improves and their commitment increases, they would show less resistance to any initiative for organisational change.

Even more, the current study found several distinct results that have not been shown in previous studies so far. For example, the present study is distinct from previous research by emphasizing that job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand. This suggests that both work-related attitudes play crucial roles in strengthening the role of the two leadership styles mentioned in the work environment, especially in organisational change situations, by reducing the level of employees' resistance to change. Put differently, these results support expectation that the two leadership styles would enable followers to be convinced for change and support it by enhancing and increasing their job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

This undoubtedly suggests that although leaders play a pivotal role in the success of organisational change situations, as repeatedly indicated in the literature, employees' satisfaction and their commitment are also important to enhance the effect of leadership in achieving this goal. Besides that, building and paying more attention to increasing work-related attitudes is particularly essential before and during adopting any organisational change initiatives.

7.7 Implications

The theoretical and practical implications of this study are worth noting. Therefore, the following two sub-sections will discuss the potential usefulness of this study for developing theory and improving workplace effectiveness.

7.7.1 Theoretical Implications

Generally, this study has made a theoretical contribution to the literature by establishing the theoretical framework linking between leader-member exchange, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and resistance to organisational change. It contributes to a better understanding not only of the direct influences of leader-member exchange and transformational leadership on reducing resistance to organisational change, but also of the mechanisms through which these two key leadership styles affect resistance in the context of organisational change.

More specifically, the significant contribution of the study to the existent research is in providing empirical evidence for the mediation role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the relationships between two different leadership styles and resistance to organisational change. Very little previous work has been conducted to investigate the antecedents of resistance in the context of organisational change. The main theoretical contributions of this study will be highlighted in the following paragraphs.

The first contribution of the present study relates to the influences of some antecedents of resistance to organisational change on the resistance itself. Specifically, the results of this study limited to the investigation of the relationships between two leadership styles and two work-related attitudes, on one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand, which suggests that such relationships contribute to clarify general picture of the phenomenon of resistance but with no more details. Therefore, the relationships between these factors and resistance to change should be further developed by examining the possible influence of their subdimensions and the resistance. For example, there is a need to investigate the influence of job satisfaction facets (e.g. working conditions, pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and security) on resistance to change, as well as the impact of subdimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuous, and normative) on the resistance.

Recently, although there has been growing interest in such a direction, still more research is needed to understand the phenomenon of resistance in many ways. For example, Yousef (2017) found that only satisfaction with coworkers has direct effects on both affective and behavioural tendency dimensions attitudes toward organisational change but not with resistance to change. In addition, McKay *et al.* (2013) found that only affective commitment was negatively and

significantly related to resistance to change. Zhao *et al.* (2016) concluded that commitment to organisation correlated negatively with behavioural resistance to change but not with affective or cognitive resistance.

The second contribution of the present study relates to the conceptualisation of resistance to organisational change. The current study fills a gap in the literature of change management, which many scholars (e.g., Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000; Szabla, 2007 among others) have called for by using resistance to organisational change as a multidimensional construct that comprises cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components. Related to this point, among the most interesting findings of this study were that organisational commitment, job satisfaction, LMX, then transformational leadership, respectively, influenced resistance generally, while, on the other hand, these factors, except the latter factor, were more influential on behavioural and affective resistance, then cognitive resistance. Thus, this study extends research on the effect of different organisational factors on these three dimensions of resistance.

This may reflect the importance of adopting the multidimensional concept of resistance as it provides further understanding of this phenomenon and paves the way for developing appropriate strategies for reducing resistance. Focusing on a broad notion of resistance is likely to provide only a partial and incomplete picture of resistance, while using the three dimensions of resistance indicates more clearly and specifically the negative reactions of individuals towards change (Giangreco and Peccei, 2005). The implication is that, in today's fast-paced change, employees' resistance to change needs to be understood and managed based on its three components rather than as a unidimensional construct.

Third, the present work extends LMX theory by investigating the role of leader member exchange in influencing employees' resistance to change. Moreover, it is suggested that previous studies of LMX theory have paid more attention to the positive effects of high-quality exchanges between leaders and followers (Bolino and Turnley, 2009), while the relationship between LMX and resistance to organisational change has not been investigated adequately. However, in this study, it was found that a good exchange relationship between leaders and followers led followers to reciprocate by exhibiting more satisfaction with their jobs, more commitment to their organisations, and less resistance to change. Accordingly, the results of the study demonstrated that LMX could mitigate

resistance by increasing both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. So far, this kind of investigation has not been reported in previous research.

Even more, this study goes beyond those general findings. As a response to some recent research calls (Avolio *et al.*, 2009; Dulebohn *et al.*, 2012; Hughes *et al.*, 2010), this study shows that LMX plays a full mediating role between transformational leadership and resistance. Therefore, besides the direct effect of LMX on resistance confirmed by this study, such contributions may add new insights to the LMX body of knowledge and would extend it to take account of the mediating role played by job satisfaction and organisational commitment in reducing resistance, as well as the mediating role of the exchange relationship between leader and followers, between transformational leadership and resistance.

Fourth, the present study also extends transformational leadership theory by highlighting the role of transformational leaders in reducing employees' resistance to change. This study showed the pivotal role of transformational leaders in the success of organisational change in modern organisations through convincing individuals about the importance of change and supporting and motivating them to accept it (Bommer *et al.*, 2005; Herold *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, it is no surprise that transformational leaders facilitate employees' acceptance of change, as Oreg and Berson (2011) indicate. Moreover, this study fills the knowledge gap mentioned by Oreg and Berson (2011) who suggested that few studies have examined leaders' personal attributes or behaviours in the context of organisational change, with very little attention in these studies to employees' reactions to change.

Fifth, in the context of organisational change, the present study showed that integrating both leadership theories, LMX and transformational leadership, is especially important for contemporary organisations. Specifically, this study brings empirical evidence that both theories independently contribute to reducing resistance to change. Even more, it showed that LMX mitigates the influence of transformational leadership on resistance when both theories are examined together. This probably indicates that reduced resistance to organisational change is not attributed to a single style of leadership, but it may be a result of the impact of several styles.

As emphasized by Basu and Green (1997), integrating these two styles of leadership in one study is interesting and even more necessary. Moreover, this

study addresses the call for empirical investigation of the influence of both theories simultaneously (Anand *et al.*, 2011; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Krishnan, 2004; Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2005). Consequently, the current study contributes to the academic literature by linking the two bodies of knowledge and expands our understanding of the influences of various styles of leadership within the workplace, particularly their impacts on employees' attitudes and behaviours toward organisational change.

Sixth, one of the distinctive contributions of this study is that it provides empirical evidence of the influences of leadership on employees' resistance to change from a different context to the literature. Specifically, the previous research in the field of organisational change has predominantly stemmed from the Western context, while the findings of the current study reflected the Saudi organisations' context. To the best knowledge of the researcher, this research is the first study that investigated the influence of two styles of leadership on employees' resistance to change and examined the mediating role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment between these factors in an Arab context, in the Saudi workplace context in particular. Hence, it adds to the literature by emphasizing the possibility of developing and applying Western theories in different contexts, as well as reinforces their applicability to develop Saudi organisations and help them to achieve their plans and programmes successfully.

Seventh, although this study showed that there is no significant correlation between LMX-managers and LMX-employees, suggesting that the data collected were independent and should be analysed at individual level (see section 5.5), measuring the LMX construct from both perspectives is considered a methodological contribution of the present study. Schriesheim *et al.* (2001) argue that data on leader-subordinate relationships have typically been collected from either just the subordinates or just the leader, but not both. In order to be consistent with the basic premise of the theory, as Gerstner and Day (1997) emphasized, LMX relationship should always be measured from the perspectives of both leaders and members.

7.7.2 Practical Implications

This study demonstrated the critical role of leadership in the success of organisational change situations through enhancing job satisfaction and organisational commitment, thus reducing resistance to change. As has been indicated by many previous studies, leader-member exchange and

transformational leadership theories are uniquely appropriate for leading change in modern organisations. Therefore, it is desirable for organisations to establish high-quality relationships between leaders and followers and to enhance the concept of transformational leadership among leaders and, hence, to bring about a strong willingness to support change among employees or at least reduce their inclination to resist it.

Change agents should give special attention to, for example, implement intensive workshops, panel discussions, and training courses for current leaders concentrate on the central role of leaders during change and the role of exchange relationships between leaders and followers in achieving change programmes. In addition, human resource management should set precise standards for leadership positions based on selecting and adopting leaders with the most influential personality traits and focus on activating the work environment and success of its objectives. Perhaps even before that, the selection of leaders who have awareness about the importance of change is considered as a first step in paving the way for success of change. In other words, criteria for choosing leaders to higher positions should take into account to what extent a candidate is flexible towards organisational change and unlikely to prove an obstacle to its success.

Furthermore, although the results show that both job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important predictors of resistance to change and its three components, the pattern of impact of these two independent variables differs. Specifically, the study demonstrated that the direct effects of organisational commitment on resistance to change and on its three components were stronger than the direct effects of job satisfaction on these dependent variables and, at the same time, it found that organisational commitment mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and resistance. Hopefully, managers make it a basic practice to invest in enhancing and maintaining the commitment and satisfaction of their employees. The present findings emphasize the added value of such practices when planning and implementing organisational change (Oreg *et al.*, 2008). Thus, organisations should carefully design their human resource management practices to support job satisfaction and organisational commitment in order to create a work environment that is more accepting of change and less resistant to it.

From a conceptual perspective, in response to calls of many researchers (see e.g., Heuvel *et al.*, 2015; Oreg, 2006; Pieterse *et al.*, 2012; Vakola *et al.*, 2013)

to studying resistance to organisational change as a three-dimensional construct, the current study highlighted these dimensions in terms of to what extent they are influenced by selected leadership styles and work-related attitudes. As mentioned earlier, the current study supported findings of previous studies (e.g. García-Cabrera and Hernández, 2014; Oreg, 2006) that each one of the three resistance components has different antecedents. Whereas organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and leaders-member exchange are likely to provoke all components of resistance, transformational leadership is likely to arouse specifically only the behavioural component. In other words, while work-related attitudes and LMX influence how individuals think, feel, and behave against the change, the influence of transformational leaders does not exceed individuals' behaviour against the change.

Therefore, managers can learn from these results that what employees feel about their jobs, to what extent they would remain in their organisations, and how they evaluate their relationships with leaders could later translate into and affect their opinions and evaluations about the change, their feelings and sensations, and ultimately their behaviours towards the change. Put differently, managers should be aware that employees' attitudes towards their jobs and organisational environment may predict how they will evaluate, feel about, and behave against any organisational change initiative (García-Cabrera and Hernández, 2014; Oreg, 2006). Consequently, managers should be careful in interpreting employees' responses to change proposals, as well as more sensitive to the different forms in which resistance can manifest itself, and, more importantly, select the more appropriate strategy to alleviate each form of resistance. This may emphasize that knowledge of the attitudes and reactions of these employees is important for organisational change management and for career counselling (Oreg, 2006).

In addition, it is important that managers should pay more attention to strengthening and consolidating positive evaluations about change through maintaining a steady, adequate, and accurate flow of information about the change (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2017; Bhal *et al.*, 2009; Oreg, 2006; Van Dam *et al.*, 2008), which would be reflected in more positive feelings and behaviour of employees toward the change. This undoubtedly confirms the important role of information about the change plan in shaping perceptions of individuals and then their feelings and behaviours towards change.

On the other hand, it might be more useful to consider measuring candidates' attitudes towards organisational change, especially resistance to change, during recruitment and personnel selection, or even promotion and development processes. In this regard, alongside other factors, such as skills and work experience, organisations that are experiencing or expect to experience high levels of change should pay more attention to looking for ways to hire employees who strongly support and have positive attitudes toward change (Michel *et al.*, 2013; Yousef, 2000b). In this regard, Alshamasi (2012) emphasizes that having employees who can implement different tasks and activities to meet changes in work requirements will undoubtedly enable organisations to react more flexibly to future changes.

7.8 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Like every empirical research, the present study has several limitations; therefore, its results should be interpreted with caution. First, the cross-sectional design of the current study, collecting data while organisational change programmes were taking place in some Saudi organisations, may limit the testing of cause-effect relationships found between variables used in this study. Even more, due to data being collected at one time, it might not fully capture the dynamic nature of resistance to organisational change. Consequently, for a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of resistance to organisational change, the use of a longitudinal design in future research may help address this limitation and provide more explanations of this phenomenon. This could be done by assessing the resistance pre-change, during, and after change.

The second limitation of this study is related to the context of the study, as the mediation model was developed for the Saudi context. Specifically, data of this study were collected from three Saudi organisations, which may limit the generalisability of the current findings and may limit them to the organisations under investigation. Accordingly, more research is needed to test the present model in other public and private organisations in the Saudi context in an effort to make useful comparisons between organisations, as well as in order to truly understand the constructs included in this study and the relationships among them in various organisational contexts. This may help in examining the effective roles of leadership, as well as work-attitudes in Saudi culture in general and in the changing organisational environment in Saudi Arabia context in particular.

Third, the current study relied on collecting data from the sample of administrative staff in three organisations mentioned above and all participants were men. Thus, such a restricted sample of administrative staff limits the generalisability of the study's findings and conclusions beyond this type of sample. It would be interesting for future research to collect data from other employees, whether men or women, working in different organisational settings, such as acquisition or merger, to provide information to support or contradict the results of the present study.

Fourth, the data were collected based on self-reported survey or a single source, except for the LMX and TL constructs, and this may lead to the effect of common method biases. Podsakoff *et al.*'s (2003, 2012) recommendations were followed in an attempt to reduce or control this effect (see section 4.3). Nevertheless, as Podsakoff *et al.* (2003) emphasized, it may be impossible to fully eliminate all forms of common method biases. Therefore, future studies may obtain data from alternative sources or use non self-reported measures of resistance involving, for example, supervisory or co-workers' ratings of employees' resistance to change (Giangreco and Peccei, 2005).

Fifth, as with all self-reported data, social desirability bias is a possible source of common method variance. According to Kim and Kim (2016), self-reports are often susceptible to social desirability bias due to respondents' tendency to answer in a socially acceptable way instead of expressing their true feelings. In this respect, Fisher (1993) argued that respondents are often unwilling or unable to report accurately on sensitive topics for ego-defensive or impression management reasons. Helpap and Bekmeier-Feuerhahn (2016) emphasize that resistance is highly affected by social desirability; therefore, resistance to organisational change is considered a clear example of measurement used in this study that may raise such bias. Therefore, future research in the field of the present study should develop a survey taking into account some strategies to control for or eliminate social desirability bias, such as maximizing subject anonymity, using indirect questioning, using logically opposite items, asking non-judgmental questions, or including social desirability scales (Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Kim and Kim, 2016; King and Bruner, 2000).

The sixth limitation is related to survey construction. Although the present study used available instruments that have substantial evidence of reliability and validity, careful attention was paid to the development of these instruments, and pilot testing to determine their reliability and validity were conducted. More

specifically, in order to ensure their validity and reliability, these instruments have been tested once in a pilot study and once in the main study. The results of both tests gave confidence for using these instruments in the main study. The reliability values were ($\alpha = 87-97$) in the pilot test, while they were ($\alpha = 88-96$) in the main study. Moreover, the factor analysis has reported highly significant results. Therefore, because of the high reported reliability and validity of these instruments in the current study, this is unlikely to be a major concern here. Nevertheless, the translation of these instruments from English to Arabic may have had an impact on the findings resulting from the study. Additionally, using Oreg's (2006) instrument as a means of measuring ROC, the only measure using the three components of ROC that exists in the literature so far, might limit the findings and conclusions of this study. Future research would be valuable to test the present model with other instruments. Further, it will be extremely important for future research to develop new scales of the constructs used in this study for the Saudi organisational context.

Seventh, although the proposed model of this study stemmed from the literature and confirmed that job satisfaction and organisational commitment were antecedents of resistance to organisational change, there are other alternative models untested by this study, which view resistance as an antecedent of these factors. Moreover, this study has concentrated only on the impact of two leadership styles on resistance to organisational change and the mediation role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment between these factors. Perhaps another task for future researchers is to identify the impact of other leadership styles not considered in this study, or other organisational factors, on employees' resistance to change. Even more, looking into the potential mediating role of both mediators between, for example, organisational culture or organisational climate on resistance appears worthwhile for future studies. Investigating new mediators, such as organisational justice, trust in management, or organisational citizenship behavioural could contribute to expanding the existing literature of resistance to change.

7.9 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine how two leadership styles, leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, relate to resistance to organisational change, both directly and indirectly through the effects of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Moreover, the study aimed to investigate the role of job satisfaction and organisational commitment as

potential mediators between the relationships of leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand. What is more, the study sought to examine the relationship between some demographic characteristics (age, tenure, qualifications, and job level) of participants and resistance to organisational change.

As hypothesised, support was found for the two leadership styles and both job satisfaction and organisational commitment being directly negatively related to resistance and the two latter factors operating as mediators between the two leadership styles and resistance to organisational change. It was found that organisational commitment mediated the relationship between job satisfaction, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership, on the one hand, and resistance to organisational change, on the other hand. Moreover, it was found that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange and transformational leadership, on the one hand, and resistance, on the other hand. Also, leader-member exchange mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and resistance. However, surprisingly, it was found that none of the hypothesized effects of age, tenure, or level of job on resistance to organisational change were supported, while the effect of level of education on resistance was supported.

Additionally, the findings of further analysis revealed that job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and LMX are correlated directly and negatively with all three sub-dimensions of resistance (affective, cognitive, and behavioural), and in particular they have a strong effect on participants' behavioural resistance, followed by affective resistance, then cognitive resistance. Also, it was found that TL was related negatively with only the behavioural component of resistance.

Furthermore, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and LMX were found to be mediators between TL and behavioural resistance, while it was found that organisational commitment mediated the relationship of job satisfaction with affective resistance and behavioural resistance, this variable mediated the relationship between LMX and all resistance components. Furthermore, the study found evidence that job satisfaction mediated the relationship of leader-member exchange with two resistance components, affective resistance and behavioural resistance. Finally, it was found that there were no differences between groups regarding the effects of job satisfaction,

organisational commitment, leader-member exchange, and transformational leadership on resistance to organisational change.

Accordingly, the current study demonstrated that each of the two styles of leadership not only plays a critical role in reducing and mitigating managers' and employees' resistance to organisational change, but also has indirect effects on resistance to organisational change via job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Therefore, resistance to organisational change could be reduced through improving the role of both styles of leadership, as well as through increasing and enhancing job satisfaction and organisational commitment within the workplace. More importantly, these findings emphasize, consistent with previous research, the importance of leadership in influencing an individual's attitudes and behaviours within the workplace and both styles of leadership can be highly effective, particularly during times of organisational change. Finally, by testing eight hypotheses formulated based on the literature, the study has fulfilled the eight research aims.

7.10 Summary

In light of the literature, the current chapter discussed the findings of the role of two leadership styles, leader-member exchange (LMX) and transformational leadership (TL), and two work-related attitudes, job satisfaction (JS) and organisational commitment (OC), in resistance to organisational change, the role of the mediators (JS, OC, and LMX) in resistance, and the role of demographic factors in resistance in the Saudi context. This chapter also addressed the findings of further analysis. Additionally, the most significant theoretical and practical implications of this study were highlighted separately. Furthermore, limitations of this study have been illustrated and discussed, and suggestions for future research have been provided. Finally, the final section has provided an overview of the study conclusion, which represents an intensive summary of this study.

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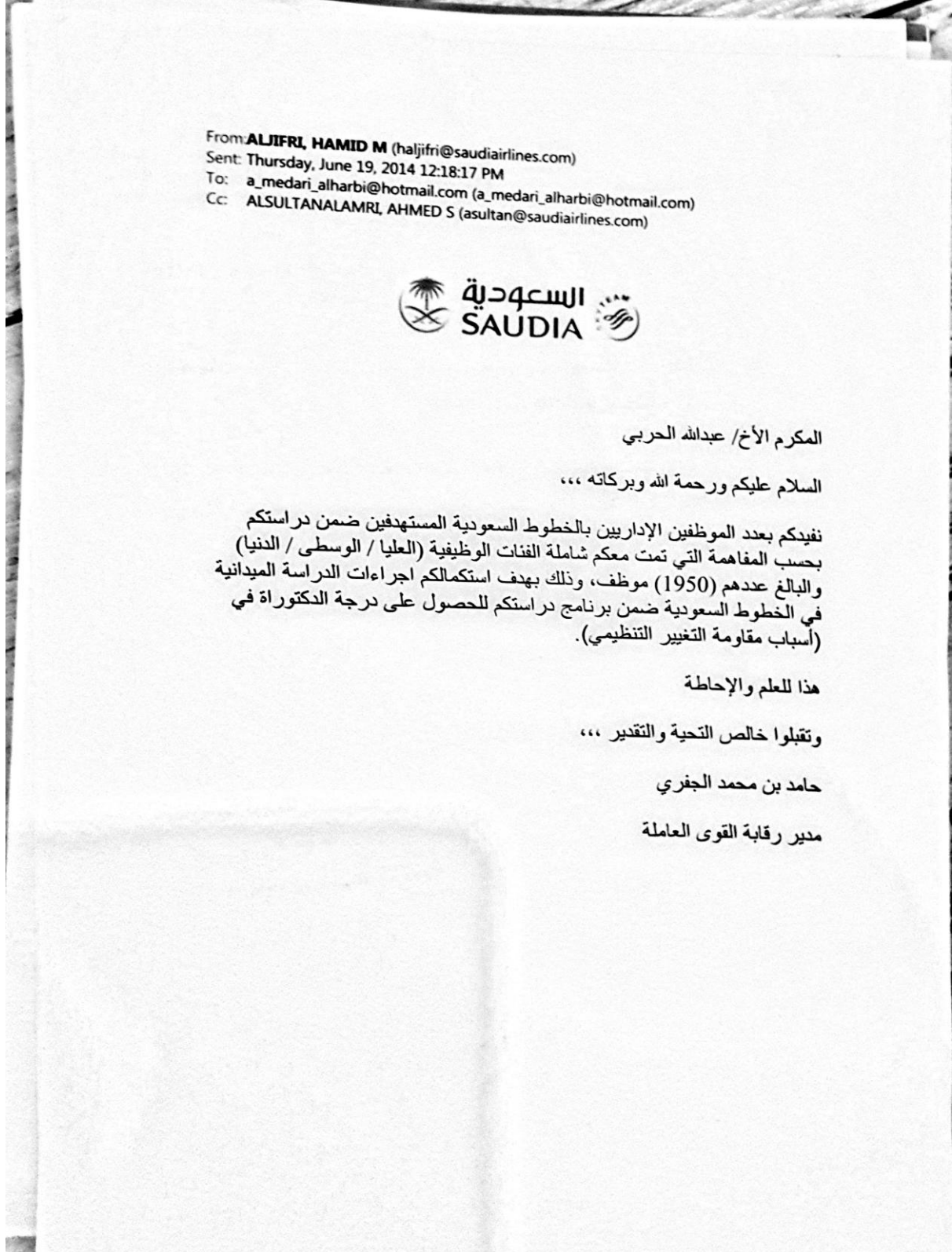
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Appendices

Appendix A

Formal Letter Received from SAUDIA Confirmed Number of Administrative Staff



Appendix B

Formal Letter Received from SRO Confirmed Number of Administrative Staff

ص.ب ٣٦
الدمام ٣١٢٤١
المملكة العربية السعودية
فاكس : ٨٧١٥١١٠ (+٩٦٦٣)
www.saudirailways.org

إطوئسة العامة للخطوط الحديدية
SAUDI RAILWAYS ORGANIZATION

(٢٢٦)
إدارة : التطوير الإداري
الرقم : ٣٥ / —

الموضوع : إفادة بعدد موظفي المؤسسة الإداريين.
المرفقات : ١

التاريخ ١٩/٨/١٤٣٥هـ

المحترم
المكرم الأستاذ / عبدالله بن مداري الحري
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ...

إشارة إلى خطابكم المؤرخ في ١٩/٨/١٤٣٥هـ (المرفق صورته) بشأن
دراستكم الميدانية في المؤسسة والمتضمن طلب تزويدكم بعدد الموظفين الإداريين
التابعين للمؤسسة.

نود إفادتكم بأن عدد الموظفين الإداريين (٦٢٢) موظف.

نأمل الإحاطة.

مع أطيب تحياتي ،،،

مدير عام الموارد البشرية
خميس بن عنبر مبارك

٢٤٧/٢٨ م

Appendix C

Number of Administrative Staff at SWCC

التقرير السنوي
١٤٣٥هـ - ١٤٣٤هـ

٩١

إطلاق وتوطين الوظائف في المؤسسة:
 يتعدد مستوحي المؤسسة خلال هذا العام (١٤٣٤/١٤٣٥هـ) (٢٥٦، ١٠، ٢٥٦) منهم (٩، ٨١١) على نظام التشغيل والصيانة، و(٤٤٥) على نظام الخدمة المدنية. وقد بلغ عدد العاملين السعوديين (٨، ٩٩٢) عاملاً بنسبة (٦٨، ٧٨٪)، وبلغ عدد المتقاعدين (١، ٣٦٤) بنسبة (٢٢، ٢٢٪). وبمقارنة السنوات الخمس الماضية أي من عام (٢٠٠٩ - ٢٠١٣م) نجد أن نسبة السعودة ارتفعت بنسبة (٦٨، ٦٨٪) خلال الأعوام الخمس السابقة.

أعداد المتقاعدين بنظام التقاعد والصيانة

السنة	مجموع المتقاعدين	المتقاعدين	عددهم	%	السعوديون	عددهم	%
٢٠٠٩	٩١٢٠	١٧،٠	١٥٤٩	٨٣،٠	١٥٩١	٧٥،١	
٢٠١٠	٩١٢٢	١٦،٢	١٥٦٠	٨٣،٨	٨٠٢	٨٠،٢	
٢٠١١	٩١٩٢	١٥،٢	١٤٧٥	٨٤،٨	٨١٧	٨١،٧	
٢٠١٢	٩٧١٢	١٤،٣	١٣٨٦	٨٥،٧	٨٢٧	٨٢،٧	
٢٠١٣	٩٨١١	١٢،٨٨	١٣٦٤	٨٧،١٢	٨٥٧	٨٥،٧	

أعداد الموظفين بنظام الخدمة المدنية

الجهة	إداري	فني	الاجمعي
المركز الرئيسي	٣٦١	٤٩	٤١٠
فرع الغربية	٢٢	٩	٣١
فرع الشرقية	٤	٠	٤
الاجمعي	٣٨٧	٥٨	٤٤٥


علاوة على ذلك لا يوجد أي موظف غير سعودي على نظام الخدمة المدنية بالمؤسسة.

Source: SWCC (2013) Annual Report, 91.

Appendix D

The Consent of SAUDIA to Conduct the Field Research

135-6094



SAUDI ARABIAN AIRLINES الخطوط الجوية العربية السعودية

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المكرم السيد / عبد الله الحري

نفيدكم بالموافقة على إجراء الدراسة الميدانية في
الخطوط السعودية ضمن برنامج دراستكم للحصول على
درجة (الدكتوراه) في (أسباب مقاومة التغيير التنظيمي) .

مع تمنياتنا لكم بالتوفيق ”


احمد بن صالح آل هططان العمري
مدير عام برامج التدريب العامة
١٤٣٤/٠٥/٢٥ هـ

Khalid 01

INTEROFFICE

المراسلات الداخلية
مكتب البريد الإلكتروني

Appendix E

The Consent of SRO to Conduct the Field Research

ص ب ٣٦
الدمام ٣١٢٤١
المملكة العربية السعودية
فاكس : ٨٧١٥١١٠ (+٩٦٦٣)
www.saudirailways.org



المؤسسة العامة للخطوط الحديدية
SAUDI RAILWAYS ORGANIZATION

(٢٢٦)

إدارة : التطوير الإداري

الرقم : ٣٤ /

الموضوع : بشأن إجراء دراسة تطبيقية في المؤسسة.
المرفقات :

التاريخ ١٤ / ٨ / ٢٠١٤ هـ

المحترم

المكرم الأستاذ / عبدالله بن مداري الحربي
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ...

إشارة إلى خطابكم الموجه لمعالي الرئيس العام بشأن الموافقة على إجراء دراسة تطبيقية في المؤسسة عن علاقة عدد من المتغيرات التنظيمية بمقاومة التغيير التنظيمي بالمنظمات السعودية المستهدفة باستراتيجية التخصيص.


نفيدكم بقبول طلبكم لتطبيق الدراسة المشار إليها بعاليه ويمكنكم التنسيق مع الأستاذ / عارف بن علي آل سعيد من إدارة التطوير الإداري على

هاتف رقم / ٨٧١٥٠٠٦ أو على البريد الإلكتروني arif@sro.org.sa

للإحاطة.

مع أطيب تحياتي ، ، ،

نائب الرئيس للتخطيط والميزانية


محمد بن صالح القرني
خميمس بن عنبر مبارك

م ٢٣٤ / ٢٨

Appendix F

The Consent of SWCC to Conduct the Field Research

المؤسسة العامة لتحلية المياه المالحة
Saline Water Conversion Corporation

www.swcc.gov.sa



المملكة العربية السعودية
الرياض-العليا - طريق الملك فهد - ص.ب: ٥٩٦٨ الرياض، ١١٤٣٢
هاتف: ١١٤٣٣١١١ - فاكس: ١١٤٦٣١١١/١٠٠٠
KSA-Olaya-King Fahad Road
P.O.Box 5968 Riyadh 11432 Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Tel. +966 11 4631111 Fax +966 11 4631111/ 1001

إدارة تنمية الموارد البشرية HR Development

مشهد

إلى من يهيمه الأمر

نحيطكم بأن الطالب / عبدالله بن مداري الحربي المحاضر بجامعة الطائف و المبتعث إلى المملكة المتحدة لنيل درجة الدكتوراه تقدم للمؤسسة العامة لتحلية المياه المالحة بطلب إجراء دراسة ميدانية تتعلق برسالة الدكتوراه وتمت الموافقة على طلبه لإجراء تلك الدراسة . و أنهى الطالب / عبدالله بن مداري الحربي إجراء الدراسة الميدانية وفق متطلبات رسالة الدكتوراه . وبناءً على طلبه منح هذا المشهد.

وتقبلوا فائق تحياتي ، ،

مدير إدارة تنمية الموارد البشرية

فهد بن محمد السويح

١٤٣٥/١١/٢٠

الرقم : Ref : التاريخ : Date : المرفقات : Attach :

Appendix G

Hull University Business School (HUBS) Approval for Conducting the Field Work



Mr Abdullah Alharbi
18 Weald Park
Kingswood
HULL
HU7 3HS

Hull University Business School
Research Office
T +44(0)1482 463536
E h.carpenter@hull.ac.uk

Ref: HUBSREC 2014/02

28 January 2014

Dear Abdullah

Re: The influence of leader-member exchange (LMX) and transformational leadership (TL) on resistance to organisational change.

Thank you for your research ethics application.

I am pleased to inform you that on behalf of the Business School Research Ethics Committee at the University of Hull, Dr Joanne Cook has approved your application on 28 January 2014.

I wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely,

Hilary Carpenter
Secretary,
Research Ethics Committee



Hull University Business School
University of Hull
Hull, HU6 7RX
United Kingdom
School reception
+44 (0) 1482 347500
www.hull.ac.uk/hubs

Appendix H

Managers' Questionnaire (English Version)

Dear Manager

I would like your consent to participate in a research project as defined below, if you are happy to take part, then please proceed to complete the attached questionnaire.

The attached questionnaire represents a major part of completing my PhD degree at the University of Hull in United Kingdom. This questionnaire has approval from Hull University Business School (HUBS). The fundamental goal of my study is to investigate the role that is played by organisational factors in resistance to organisational change.

By participating, you may benefit others (your organisation, the researcher, and many scholars) by helping them to better understand this issue and its influences on the work environment. Your participation is completely voluntary and is highly appreciated, and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. Also, you do not have to answer every question. The questionnaire should take you less than twenty-five minutes to complete. More importantly, there are no right or wrong answers, so please answer the questions as honestly as possible.

All information you provide will be kept strictly confidential. To ensure this, kindly return to me the completed questionnaire in a sealed envelope within a maximum of two weeks, or hand it to me. Finally, if you require additional information or have any questions, please contact me via mobile or Email.

Sincerely,

Abdullah Medari Alharbi

PhD Student in Organisational Behaviour and HRM department at University of Hull

E-mail: A_medari_alharbi@hotmail.com

Section A: Please put a cross [X] in the box to indicate your answer:

1. Age:

Less than 25 years	25-less than 35 years	35 - less than 45 years	45 years and more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. How long have you been working for this organisation?

Less than 5 years	5 - less than 10 years	10 - less than 15 years	15 - less than 20 years	20 - less than 25 years	25 years and more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. How long have you been supervised by your current manager/supervisor?

Less than 6 months	6- less than 12 months	1 year-less than 5 years	5 years and more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Educational qualification:

Less than high school	High school	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Other (please specify it here).....

5. How many employees do you supervise?

Fewer than 5 persons	5 - 10 persons	11 - 25 persons	26 persons or more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. How long have you been manager in this department?

Less than 6 months	6- less than 12 months	1 year-less than 5 years	5 years and more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section B: The following measure aims to identify your attitudes and reactions towards organisational change in your organisation. Please, read each item carefully and then tick [] one box each row which reflects your point of view about each of the following statements:

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I speak rather highly of the change to others.					
2	I am afraid of the change.					
3	I believe that the change would harm the way things are done in the organisation.					
4	I look for ways to prevent the change from taking place.					
5	I am quite excited about the change.					
6	I think that it's a negative thing that we are going through the change.					
7	I disagree with the change.					
8	I have a bad feeling about the change.					
9	I believe that the change would benefit the organisation.					
10	I believe that I could personally benefit from the change.					
11	I complain about the change to my colleagues.					
12	The change makes me upset.					
13	I believe that the change would make my job harder.					
14	I present my objections regarding the change to management.					
15	I am stressed by the change.					

Section C: This section seeks to clarify the quality of the relationship between YOU and YOUR SUBORDINATES.

To help me with my research, I could be grateful if you would identify up to five subordinates for whom you are responsible, and answer the following questions regarding your relationships (please cross [X] one box each row as the following example).

Example:

Question	Answer	Subordinate 1	Subordinate 2	Subordinate 3	Subordinate 4	Subordinate 5
1. Do your subordinates usually know how satisfied you are with what they do?	Rarely	X				
	Occasionally		X			
	Sometimes				X	
	Fairly Often			X		
	Very Often					X

Question	Answer	Subordinate 1	Subordinate 2	Subordinate 3	Subordinate 4	Subordinate 5
1. Do your subordinates usually know how satisfied you are with what they do?	Rarely					
	Occasionally					
	Sometimes					
	Fairly Often					
	Very Often					

Question	Answer	Subordinate 1	Subordinate 2	Subordinate 3	Subordinate 4	Subordinate 5
2. How well do you understand your subordinates' job problems and needs?	Not a Bit					
	A Little					
	A Fair Amount					
	Quite a Bit					
	A Great Deal					
3. How well do you recognize your subordinates' potential?	Not at All					
	A Little					
	Moderately					
	Mostly					
	Fully					
4. Regardless of how much formal authority you have built into your position, what are the chances that you would use your power to help your subordinates solve problems in their work?	None					
	Small					
	Moderate					
	High					
	Very High					

Question	Answer	Subordinate 1	Subordinate 2	Subordinate 3	Subordinate 4	Subordinate 5
5. Regardless of the amount of formal authority you have, what are the chances that you would “bail out” your subordinates at your own expense?	None					
	Small					
	Moderate					
	High					
	Very High					
6. Your subordinates would have enough confidence in you that they would defend and justify your decision if you were not present to do so.	Strongly Disagree					
	Disagree					
	Neutral					
	Agree					
	Strongly Agree					
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your subordinates?	Extremely Ineffective					
	Worse Than Average					
	Average					
	Better Than Average					
	Extremely Effective					

Section D: The measure below includes 22 statements designed to identify leadership behaviours. To what extent do you agree with these statements as a description of your manager's (supervisor's) behaviours?. For each of the following statements, please tick [√] in one box only.

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My manager						
1	Is always seeking new opportunities for the organisation.					
2	Leads by “doing” rather than simply by “telling”.					
3	Fosters collaboration among work groups.					
4	Shows us that he expects a lot from us.					
5	Shows respect for my personal feelings.					
6	Provides me with new ways of looking at things which used to be a puzzle for me.					
7	Paints an interesting picture of the future for our group.					
8	Provides a good model to follow.					
9	Encourages employees to be “team players”.					
10	Insists on only the best performance.					
11	Acts without considering my feelings.					
12	Treats me without considering my personal feelings.					
13	Has ideas that have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas that I have never questioned before.					
14	Has a clear understanding of where we are going.					
15	Leads by example.					
16	Gets the group to work together for the same goals.					

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My manager						
17	Will not settle for second best.					
18	Behaves in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs.					
19	Stimulates me to think about old problems in new ways.					
20	Inspires others with his plans for the future.					
21	Develops a team attitude and spirit among his employees.					
22	Is able to get others committed to his dream of the future.					

Section E: Next statements focus on measuring job satisfaction in the workplace. To what extent you are satisfied with your job (please cross [X] one box each row)?

Statements		Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Not sure	Satisfied	Very satisfied
1	Being able to keep busy all the time.					
2	The chance to work alone on the job.					
3	The way my boss handles people.					
4	The chance to do different things from time to time.					
5	The chance to be “somebody” in the community.					
6	Competence of my supervisor in making decisions.					
7	Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.					
8	The way my job provides for steady employment.					
9	The way company policies are put into practice.					
10	The working conditions.					
11	The chance to do things for others.					
12	The chance to tell people what to do.					
13	My pay and the amount of work I do.					
14	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.					
15	The freedom to use my own judgment.					
16	The praise I get for doing a good job.					
17	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.					

Statements		Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Not sure	Satisfied	Very satisfied
18	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.					
19	The chances for advancement on this job.					
20	The way my co-workers get along with each other.					

Section F: The table below includes 18 statements that measure the extent of your commitment to the organisation. To what extent do you agree with the following statements (please cross [X] one box each row)?

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.					
2	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
3	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.					
4	I do not feel a strong sense of “belonging” to my organisation.					
5	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.					
6	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.					
7	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.					
8	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.					
9	I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organisation.					
10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.					
11	This organisation deserves my loyalty.					

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
12	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.					
13	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.					
14	I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.					
15	I owe a great deal to my organisation.					
16	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
17	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
18	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.					

Space below is left for you to write any further comments that you feel would be of interest to this research:

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Finally, I would like to thank you for your cooperation and for taking the time to fill in this questionnaire. Also, I would remind you before you submit the questionnaire to check every item to be sure you have not inadvertently omitted a response.

Appendix I

Employees' Questionnaire (English Version)

Dear Employee

I would like your consent to participate in a research project as defined below, if you are happy to take part, then please proceed to complete the attached questionnaire.

The attached questionnaire represents a major part of completing my PhD degree at the University of Hull in United Kingdom. This questionnaire has approval from Hull University Business School (HUBS). The fundamental goal of my study is to investigate the role that is played by organisational factors in resistance to organisational change.

By participating, you may benefit others (your organisation, the researcher, and many scholars) by helping them to better understand this issue and its influences on the work environment. Your participation is completely voluntary and is highly appreciated, and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. Also, you do not have to answer every question. The questionnaire should take you less than twenty-five minutes to complete. More importantly, there are no right or wrong answers, so please answer the questions as honestly as possible.

All information you provide will be kept strictly confidential. To ensure this, kindly return to me the completed questionnaire in a sealed envelope within a maximum of two weeks, or hand it to me. Finally, if you require additional information or have any questions, please contact me via mobile or Email.

Sincerely,

Abdullah Medari Alharbi

PhD Student in Organisational Behaviour and HRM department at University of Hull

E-mail: A_medari_alharbi@hotmail.com

Section A: Please put a cross [X] in the box to indicate your answer:

1. Age:

Less than 25 years	25-less than 35 years	35 - less than 45 years	45 years and more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. How long have you been working for this organisation?

Less than 5 years	5 - less than 10 years	10 - less than 15 years	15 - less than 20 years	20 - less than 25 years	25 years and more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. How long have you been supervised by your current manager/supervisor?

Less than 6 months	6- less than 12 months	1 year-less than 5 years	5 years and more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Educational qualification:

Less than high school	High school	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Other (please specify it here).....

Section B: The following measure aims to identify your attitudes and reactions towards organisational change in your organisation. Please, read each item carefully and then tick [√] one box each row which reflects your point of view about each of the following statements:

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I speak rather highly of the change to others.					
2	I am afraid of the change.					
3	I believe that the change would harm the way things are done in the organisation.					
4	I look for ways to prevent the change from taking place.					
5	I am quite excited about the change.					
6	I think that it's a negative thing that we are going through the change.					
7	I disagree with the change.					
8	I have a bad feeling about the change.					
9	I believe that the change would benefit the organisation.					
10	I believe that I could personally benefit from the change.					
11	I complain about the change to my colleagues.					
12	The change makes me upset.					
13	I believe that the change would make my job harder.					
14	I present my objections regarding the change to management.					
15	I am stressed by the change.					

Section C: This section is concerned with the quality of the relationship between YOU and YOUR MANAGER/SUPERVISOR (If there is more than one, please consider an immediate manager).

Please, read the following items carefully and then tick [√] in the place that best reflects your opinion toward each statement:

1. Do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

Not a Bit	A little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. How well does your leader recognize your potential?

Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Regardless of how much formal authority he has built into his position, what are the chances that your leader would use his power to help you solve problems in your work?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he would “bail you out” at his expense?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his decision if he were not present to do so.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

Extremely Ineffective	Worse Than Average	Average	Better Than Average	Extremely Effective
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section D: The measure below includes 22 statements designed to identify leadership behaviours. To what extent do you agree with these statements as a description of your manager's (supervisor's) behaviours?. For each of the following statements, please tick [√] in one box only.

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My manager						
1	Is always seeking new opportunities for the organisation.					
2	Leads by “doing” rather than simply by “telling”.					
3	Fosters collaboration among work groups.					
4	Shows us that he expects a lot from us.					
5	Shows respect for my personal feelings.					
6	Provides me with new ways of looking at things which used to be a puzzle for me.					
7	Paints an interesting picture of the future for our group.					
8	Provides a good model to follow.					
9	Encourages employees to be “team players”.					
10	Insists on only the best performance.					
11	Acts without considering my feelings.					
12	Treats me without considering my personal feelings.					
13	Has ideas that have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas that I have never questioned before.					
14	Has a clear understanding of where we are going.					
15	Leads by example.					
16	Gets the group to work together for the same goals.					

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My manager						
17	Will not settle for second best.					
18	Behaves in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs.					
19	Stimulates me to think about old problems in new ways.					
20	Inspires others with his plans for the future.					
21	Develops a team attitude and spirit among his employees.					
22	Is able to get others committed to his dream of the future.					

Section E: Next statements focus on measuring job satisfaction in the Workplace. To what extent you are satisfied with your job (please cross [X] one box each row)?

Statements		Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Not sure	Satisfied	Very satisfied
1	Being able to keep busy all the time.					
2	The chance to work alone on the job.					
3	The way my boss handles people.					
4	The chance to do different things from time to time.					
5	The chance to be “somebody” in the community.					
6	Competence of my supervisor in making decisions.					
7	Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.					
8	The way my job provides for steady employment.					
9	The way company policies are put into practice.					
10	The working conditions.					
11	The chance to do things for others.					
12	The chance to tell people what to do.					
13	My pay and the amount of work I do.					
14	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.					
15	The freedom to use my own judgment.					
16	The praise I get for doing a good job.					
17	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.					

Statements		Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Not sure	Satisfied	Very satisfied
18	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.					
19	The chances for advancement on this job.					
20	The way my co-workers get along with each other.					

Section F: The table below includes 18 statements that measure the extent of your commitment to the organisation. To what extent do you agree with the following statements (please cross [X] one box each row)?

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.					
2	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
3	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.					
4	I do not feel a strong sense of “belonging” to my organisation.					
5	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.					
6	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.					
7	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.					
8	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.					
9	I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organisation.					
10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.					
11	This organisation deserves my loyalty.					

Statements		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
12	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.					
13	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.					
14	I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.					
15	I owe a great deal to my organisation.					
16	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
17	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
18	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.					

Space below is left for you to write any further comments that you feel would be of interest to this research:

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Finally, I would like to thank you for your cooperation and for taking the time to fill in this questionnaire. Also, I would remind you before you submit the questionnaire to check every item to be sure you have not inadvertently omitted a response.

Appendix J

Managers' Questionnaire (Arabic Version)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

عزيزي المدير/رئيس القسم

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أودُّ منك التفضل بالموافقة على المشاركة في مشروع البحث المشار إليه أدناه. إذا كانت لديك الرغبة في المشاركة فأرجو منك استكمال تعبئة الاستبانة المرفقة.

الاستبانة المرفقة تمثل جزءاً رئيساً لإكمالي لدرجة الدكتوراة من جامعة هل (Hull) بالمملكة المتحدة، وقد تم إجراؤها استخدامها كأداة لجمع البيانات من قبل كلية إدارة الأعمال بهذه الجامعة. الهدف الأساسي من الدراسة التي أقومُ بها هو التحقق من دور العوامل التنظيمية وأثرها في مقاومة التغيير التنظيمي. المشاركة في تعبئة هذه الاستبانة سيساعدُ الآخرين (منظمتك، الباحث، وكثير من الباحثين) على فهم أفضل لهذا الموضوع وتأثيراته المتعددة على بيئة العمل. إنَّ مشاركتك هو عمل تطوعي، أقدِّره بالغ التقدير، ولك الحرية في الانسحاب أو التراجع عن المشاركة في أي وقت تشاء. الاستبانة ذاتها لن تستغرق منك أكثر من خمسة وعشرين دقيقة لإكمالها. الأهم من ذلك، أنَّه لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة، لذا يرجى الإجابة على الأسئلة بكل صدق قدر الإمكان.

جميع المعلومات التي تقدمها سيتم الاحتفاظ بها في سرية تامة. ولتضمن ذلك فضلاً قم بتعبئة الاستبانة ثم ضعها في الظرف المرفق خلال مدة أقصاها أسبوعين، أو إعادتها لي مباشرة. وأخيراً، إذا كنت بحاجة إلى أي معلومات إضافية أو لديك أسئلة توذُ الإجابة عليها، ففضلاً اتصل بي على الهاتف الجوال أو راسلني على اليميل.

مع الشكر والتقدير،،،،

عبدالله بن مداري الحربي

طالب بمرحلة الدكتوراة بجامعة هل – المملكة المتحدة

اليميل: A_medari_alharbi@hotmail.com

القسم الأول: من فضلك ضع علامة [√] في المكان المناسب لكل بندٍ من البنود الآتية:

1. العمر:

أقل من 25 عاماً	25- أقل من 35 عاماً	35- أقل من 45 عاماً	45 عاماً فأكثر
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. ما المدة التي قضيتها في العمل بهذه المنظمة:

أقل من 5 سنوات	5 - أقل من 10 سنوات	10 - أقل من 15 سنة	15 - أقل من 20 سنة	20 - أقل من 25 سنة	25 سنة فأكثر
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. ما المدة التي قضيتها في العمل تحت إشراف مديرك الحالي:

أقل من 6 أشهر	6 - أقل من 12 شهر	سنة - أقل من 5 سنوات	5 سنوات فأكثر
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. المؤهل التعليمي:

أقل من ثانوي	ثانوي	دبلوم	بكالوريوس	ماجستير	دكتوراة
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

مؤهل آخر (الرجاء تحديد المؤهل هنا).....

5. كم عدد الموظفين الذين تشرف عليهم:

أقل من 5 موظفين	5 - 10	11 - 25	26 موظفاً فأكثر
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. كم المدة التي قضيتها مديراً لهذا القسم:

أقل من 6 أشهر	6 - أقل من 12 شهر	سنة - أقل من 5 سنوات	5 سنوات فأكثر
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

القسم الثاني: المقياس التالي يهدف إلى التعرف على اتجاهاتك وردود فعلك تجاه التغيير التنظيمي في منطقتك.

فضلاً اقرأ كل عبارة بعناية ثم ضع علامة [√] في المكان الذي يعبر عن وجهة نظرك تجاه كل منها (فضلاً إجابة واحدة لكل عبارة):

م	العبارات	غير موافق إطلاقاً	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق تماماً
1	أتحدث إلى الآخرين بسعادة عن التغيير الذي يجري في بيئة العمل					
2	أشعر بالخوف من التغيير التنظيمي					
3	اعتقد أن التغيير يضر طريقة العمل المعتادة في المنظمة					
4	أبحث عن عدة طرق لمنع إجراء وحدث التغيير في المنظمة					
5	أنا مبتهج جداً بالتغيير في هذه المنظمة					
6	في اعتقادي أن الاستمرار في هذا التغيير هو أمر سلبي					
7	أنا لا اتفق مع التغيير الحالي					
8	لدي شعور سيئ عن التغيير التنظيمي					
9	اعتقد أن التغيير سيعود بالمنفعة على المنظمة					
10	اعتقد أنني سأستفيد شخصياً من التغيير					
11	أعبر، أحياناً، لزملاء العمل عن عدم رضائي عن التغيير					
12	التغيير يجعلني قلقاً					
13	اعتقد أن التغيير يمكن أن يجعل من وظيفتي أكثر صعوبة					
14	أقدم اعتراضاتي لإدارة المنظمة بشأن التغيير إذا ما شعرت أنه غير ملائم					
15	أنا مجهد/مرهق بسبب التغيير التنظيمي					

القسم الثالث: هذا القسم يسعى لمعرفة جودة العلاقة بينك وبين الموظفين الذين تشرف عليهم. لمساعدتي في تحقيق أهداف هذه الدراسة فإنني سأكون ممتناً لك لو تفضلت بتحديد خمسة من الموظفين ممن أنت مسئول عنهم وظيفياً ومن ثم الإجابة على الأسئلة الآتية المتعلقة بالعلاقة فيما بينكم (فضلاً اختر إجابة واحدة في مقابل كل موظف على غرار النموذج أدناه):

نموذج للإجابة:

الموظف الخامس	الموظف الرابع	الموظف الثالث	الموظف الثاني	الموظف الأول	التقييم	السؤال
				✓	نادراً	1. هل يعلمُ الموظفون الذين قمت باختيارهم إلى أي مدى أنت راضٍ عن عملهم؟
			✓		قليلاً	
	✓				أحياناً	
		✓			في معظم الأوقات	
✓					في جميع الأوقات	

الموظف الخامس	الموظف الرابع	الموظف الثالث	الموظف الثاني	الموظف الأول	التقييم	السؤال
					نادراً	1. هل يعلمُ الموظفون الذين قمت باختيارهم إلى أي مدى أنت راضٍ عن عملهم؟
					قليلاً	
					أحياناً	
					في معظم الأوقات	
					في جميع الأوقات	
					لا شيء	2. ما مقدارُ فهمك لمشاكل واحتياجات هؤلاء الموظفين؟
					قليلاً	
					بقدرٍ متوسطٍ	
					بقدرٍ جيدٍ	
					بقدرٍ كبيرٍ	

الموظف الخامس	الموظف الرابع	الموظف الثالث	الموظف الثاني	الموظف الأول	التقييم	السؤال
					لا أعرفُ مطلقاً	3. ما مقدارُ معرفتكِ بإمكانياتِ هؤلاء الموظفين؟
					قليلاً	
					بدرجةٍ متوسطةٍ	
					غالباً	
					أعرفُ بشكلٍ تام	
					لا شيء	4. بغض النظر عن حجم السلطة الوظيفية في منصبك، ما هي احتمالات استخدامك سلطتك في مساعدة هؤلاء الموظفين لحل المشاكل التي تواجههم أثناء العمل؟
					ضعيفة	
					متوسطة	
					عالية	
					عالية جداً	
					لا شيء	5. بغض النظر عن السلطة الوظيفية التي تملكها، ما هي احتمالات مساعدتك لكل موظف منهم حتى لو كان ذلك على نفقتك الخاصة؟
					ضعيفة	
					متوسطة	
					عالية	
					عالية جداً	
					لا أوافقُ بشدةٍ	6. كل موظف من هؤلاء الموظفين لديه ثقةٌ كافيةٌ فيك لدرجة أنه سيدافعُ ويبررُ عن قراراتك في حالة عدم وجودك.
					لا أوافقُ	
					محايدٌ	
					أوافقُ	
					أوافقُ بشدةٍ	

الموظف الخامس	الموظف الرابع	الموظف الثالث	الموظف الثاني	الموظف الأول	التقييم	السؤال
					غير فعالة للغاية	7. كيف يمكن أن تصف علاقة العمل مع كل منهم؟
					أقل من المتوسط	
					متوسطة	
					أفضل من المتوسط	
					فعالة للغاية	

القسم الرابع: هذا القسم يتضمن 22 عبارة تهدف الى وصف سلوكيات القيادة. إلى أي مدى تتفق مع هذه العبارات باعتبارها وصفاً لسلوكيات رئيسك المباشر؟. لكل عبارة مما يأتي فضلاً اختر إجابة واحدة فقط.

م	العبارات	غير موافق إطلاقاً	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق تماماً
	رئيسي المباشر:					
1	يسعى دائماً لاستثمار الفرص الجديدة من أجل المنظمة					
2	يقود الإدارة بالفعل لا بالقول					
3	يُعزِّز التعاون بين مجموعات العمل					
4	يُظهر لنا أنه يتوقع منا الكثير					
5	يُبدى احتراماً لمشاعري الشخصية					
6	يُؤدني بطرق جديدة للتعامل مع الأشياء التي تُمثل معضلةً بالنسبة لي					
7	يرسم صورةً مشوقةً لمستقبل مجموعة العمل					
8	يقدم نموذجاً جيداً يحتذى به					
9	يشجّع الموظفين للعمل كفريقٍ واحدٍ					
10	يُصرُّ على تحقيق الأداء الأفضل					
11	يتصرفُ بلا اهتمامٍ لمشاعري					
12	يُعاملني دون مراعاةٍ لمشاعري الشخصية					
13	لديه أفكارٌ تدفعني لإعادة النظر في أفكاري الشخصية					

م	العبارات	غير موافقٍ إطلاقاً	غير موافقٍ	محايدٌ	موافقٌ	موافقٌ تماماً
	رئيسي المباشر:					
14	لديه فهمٌ واضحٌ لما نحن (كمجموعة عمل) مقدمون على عمله					
15	يعتمدُ على أسلوب القائد بالقدوة					
16	يجعلُ المجموعة/الإدارة تعملُ معاً لتحقيق نفس الأهداف					
17	لا يرضى إلا بأقصى درجات الإجابة					
18	يتصرفُ بطريقةٍ تراعي احتياجاتي الشخصية					
19	يُحفزني للتفكير في المشاكل القديمة بطرقٍ جديدةٍ					
20	يلهمُ (من الإلهام) الآخرين بما يملكه من خططٍ مستقبليةٍ					
21	ينمي روحَ الفريق بين الموظفين					
22	هو قادرٌ على أن يجعل الآخرين ملتزمين بتحقيق طموحاته المستقبلية					

القسم الخامس: العبارات التالية تركزُ على قياس الرضا الوظيفي في بيئة العمل. إلى أي حدٍ أنت راضٍ عن وظيفتك (فضلاً إجابة واحدة لكل عبارة)؟

م	العبارات	غير راضٍ على الإطلاق	غير راضٍ	غير متأكدٍ	راضٍ	راضٍ تماماً
1	القدرةُ على البقاء نشيطاً وحيوياً أثناء العمل					
2	درجةُ الاستقلالية في أداء العمل					
3	طريقةُ تعامل مديري مع الآخرين					
4	فرصةُ القيام بأداء العديد من المهام المتنوعة من وقت إلى آخر					
5	المكانةُ الاجتماعية لوظيفتي في المجتمع					
6	كفاءةُ مديري في اتخاذ القرارات					
7	قدرتي على القيام بالأشياء التي لا تخالف ضميري					
8	ما تقدمه لي الوظيفة من أمانٍ وظيفي					
9	الطريقةُ التي يتم بها تنفيذ سياسات المنظمة					

م	العبارات	غير راضٍ على الإطلاق	غير راضٍ	غير متأكد	راضٍ	راضٍ تماماً
10	ظروف بيئة العمل					
11	ما تتيحه لي الوظيفة من فرصة لخدمة الآخرين					
12	حجم السُّلطة الوظيفية التي أمارسها					
13	الراتب الذي أتقاضاه في مقابل حجم العمل الذي أنجزه					
14	دور الوظيفة في تمكيني من استخدام لقدراتي					
15	الحرية في إصدار أحكامي الشخصية في إطار العمل					
16	الثناء الذي أحصل عليه عند إنجازي لعمل جيد					
17	الفرصة المتاحة لي لأداء العمل بطريقي الخاصة					
18	الشعور بالإنجاز الذي تقدمه لي الوظيفة					
19	فرص الترقى المتاحة لي في وظيفتي					
20	طريقة تعامل زملائي فيما بينهم					

القسم السادس: يتضمن الجدول أدناه 18 عبارة تقيس في مجملها مدى إلتزامك بالمنظمة (الالتزام يعني الرغبة في البقاء والاستمرار بهذه المنظمة). إلى أي حد تتفق مع هذه العبارات (فضلاً إجابة واحدة لكل عبارة)؟

م	العبارات	غير موافق إطلاقاً	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق تماماً
1	سأكون في غاية السرور لقضاء السنوات المتبقية في مساري بهذه المنظمة الوظيفي					
2	حتى الآن، البقاء بعلمي الحالي هو مسألة ضرورة ورغبة شخصية					
3	حتى لو كان ذلك في مصلحتي الشخصية، إلا أنه من الخطأ ترك المنظمة الآن					
4	لا أشعر بشعور قوي "بالانتماء" لهذه المنظمة					
5	سيكون من الصعب جداً عليّ ترك هذه المنظمة في الوقت الراهن، حتى لو أردت ذلك					
6	سأشعر بالذنب إذا ما تركت العمل بهذه المنظمة الآن					

م	العبارات	غير موافقٍ إطلاقاً	غير موافقٍ	محايدٌ	موافقٌ	موافقٌ تماماً
7	ستتعلّطُ الكثيرُ من جوانب حياتي إذا ما قررتُ الآن مغادرة هذه المنظمة					
8	لا أشعرُ بأنّه من الواجب عليّ البقاء في عملي الحالي					
9	لا أشعرُ بأنّي جزءٌ من هذه المنظمة					
10	أشعرُ أنّ لديّ عددٌ قليلٌ جداً من الفرص الوظيفية خارج هذه المنظمة					
11	هذه المنظمة تستحقُّ ولائي لها					
12	أنا فعلاً أشعرُ كما لو أنّ مشاكل هذه المنظمة هي مشاكلي الشخصية					
13	لو لم أبذل ما بذلته لهذه المنظمة، لوجدتُ نفسي أعملُ في منظمةٍ أخرى					
14	لن أترك هذه المنظمة الآن لأنّ لديّ شعورٌ بالالتزام نحو زملاء العمل					
15	أنا مدينٌ بالفضل بصورةٍ كبيرةٍ لهذه المنظمة					
16	لهذه المنظمة معنى شخصي كبير بالنسبة لي					
17	من أحد الأسباب التي تمنعني من ترك هذه المنظمة هو قلة البدائل المتاحة					
18	لا أشعرُ "بارتباطٍ عاطفي" لهذه المنظمة					

المساحة أدناه مخصصة لتدوين أي تعليقات ترى أهميتها وفائدتها للباحث.

.....

.....

.....

.....

في الختام، أو أن أقدم لك خالص الشكر على تعاونك وعلى الوقت الذي أمضيته في تعبئة هذه الاستبانة. أيضاً، أود أن أذكرك بأهمية مراجعة كامل الاستبانة قبل تسليمها لتدارك أي أسئلة لم يتم الإجابة عنها.

Appendix K

Employees' Questionnaire (Arabic Version)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

عزيزي الموظف

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أودُّ منك التفضل بالموافقة على المشاركة في مشروع البحث المشار إليه أدناه. إذا كانت لديك الرغبة في المشاركة فأرجو منك استكمال تعبئة الاستبانة المرفقة.

الاستبانة المرفقة تمثل جزءاً رئيساً لإكمالي لدرجة الدكتوراة من جامعة هل (Hull) بالمملكة المتحدة، وقد تم إجراؤها استخدامها كأداة لجمع البيانات من قبل كلية إدارة الأعمال بهذه الجامعة. الهدف الأساسي من الدراسة التي أقومُ بها هو التحقق من دور العوامل التنظيمية وأثرها في مقاومة التغيير التنظيمي. المشاركة في تعبئة هذه الاستبانة سيساعدُ الآخرين (منظمتك، الباحث، وكثير من الباحثين) على فهم أفضل لهذا الموضوع وتأثيراته المتعددة على بيئة العمل. إنَّ مشاركتك هو عمل تطوعي، أقدِّره بالغ التقدير، ولك الحرية في الانسحاب أو التراجع عن المشاركة في أي وقت تشاء. الاستبانة ذاتها لن تستغرق منك أكثر من خمسة وعشرين دقيقة لإكمالها. الأهم من ذلك، أنه لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة، لذا يرجى الإجابة على الأسئلة بكل صدق قدر الإمكان.

جميع المعلومات التي تقدمها سيتم الاحتفاظ بها في سرية تامة. ولتضمن ذلك فضلاً قم بتعبئة الاستبانة ثم ضعها في الظرف المرفق خلال مدة أقصاها أسبوعين، أو إعادتها لي مباشرة. وأخيراً، إذا كنت بحاجة إلى أي معلومات إضافية أو لديك أسئلة توذُ الإجابة عليها، ففضلاً اتصل بي على الهاتف الجوال أو راسلني على الایمیل.

مع الشكر والتقدير،،،،

عبدالله بن مداري الحربي

طالب بمرحلة الدكتوراة بجامعة هل – المملكة المتحدة

الایمیل: A_medari_alharbi@hotmail.com

القسم الأول: من فضلك ضع علامة [√] في المكان المناسب لكل بندٍ من البنود الآتية:

1. العمر:

أقل من 25 عاماً	25- أقل من 35 عاماً	35- أقل من 45 عاماً	45 عاماً فأكثر
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. ما المدة التي قضيتها في العمل بهذه المنظمة:

أقل من 5 سنوات	5 - أقل من 10 سنوات	10 - أقل من 15 سنة	15 - أقل من 20 سنة	20 - أقل من 25 سنة	25 سنة فأكثر
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. ما المدة التي قضيتها في العمل تحت إشراف مديرك الحالي:

أقل من 6 أشهر	6 - أقل من 12 شهر	سنة - أقل من 5 سنوات	5 سنوات فأكثر
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. المؤهل التعليمي:

أقل من ثانوي	ثانوي	دبلوم	بكالوريوس	ماجستير	دكتوراة
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

مؤهل آخر (الرجاء تحديد المؤهل هنا).....

القسم الثاني: المقياس التالي يهدف إلى التعرف على اتجاهاتك وردود فعلك تجاه التغيير التنظيمي في منطقتك.

فضلاً اقرأ كل عبارة بعناية ثم ضع علامة [√] في المكان الذي يعبر عن وجهة نظرك تجاه كل منها (فضلاً إجابة واحدة لكل عبارة):

م	العبارات	غير موافق إطلاقاً	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق تماماً
1	أتحدث إلى الآخرين بسعادة عن التغيير الذي يجري في بيئة العمل					
2	أشعر بالخوف من التغيير التنظيمي					
3	اعتقد أن التغيير يضر طريقة العمل المعتادة في المنظمة					
4	أبحث عن عدة طرق لمنع إجراء وحدث التغيير في المنظمة					
5	أنا مبتهج جداً بالتغيير في هذه المنظمة					
6	في اعتقادي أن الاستمرار في هذا التغيير هو أمر سلبي					
7	أنا لا اتفق مع التغيير الحالي					
8	لدي شعور سيئ عن التغيير التنظيمي					
9	اعتقد أن التغيير سيعود بالمنفعة على المنظمة					
10	اعتقد أنني سأستفيد شخصياً من التغيير					
11	أعبر، أحياناً، لزملاء العمل عن عدم رضائي عن التغيير					
12	التغيير يجعلني قلقاً					
13	اعتقد أن التغيير يمكن أن يجعل من وظيفتي أكثر صعوبة					
14	أقدم اعتراضاتي لإدارة المنظمة بشأن التغيير إذا ما شعرت أنه غير ملائم					
15	أنا مجهد/مرهق بسبب التغيير التنظيمي					

القسم الثالث: هذا القسم يهدف إلى معرفة جودة العلاقة بينك وبين مديرك (إذا كان هناك أكثر من مدير تتبعه وظيفياً ففضلاً اختر رئيسك المباشر).
فضلاً اقرأ العبارات التالية بعناية ثم اختر الاجابة التي تعبّر عن وجهة نظرك تجاه كل منها:

1. هل تعلم إلى أي مدى مديرك هو راضٍ عن عملك؟				
نادراً	قليلاً	أحياناً	في معظم الأوقات	في جميع الأوقات
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. ما مقدار فهم مديرك لمشاكلك واحتياجاتك؟				
لا شيء	قليلاً	بمقدار متوسط	بمقدار جيد	بمقدار كبير
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. ما مقدار معرفة مديرك بإمكانياتك؟				
لا يعرف على الإطلاق	قليلاً	بدرجة متوسطة	غالباً	يعرف بشكل تام
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. بغض النظر عن حجم السلطة الوظيفية في منصبه، ما هي احتمالات أن يستخدم مديرك سلطته في مساعدتك لحل المشاكل التي تواجهك أثناء العمل؟				
لا شيء	ضعيفة	متوسطة	عالية	عالية جداً
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. بغض النظر عن السلطة الوظيفية التي يملكها مديرك، ما هي احتمالات أن يساعدك حتى لو كان ذلك على نفقته الخاصة؟

لا شيء	ضعيفة	متوسطة	عالية	عالية جداً
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. أنا لدي ثقة كافية في مديري لدرجة أنني سأدفع وسأبرر عن قراراته في حالة عدم وجوده

لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. كيف يمكن أن تصنف علاقة العمل مع مديرك؟

غير فعالة للغاية	أقل من المتوسط	متوسطة	أفضل من المتوسط	فعالة للغاية
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

القسم الرابع: هذا القسم يتضمّن 22 عبارة تهدف الى وصف سلوكيات القيادة. إلى أي مدى تتفق مع هذه العبارات باعتبارها وصفاً لسلوكيات رئيسك المباشر؟. لكل عبارة مما يأتي فضلاً اختر إجابة واحدة فقط.

م	العبارات	غير موافق إطلاقاً	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق تماماً
	رئيسي المباشر:					
1	يسعى دائماً لاستثمار الفرص الجديدة من أجل المنظمة					
2	يقود الإدارة بالفعل لا بالقول					
3	يُعزّز التعاون بين مجموعات العمل					
4	يُظهر لنا أنه يتوقع منا الكثير					
5	يُبدى احتراماً لمشاعري الشخصية					
6	يُروّدي بطرق جديدةٍ للتعامل مع الأشياء التي تُمثّل معضلةً بالنسبة لي					

م	العبارات	غير موافق إطلاقاً	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق تماماً
	رئيسي المباشر:					
7	يرسمُ صورةً مشوقةً لمستقبل مجموعة العمل					
8	يقدمُ نموذجاً جيداً يحتذى به					
9	يشجّع الموظفين للعمل كفريقٍ واحدٍ					
10	يُصرُّ على تحقيق الأداء الأفضل					
11	يتصرفُ بلا اهتمامٍ لمشاعري					
12	يُعاملني دون مراعاةٍ لمشاعري الشخصية					
13	لديه أفكارٌ تدفعني لإعادة النظر في أفكاري الشخصية					
14	لديه فهمٌ واضحٌ لما نحن (كمجموعة عمل) مقدمون على عمله					
15	يعتمدُ على أسلوب القائد بالقدوة					
16	يجعلُ المجموعة/الإدارة تعملُ معاً لتحقيق نفس الأهداف					
17	لا يرضى إلا بأقصى درجات الإجابة					
18	يتصرفُ بطريقةٍ تراعي احتياجاتي الشخصية					
19	يُحفزني للتفكير في المشاكل القديمة بطرقٍ جديدةٍ					
20	يُلهمُ (من الإلهام) الآخرين بما يملكه من خططٍ مستقبليةٍ					
21	ينمّي روحَ الفريق بين الموظفين					
22	هو قادرٌ على أن يجعل الآخرين ملتزمين بتحقيق طموحاته المستقبلية					

القسم الخامس: العبارات التالية تركز على قياس الرضا الوظيفي في بيئة العمل. إلى أي حد أنت راضٍ عن وظيفتك (فضلاً إجابة واحدة لكل عبارة)؟

م	العبارات	غير راضٍ على الإطلاق	غير راضٍ	غير متأكد	راضٍ	راضٍ تماماً
1	القدرة على البقاء نشيطاً وحيوياً أثناء العمل					
2	درجة الاستقلالية في أداء العمل					
3	طريقة تعامل مديري مع الآخرين					
4	فرصة القيام بأداء العديد من المهام المتنوعة من وقت إلى آخر					
5	المكانة الاجتماعية لوظيفتي في المجتمع					
6	كفاءة مديري في اتخاذ القرارات					
7	قدرتي على القيام بالأشياء التي لا تخالف ضميري					
8	ما تقدمه لي الوظيفة من أمان وظيفي					
9	الطريقة التي يتم بها تنفيذ سياسات المنظمة					
10	ظروف بيئة العمل					
11	ما يتيح لي الوظيفة من فرصة لخدمة الآخرين					
12	حجم السلطة الوظيفية التي أمارسها					
13	الراتب الذي أتقاضاه في مقابل حجم العمل الذي أنجزه					
14	دور الوظيفة في تمكيني من استخدام لقدراتي					
15	الحرية في إصدار أحكامي الشخصية في إطار العمل					
16	الثناء الذي أحصل عليه عند إنجازي لعمل جيد					
17	الفرصة المتاحة لي لأداء العمل بطريقي الخاصة					
18	الشعور بالإنجاز الذي تقدمه لي الوظيفة					
19	فرص الترقى المتاحة لي في وظيفتي					
20	طريقة تعامل زملائي فيما بينهم					

القسم السادس: يتضمن الجدول أدناه 18 عبارة تقيس في مجملها مدى إلتزامك بالمنظمة (الالتزام يعني الرغبة في البقاء والاستمرار بهذه المنظمة). إلى أي حد تتفق مع هذه العبارات (فضلاً إجابة واحدة لكل عبارة)؟

م	العبارات	غيرُ موافقٍ إطلاقاً	غيرُ موافقٍ	محايدٌ	موافقٌ	موافقٌ تماماً
1	سأكونُ في غاية السرور لقضاء السنوات المتبقية في مساري الوظيفي بهذه المنظمة					
2	حتى الآن، البقاءُ بعلمي الحالي هو مسألة ضرورةٌ ورغبةٌ شخصيةٌ					
3	حتى لو كان ذلك في مصلحتي الشخصية، إلا أنه من الخطأ ترك المنظمة الآن					
4	لا أشعرُ بشعورٍ قويٍّ "بالانتماء" لهذه المنظمة					
5	سيكونُ من الصعب جداً عليّ تركُ هذه المنظمة في الوقت الراهن، حتى لو أردتُ ذلك					
6	سأشعرُ بالذنب إذا ما تركتُ العمل بهذه المنظمة الآن					
7	ستتعطلُ الكثيرُ من جوانب حياتي إذا ما قررتُ الآن مغادرة هذه المنظمة					
8	لا أشعرُ بأنه من الواجب عليّ البقاءُ في عملي الحالي					
9	لا أشعرُ بأنني جزءٌ من هذه المنظمة					
10	أشعرُ أنّ لديّ عددٌ قليلٌ جداً من الفرص الوظيفية خارج هذه المنظمة					
11	هذه المنظمة تستحقُّ ولائي لها					
12	أنا فعلاً أشعرُ كما لو أنّ مشاكل هذه المنظمة هي مشاكلي الشخصية					
13	لو لم أبتذل ما بذلته لهذه المنظمة، لوجدتُ نفسي أعملُ في منظمةٍ أخرى					
14	لن أترك هذه المنظمة الآن لأنّ لديّ شعورٌ بالالتزام نحو زملاء العمل					
15	أنا مدينٌ بالفضل بصورةٍ كبيرةٍ لهذه المنظمة					

م	العبارات	غير موافقٍ إطلاقاً	غير موافقٍ	محايدٌ	موافقٌ	موافقٌ تماماً
16	لهذه المنظمة معنى شخصي كبير بالنسبة لي					
17	من أحد الأسباب التي تمنعني من ترك هذه المنظمة هو قلة البدائل المتاحة					
18	لا أشعرُ "بارتباطٍ عاطفي" لهذه المنظمة					

المساحة أدناه مخصصة لتدوين أي تعليقات ترى أهميتها وفائدتها للباحث.

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في الختام، أو أن أقدم لك خالص الشكر على تعاونك وعلى الوقت الذي أمضيته في تعبئة هذه الاستبانة. أيضاً، أود أن أذكرك بأهمية مراجعة كامل الاستبانة قبل تسليمها لتدارك أي أسئلة لم يتم الإجابة عنها.