Cultivating Change: The Relationship Between Organizational Culture, Leadership Style and Communication Style with Organizational Change

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CULTIVATING CHANGE: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL
CULTURE, LEADERSHIP STYLE AND COMMUNICATION STYLE WITH
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by

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A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School,
Marquette University,
in Partial Fulfillment of the requirements for
the Degree of Master of Arts Communications

Milwaukee, Wisconsin

May 2018

ABSTRACT
CULTIVATING CHANGE: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL
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This paper presents a quantitative study on organizational change and how culture, leadership, and communication styles are related to different types of change. The objective was to understand these relationships and to provide insight for future applications centered on enabling organizational change. Respondents (N=411) from multiple organizations participated in evaluating preferences for culture, leadership and communication styles in response to different change scenarios. The study features four control groups, each representing various types of organizational change. Responses were evaluated using the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) to identify individual cultural preferences and seven-point Likert-type questionnaires for leadership and communication style preferences. The results of the study were unexpected by showing a lack of statistically significant relationships between each of the variables. However, the research did show a correlation between the preference of "open" communication styles with all four culture types. Several reasons for this lack of significance are discussed under future research, which may provide further insight as to how attitudes toward change might affect a respondent's view of culture, leadership, and communication.

Keywords: Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument, Organizational Culture, Leadership Style, Communication Style, Organizational Change

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Introduction

Organizational change is a common but often difficult activity for many organizations. Companies inevitably need to adjust strategies, move resources, or adopt new technologies in response (or anticipation) of advances in innovation, new competition, or changes in market needs. For organizations like these, change is a necessity for survival (Carter, Armenakis, Feild, & Mossholder, 2013) and a prominent aspect of life (Lewis, 2011). Organizational change can serve as a mechanism to address many different types of challenges such as new policies, regulatory demands, need for increased profitability, resource management or general effectiveness (Lewis, 2011). Each of these driving forces can lead to change initiatives that vary in size and impact, but the ultimate goal of the organizational change is to improve performance (Carter et al., 2013). Regardless of the reasons for organizational change, it is possible that implementation of change is dependent on the organization's culture, leadership and communication styles.

The effect of organizational change can lead to entirely new beliefs and practices that may conflict with those previously held, which to a degree, is the intent. This view suggests an opportunity to maximize employee engagement and commitment, potentially through avenues such as culture, leadership, and communication. The implication being that if change is inevitable, then it is essential to understand how these variables might cultivate a landscape of change within the organization. However, the impact of these variables may not be entirely understood as a means of cultivating change. This paper is not an examination of business strategies, implementation or outcomes regarding

organizational change, but it is a study of how these three variables may relate to different types of change.

In categorizing organizational change, an adapted topology is used to define the dependent variables based on four different types of change. The four change scenarios range from large to small and from material to discursive. Each of these changes has different interpretations from respondents concerning their organizations. The Competing Values Framework (CVF), along with Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), will be used to define the culture type. The CVF and OCAI are well-recognized instruments for quantitatively measuring organizational culture and have been validated in numerous studies (Heritage, Pollock, & Roberts, 2014). Moreover, CVF theory infers that culture types are associated with specific types of effectiveness criteria (Hartnell, Yi Ou, & Kinicki, 2011), which will help in determining how culture type is related to organizational change. The second variable will be the company's leadership style as it relates to the autocratic or democratic nature of leadership. Autocratic and democratic leadership styles emphasize the relationship between valuing performance and valuing people (Warrick, 1981). The last variable is communication style, in particular, the notion of being open or closed in communication practices whereas open communication is the willingness to disclose information with clarity (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987). These three mediating variables collectively address the beliefs and practices of the organization, how internal groups inherently interact, and lastly how information and meaning are conveyed from a communication perspective. A quantitative analysis has been used to measure the significance (or lack of) for these three presumably interdependent concepts of *cultivating change*.

In summary, this study proposes that culture, leadership, and communication form the basis for cultivating change within an organization, and the goal is to understand what relationship exists, if any, between these variables and different types of organizational change. Future applications of this study may lead to further research measuring the efficacy of cultivating change as well as becoming a potential model to align the preferred cultivation variables with different types of change. For day-to-day practitioners, this study will provide insight into various kinds of organizational approaches and how they can enable change. This understanding may allow for change leaders to make adjustments regarding their approach to change with the goal of increasing participant engagement.

Literature Review

Organizational Change

Organizations - specifically organizations that have a business focus - can expand, contract, implement new systems, develop new products or change any number of strategies. The possibilities for change within an organization are endless and often continuous with various iterations over time (Christensen, 2014). Many firms remain competitive by changing continuously (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997) and it is recommended that organizations condition managers to expect and prepare for it (Carter et al., 2013). Change management is a popular term that evokes the action of creating organizational change. This action typically includes creating the vision, promoting communication and participation, and facilitating the process (Lewis, Schmisseur, Stephens, & Wier, 2006). Change management is a process of renewing structure, direction and capabilities (among other things) to meet the needs of internal or external stakeholders (Morgan & Brightman, 2000). Similarly, organizational change involves a transformation between two points in time with the difference of those two points being the essence of what has changed (Barnett & Carroll, 1995). These are relatively loose definitions, but it is a necessary characterization given such a broad topic. An underlying topology will be discussed shortly to help make sense of the different types of change, but first, it is important to understand just how difficult change can be.

A summary of 49 studies regarding ten different types of organizational changes, ranging from "Strategy Deployment" to "Culture Change" to "Mergers and Acquisitions," showed a median success rate of only 33% (Smith, 2002). "Culture

Change" and "Business Expansion" were the lowest at 19% and 20%, respectively, while "Strategy Deployment" and "Restructuring & Downsizing" were the most successful at a mere 58% and 46% (Smith, 2002). Methods for characterizing success varied depending on the type of change, but standard methods of measurement included financial analysis, surveys, earnings and shareholder value (if public) (Smith, 2002). These types of changes have significant impacts on the value of an organization, its identity, and its human capital. Most of these changes would be considered significant in scale, but what happened to the other 67% of change efforts that were not successful? Such a low success rate is potentially an incredible misfortune for numerous stakeholders, e.g., shareholders, customers, and employees. The important takeaway is that change is tough, with possibly low rates of success, but it is necessary and is a constant and evolving process. Otherwise, organizations that cannot make adjustments, risk opening the door for new competitors (Hannan & Freeman, 1984).

While it is fair to expect some degree of failure (with change), it is crucial to get some of right eventually. Depending on the type of change, many factors can determine whether the effort is a successful one. One element is the merits of the change itself, is it viable, well defined or quite simply, is it even the right path to take to attain the intended goal? A second factor to consider is the implementation. Implementation is the transformation of tools, processes, or methods, based on knowledge and practice (Lewis, 2011). In other words, a good strategic change is not going to implement itself. More often than not human involvement is necessary to evaluate ideas, define roles, assign responsibilities and execute on those duties to perform the change. The implementation part is likely to require communication, engagement, and of course, access to the

appropriate resources. Without these things, it is fair to say that implementing change will be more difficult. Take for example a study that showed that organizations who communicate a sense of caring and concern to their employees, regardless of the subject matter, may be able to increase commitment from their employees (Schweiger & Denisi, 1991). Thoughtful and selfless communication is one style that can be beneficial to implementing change. Similarly, leadership styles and organizational culture, as well as communication, are all high-level variables that may influence organizational change.

Organizational change is described in several different ways. Lewis (2011) offers some guidance on how to define the various dimensions. First, change can be planned, meaning through deliberate effort, or unplanned, as the result of uncontrollable, often external, events (Lewis, 2011). Second, change is described in terms of effect. For example, change can be "discursive," which is typically a shift in messaging to evoke different beliefs and attitudes or it can be "material" which is a physical change such as new procedures, decision-making practices, working relationships, etc. (Lewis, 2011). Lastly, a third way to categorize change is its magnitude, i.e., is it a big change or a small change (Lewis, 2011). Table 1 is Lewis's proposed model for classifying change that includes those three basic premises. Note the variation between big and small as well as the distinction between material or discursive.

	Planned	Unplanned
Small Scope	Material (new copy machine)	Material (regulatory change in reporting procedures)
	Discursive (start calling staff "associates")	Discursive (employees nickname product by unwanted term)
Large Scope	Material (Merger "M&A")	Material (major funding source cut off)
	Discursive (Institute language of "Quality" to describe processes)	Discursive (Brand becomes damaged through negative association)

Table 1: Types of Organizational Change in Combination, (Lewis, 2011)

The focus of change in this study will center on the acts and perceived efficacy of implementing change, as opposed to the viability and strategy of the change itself. Second, the intent is to understand the potential of implementation concerning organizational culture, leadership style, and communication style. Each of these three high-level organizational attributes will affect the perceived efficacy of implementation differently when considering small scope, large scope, discursive or material changes.

The process of implementing change sometimes starts with the origination of new ideas followed by circulation and a formal action to execute (Lewis, 2011). Some observations to support culture, leadership and communication tendencies as a mechanism for change include the idea that change is not linear, it involves multiple efforts working together, is typically defined top-down and supported bottom up, has a critical personal dimension and requires clear measurement (Morgan & Brightman,

2000). Each of these items intuitively connects to an organization's culture, leadership and communication style. The intent is to determine if there is statistically significant support for that intuition and to understand how each of these organizational attributes may potentially benefit different types of organizational change.

This study centers on planned changes. The reasoning for focusing solely on planned changes is, as stated earlier, these changes are deliberate, purposeful, and have a responsible authority for implementing the change (Lewis, 2011). The notion of purpose and responsibility are important distinctions because they welcome the role that culture, leadership, and communication might play when considering the approach to implementing change. A planned change is likely to have more preparation and could be regarded as optional with greater avenues of autonomy whereas an unplanned change may have less flexibility regarding the timing and decisions to be made. Planning, preparation, and flexibility, for example, are all characteristics of different organizational cultures and are likely to be approached differently from leadership and communication perspectives. It is not to say that similar features are not present with unplanned changes, but unplanned changes may be organizationally dependent, and inherently more restrictive with how the organizations choose to respond whereas with a planned change, the organization has more control, i.e., they do not have to do anything for example. Table 2 shows the basic types of changes to be evaluated in this study and is based on Lewis's original model, without the "unplanned" changes.

Planned Organizational Change Topology: Example Narratives

	Small	Large
	Change #1	**Change #3**
Discursive	Creating a committee of "welfare ambassadors" to establish social events and internal communication to improve employee morale	Re-Branding of Company Image, resulting in new logo, literature, and internal/external messaging
	Change #2	**Change #4**
Material	Process improvement initiative led by a small team, resulting in new documentation and procedure for improving the customer quoting process	Private company being acquired by public company, resulting in new structure, new job titles, change in work flows, change in decision making, approvals, and reporting and new information systems (IT)

Table 2: Planned Organizational Change Topology

Each of these four types of change can be interpreted differently depending on the type of organizational culture, the leadership style or the communication style. Some of the changes, by design, are considered complex and likely to create a large amount of stress in an organization. Major change, for example, can be regarded as an intentional change in the way the business is conducted that affects its strategic position relative to the competition, e.g., M&A, culture change, expansion, technology, etc. (Smith, 2002). Change can be transformational, where the organization has a complete reconsideration of their business, or change can be small and iterative (Burnes, 2005). In both cases, change projects are susceptible to the same pitfalls of poor planning, resource allocations, and unpredictable results (Jacobs, van Witteloostuijn, & Christe-Zeyse, 2013). Another consideration is whether employees feel their efforts will add value or be wasted, due to

the perception that the organization is perhaps too rigid or not open to new ideas. For example, one study found that employees who saw their organizations as being flexible were more likely to view their organization as being responsive to change (Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths, 2005). Beliefs like this could help with employee effort and willingness to engage. Characteristics such as how flexible the organization is, how they plan or how they work together are just some of the factors that define an organization's culture, which depending on the type of change, may help to enable or disable organizational change.

Organizational Culture

Organizational Culture and its impact on organizations have long been studied from a theoretical perspective. The increasing importance of cultural understanding is, in part, a result of the growing complexity and unpredictability of environmental factors (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). For example, as competition increases, the pressure to change becomes more necessary, which in turn elevates the need to understand cultural implications (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Imagine a company that produces expensive, custom-built products, where a high degree of customer correspondence and decision making is required. If competition increases, then customers have more choices, meaning if they do not get the information they require, they might go elsewhere. For the company to remain competitive, they may need to become more agile and allow for a higher degree of decision making at lower levels of the organization to become more responsive. For a change like this to be successful, the company may need to assess the degree of autonomy that currently exists in their culture. The reasoning behind an emphasis on

understanding organizational culture relative to change is that culture provides an avenue for both stability, by reinforcing values and consistency, as well adaptability, by providing coping strategies (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). In many cases, a strong organizational culture has been considered the driving force behind successful businesses (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). This force is assumed in part because sensible beliefs suggest that strong and congruent cultures, which support the purpose of the organization, are more efficient than weak, incongruent or disconnected cultures (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Furthermore, and considering the likelihood of needing to make a change at some point in the future, culture can also be an indicator of potential outcomes, such as overall effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The importance of organizational culture cannot be understated as culture is often cited as the primary reason for the failure of organizational change (Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010).

The significance of organizational culture is very apparent but how exactly is organizational culture defined? In many cases, culture is described as a set of values, beliefs, and assumptions that encompass the organization and its members (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). It also has been described as the structure of the organization where values, beliefs, and assumptions create the foundation for its members (Appelbaum, Gandell, Yortis, Proper, & Jobin, 2000). A third definition is that culture is a pattern of shared assumptions learned by a group as it solves problems to the extent that those patterns convey the correct way to perceive, think and feel in response to those problems (Schein, 2009). Much of the literature and theories surrounding organizational culture include similar elements such as these. However, there are also differences in how cultural studies are applied.

Consider the distinction between organizational culture and organizational climate. Culture includes core values and interpretations about "how things are" whereas climate includes individualistic perceptions that can frequently change as situations change, or new information is acquired (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Another way to look at the difference between culture and climate is that, historically, culture researchers placed greater emphasis on having a deep understanding of the underlying assumptions while climate researchers placed greater importance on member's perceptions of "observable" practices (Denison, 1996). However, in application, the difference between the two is not always clear. In practice, the difference between culture and climate is in fact not substantially different "regarding its phenomena" so much as the difference lies with the perspective on the phenomena (Denison, 1996). More simply stated, climate reflects the perception of organizational culture and how it feels to be a member whereas a culture perspective focuses on beliefs about how to behave in the organization (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). It is within this framework that this study aims to evaluate the "perception" of organizational culture as a mechanism for change as opposed to the behavior beliefs stemming from culture. This distinction supports the goal of the study which is to understand how well a particular organizational culture (or leadership or communication style) will enable different types of organizational change from a stakeholder perspective.

The study of organizational culture emerged from two separate disciplines, one being an anthropological foundation which premises on the fact that organizations *are* cultures and the second being a sociological foundation, which centers on the fact that organizations *have* cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). From these two disciplines, two

different approaches derive, one being a functional approach that suggests culture emerges from collective behavior and the second being a semiotic approach were culture exists in individual interpretations and cognitions (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The latter definition provides a more tangible opportunity for practitioners (and serves as the basis for this study). It assumes that researchers and managers can identify differences, measure them or implement changes, whereas the former exerts that the only thing that exists in organizations *is* culture, which exists at *every* point of interface (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Anthropologists and organizational researchers alike have treated culture as a set of beliefs shared by members of a social unit while asserting that elements of culture are acquired and learned through socialization (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). These elements of culture are observable interactions (and evidence of) the social experience (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988).

Culture is considered both a fact of life and an essential part of organizational change (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). Past research supports this realization in the following three ways. First, this belief is due to the increasing evidence that, when considering mergers and acquisitions, incompatible cultures are the largest cause of poor performance, turnover and wasteful conflicts (Appelbaum et al., 2000). Second, it is commonly recognized that to be successful, culture needs to support the business strategy (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). A third reason is that the need to understand and manage culture is becoming more important due to the increasing tendencies to restructure organizations due to mergers, consolidations, downsizing, etc., (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Assuming that most change initiatives will require the efforts of more than one person, then the functional approach of organizational culture centering on collective

behavior will be more relevant for mobilizing change within an organization. However, any method that uses culture as means to change should understand what type of culture currently exists in their organization.

Identifying organizational culture is not always a natural process because it can be grounded in attributes that are "taken for granted" as shared assumptions within the organization, i.e., these attributes are not always apparent to the members themselves (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Because of this, both quantitative and qualitative approaches can assist with understanding and defining organizational culture. The differences in these two methodologies have also been an issue of debate regarding which approach provides the best way to detect and describe culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). For example, a qualitative researcher might say the only way for one to understand something is to experience it while a quantitative researcher knowingly sacrifices some of the depth and understanding of a qualitative method for a large-scale comparison that provides the opportunity to evaluate multiple organizations (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Each of these research methods has advantages, but they can also be complementary (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). This study will take a macro-level approach by evaluating participants from multiple organizations to understand how culture (as well as styles of leadership and communication) are related to the act of implementing different types of organizational change.

Assessing Organizational Culture

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) and more specifically the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) will be used to study cultural

preferences quantitatively. The CVF is a metatheory developed to show differences in the values that underlie organizational effectiveness (Denison, 1991). The CVF was based on indicators to identify effectiveness (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) and past research supports the proposition that organizational culture is an important variable and reinforces the value of quantitative analysis into the function of organizational culture (Hartnell et al., 2011). The CVF elicits measures of effectiveness by focusing on the competing interests of stability or change and internal or external needs (Denison, 1991). By developing a model based on these dimensions, the CVF can integrate the majority of attempts in the literature to evaluate organizational culture, which has allowed the OCAI questionnaire (based on CVF) to become the dominant model in quantitative research for organizational culture (Yu & Wu, 2009).

The CVF, as depicted in Figure 1, shows the first dimension along the X-axis as the range or difference between internal needs, which emphasizes the welfare and development of the individual, and the external needs, which highlights the well-being and development of the organization itself (Yu & Wu, 2009). The second dimension along the Y-axis is related to the structure ranging from flexible to control, i.e., stability, (Yu & Wu, 2009). Each quadrant emphasizes different and opposing aspects of an organization (Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010).
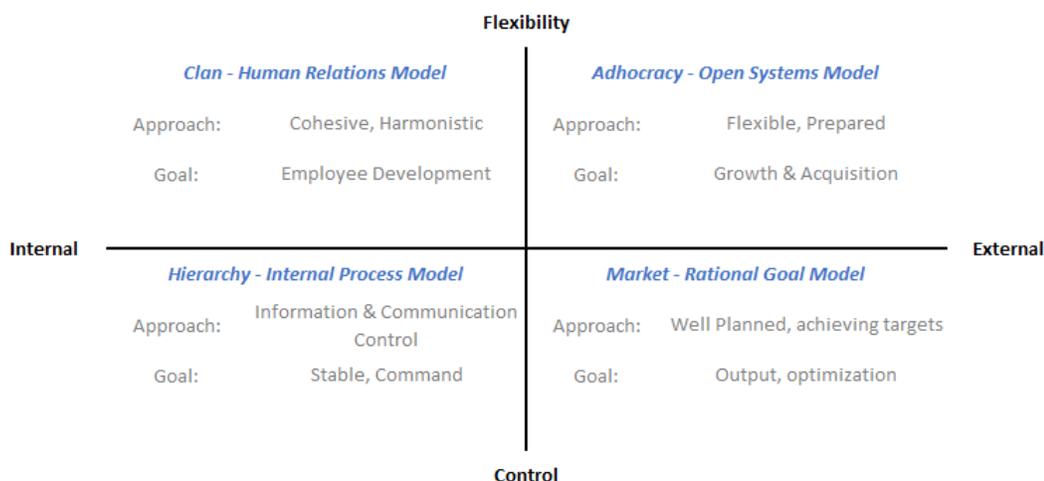
Figure 1: Competing Values Framework (CVF) (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983)

The CVF intends to highlight the important but challenging balance that managers face between stability and adaptation, and people versus task accomplishment (Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010). The OCAI solicits the beliefs and perceptions of organizational culture. It provides a diagnostic assessment based on the evaluation of core values, shared assumptions and standard practices (Heritage et al., 2014). The key to evaluating organizational culture is to allow individuals the means to assess the values and assumptions that identify the attributes of the organization, which is the purpose of the OCAI (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Lastly, the OCAI asks members to compare their ideal culture with their description of the current culture, thus allowing the opportunity to reveal differences that may help to motivate change (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988).

The OCAI evaluates six different content dimensions to include; 1) dominant characteristics, 2) leadership style, 3) management style, 4) bonding mechanisms, 5) strategic emphasis and 6) criteria for success and reward (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The value of this model is its ability to examine which elements of a culture are congruent,

the strength of its congruence and whether or not one cultural type dominates the organization or if a mixture of various kinds exists (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Another benefit of the OCAI is its ability to measure the three most common cultural dimensions in literature, those being cultural strength, cultural congruence, and cultural type (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Cultural strength is the predominance or influence that culture plays in an organization while cultural congruence is the consistency of the culture across different departments and cultural type is the specific kind of culture that the organization possesses (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Numerous studies have tested the validity and reliability of both the CVF and the OCAI, leading to their acceptance as a widely-used approach for quantitative analysis of organizational culture (Yu & Wu, 2009). After completing the assessment, the output then shows a reflection based on the strength of each value for each cultural type. It is common for organizations to have attributes of more than one culture type. However, the higher the amount of each type, i.e., cultural strength, the more likely the organization is to be defined as either: (1) Hierarchy culture, which emphasizes organization and administration, (2) Adhocracy Culture, which centers on innovation, risk, entrepreneurial growth, (3) Market Culture which emphasizes productivity and achievement or (4) Clan culture which is based on participation, parental type closeness (Cameron & Freeman, 1991).

One of the primary questions this study intends to answer is **(RQ₁)** whether or not any relationship exists between cultural type and specific types organizational change. The CVF has provided a framework for discussing how culture, through its ideological foundations, can influence both the approach and outcome of organizational change

(Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010). Given that the process of implementing change starts

with new ideas and formal action (Lewis, 2011), then different types of cultures might

respond differently to change given variances in their attributes, such as autonomy, which

may be more or less preferred, depending on the kind of change.

When predicting relationships between culture and change, it is understood that

that market cultures are externally oriented and reinforced by structure and control

(Hartnell et al., 2011). When considering large-scale changes, such as a merger, these

types of changes are typically characterized by how they are intended to change the

organization's position relative to the competition (Smith, 2002). The assumption is that

because large-scale changes have more significant implications on achieving high-level

performance metrics, then a market culture type would be preferred due to a market

culture's emphasis on productivity and achievement over individual interests (Cameron

& Freeman, 1991). To test this belief, **(H_1)** states that a market cultural type will be

positively correlated with large-scale changes.

A second prediction **(H_2)** is that a clan cultural type will be positively correlated

with small, planned, discursive changes (SPD). A clan culture is internally oriented and

supported by a flexible organizational structure that values human affiliation and attitudes

toward the organization (Hartnell et al., 2011). Small, discursive changes tend to be

focused on internal "messaging" (Lewis, 2011). Given the parental type closeness and

emphasis of participation with a clan culture (Cameron & Freeman, 1991), then it is

expected that a clan culture is preferred for changes that are less formal and centered on

evoking new perceptions or beliefs.

The adhocracy culture type is externally oriented, but in contrast to the market culture type, it is supported by a flexible organizational structure (similar to the clan cultural type) (Hartnell et al., 2011). One of the core beliefs of an adhocracy culture is that idealism and vision induce members to be creative and take risks (Hartnell et al., 2011), which supports the idea of iterative change. Because there is a lower emphasis on achieving performance targets (compared to market types), then **(H₃)** anticipates that an adhocracy culture would be positively correlated with small, planned, material changes (SPM). These changes are more formal than discursive changes in that processes, tools, or methods of conducting work are being changed (Lewis, 2011). Given that adhocracy cultures are more willing to innovate and more tolerant of failure, then it is expected that an adhocracy culture is preferred for SPM changes, which are conducive to an organizational strategy that pursues iterative change.

Lastly, the hierarchy culture is both internally oriented and driven by structure and control (Hartnell et al., 2011). A primary belief in hierarchy cultures is that employees meet expectations when their roles are well defined (Hartnell et al., 2011). There is generally some degree of transition regarding the positions of those affected during change. Given that the nature of a hierarchy culture emphasizes control and predictability (Hartnell et al., 2011), it is anticipated that **(H₄)** hierarchy cultures are negatively correlated with all four change types since organizational change by definition competes with the predictability of a hierarchy culture.

Leadership Style

Managing change is about managing people (as opposed to materials or procedures) (Morgan & Brightman, 2000). However, few leaders appreciate the significance of how influential their leadership or management styles can be on employee performance and satisfaction (Warrick, 1981). Effective leadership can anticipate the effects of change on an organization regarding the impact and organizational identity (Jacobs et al., 2013). Leadership style can affect the culture of an organization by shaping employee's beliefs about how they will be treated (Rotemberg & Saloner, 1993). For example, if repercussions are the norm for voicing different opinions, then it is entirely possible that such a belief would lead to a less innovative and dynamic environment. That could be good or bad depending on the business. However, from an employee satisfaction perspective, it has been shown that people prefer to work in an atmosphere where they can share and exchange ideas, which helps create a sense of ownership (Bhatti, Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi, & Shaikh, 2012).

Leadership is a social process where the leader seeks to influence and encourage participation of members to perform specific activities or to meet organizational goals (Bhatti et al., 2012). A leadership style is the type behavior that a leader applies when interacting with employees (Bhatti et al., 2012). One way this behavior is exhibited is of two different types of leadership, transactional or transformational (Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership occurs in a leader-follower capacity where followers are rewarded when meeting goals while transformational leadership incorporates values and vision to affect beliefs and attitudes (Holten & Brenner, 2015). The social process and leadership style of the organization is a vital consideration for creating a sense of ownership that enables stakeholders to support change. Another study viewed leadership

(from the standpoint of incentives) regarding two different personality types. The first being the empathic leader and the second being the selfish leader whereas the empathic leader takes into account preferences of their members while the selfish leader is concerned with personal incentives related to organizational goals such as his/her profit sharing bonus (Rotemberg & Saloner, 1993). Whether it be leadership behavior or personality type, leadership style is a significant factor for building relationships and gaining the trust and commitment of its members.

Much of the early literature on leadership theory have two things in common which are that they identify two fundamental dimensions of leadership (people and performance) and second, they result in four basic leadership styles (Warrick, 1981). This dichotomy results in the four leadership styles depicted in Table 3.

	Human Relations Leader	**Democratic Leader**
High	High focus is on performance and people. Assumes people are honest, self-motivated. Believes in teamwork.	High focus on performance and people. Assumes that people honest and committed to meeting goals. Emphasis on establishing organized and challenging work environment and motivating individuals to their full potential.
	Laissez Faire Leader	**Autocratic Leader**
Low	Low focus on performance and people. Assumes people are unpredictable and the role of leadership is to leave people alone and to allow performance to "rise to the occasion."	Low focus on people but high focus on performance. Assumes people are not capable and that leadership should be responsible for decision making with minimal employee involvement.

Emphasis on People (Low >>> High)

Low >>> Emphasis on Performance >>> High

Table 3: Four Basic Leadership Styles (Warrick, 1981)

A similar classification of this model portrays organizational leadership as having one of four "systems," where system one is more autocratic, with less subordinate

participation, and system four has "increasingly friendlier" managers who consult their

employees more frequently (Rotemberg & Saloner, 1993). Each of these four leadership

styles can understandably lead to different consequences. For example, Laissez-faire

leadership tends to breed apathy, disinterest and lower productivity while autocratic

leadership tends to generate preoccupation with rules and procedures resulting in less

creativity (Warrick, 1981). By comparison, human relations leaders tend to foster

"happiness" but sometimes at the expense of productivity whereas democratic leadership

results in higher levels of productivity and commitment and reduces the need for formal

procedures (Warrick, 1981). The primary focus for conceptual distinction lies between

autocratic and democratic leadership styles, which has led to a significant number of

studies evaluating the effects of these two contrasting styles (Gastil, 1994). For this

reason, along with the intuitive importance of having high performing organizations, this

study focuses on the relationship between autocratic and democratic leadership styles and

organizational change.

Autocratic leaders tend to push for performance at the expense of relationship

building while maintaining their degree of authority (Warrick, 1981). They may closely

supervise, be less tolerant of "disobedience" and see their primary purpose as that of

emphasizing their own "trademarks" (Warrick, 1981). In contrast, democratic leaders

balance the importance of performance with interest in people by striving for both

productivity and satisfaction (Warrick, 1981). They do this by providing clear direction

and good communication while motivating employees to achieve both quality and

quantity in their performance (Warrick, 1981). Despite these very different distinctions,

some laboratory studies have shown little difference in terms quantity and quality

regarding productivity (Gastil, 1994). However, these same studies have supported the notion that democratic leadership is at its best when it is a natural phenomenon as opposed to being created by the researcher (Gastil, 1994). Furthermore, democratic leadership (in laboratory settings) has shown to be relatively effective with increased task complexity (Gastil, 1994).

Both autocratic and democratic leadership styles place a high value on performance. The primary distinction between the two is how human capital is utilized and to what degree employees can expand their value in the organization. Each leadership style, depending on the business, can have it is advantages. For example, it may not be a good thing to have a high degree of autonomy or flexible work procedures when it comes to running a hospital, in this case, it may be better to have standardized decision-making procedures with different levels of authority. In other words, it may better for a doctor to decide when surgery is necessary as opposed to the nurse. However, in that same environment, democratic leadership could be instrumental when considering how to improve patient care or how to increase efficiencies. The takeaway is that even in an organization which may be autocratic by design, a democratic leadership style may benefit specific change activities and vice versa.

With the understanding that leadership is in part a social process to both influence participation and encourage members to take action (Bhatti et al., 2012), then the assumption is that an autocratic and democratic leadership style may have a differential relationship regarding the organizational change. Holton and Brenner (2015) found that leadership style has a long-term effect on the positive appraisal of organizational change, primarily in the beginning stages. However, their research did not focus on different

types of change. To what degree leadership styles are related to large or small, discursive or material changes, is not entirely known, however the second research question **(RQ₂)** determines what, if any, relationship exists between leadership style and different types of change.

Knowing that autocratic leadership styles are characterized as being more authoritarian and performance-based, then **(H₅)** autocratic leadership styles will have a positive correlation with large, planned, material (LPM) changes due to these changes having greater complexity and focus on results. Autocratic leadership styles can still incorporate transactional leadership qualities, such as rewards and incentives, which can create a platform for engaging change by reinforcing goals and rewards (Holten & Brenner, 2015). Conversely, if the change is discursive, regardless of size, it is expected that **(H₆)** democratic leadership styles will be positively correlated with both large and small discursive changes. Transformational leadership is very closely related to democratic leadership (Molero, Cuadrado, Navas, & Morales, 2007) and given that discursive changes are less tangible and focused on messaging, then it may reason that a democratic leadership style will place a greater emphasis on values and beliefs when implementing change.

Communication Style

In literature, openness in communication is defined in several different ways. First, openness has been considered as the willingness to share personal information or second, as the willingness to share non-personal information such as work plans (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987). The third definition of open communication, which to

some extent connects the first two, is that open communication is how clear or

ambiguous the language used is to convey information (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987).

Consequently, communication in organizations has long been discussed regarding matters

of increasing productivity, handling conflict, motivating employees, and implementing

change. Internal communication, in particular, is critical to building relationships with

employees (Mishra, Boynton, & Mishra, 2014). Having strong relationships with staff,

that encourages the trust and respect of leadership, is arguably critical when it comes to

having an engaged and motivated workforce. This phenomenon is in part addressed by

the Social Information Process (SIP) theory first proposed by Salancik and Pfeffer

(1978). SIP helps explain the communication process as an influencing factor in work-

related attitudes (Qian, 2013). For example, and especially in times of stress, failure to

communicate can leave employees uncertain about their roles, their future and how

changes may impact their well-being (Schweiger & Denisi, 1991). Such a scenario is

likely to lead to decreased productivity, and a proliferation of negative attitudes toward

the change, which can be the result of a lack of open communication. Providing timely

and open communication can help reduce uncertainty and increase trust in in change

leaders (Tucker, Yeow, & Viki, 2012). A more extreme example is when companies are

undergoing a merger or a major restructure that can lead to significant changes in

workflows, relationships, and reporting structures. The end goal of a merger is generally

to increase the value of the organization, but inevitably, significant changes will need to

take place to realize the value that is promised to employees and shareholders.

Communication plays a tremendous role in convincing stakeholders to embrace new

procedures, new working relationships or in some cases, the adoption of alternative

beliefs and values (Lewis, 2011). For changes, really of any size, there needs to be upfront engagement and buy-in from key stakeholders. For this to happen, internal communication should enhance trust between management and their employees to increase their engagement (Mishra et al., 2014). Another example of major change is when companies attempt to modify the culture. Historically, there is a lot of resistance, but even a change of this magnitude is possible with the right communication (Appelbaum et al., 2000). The "right" communication is, of course, dependent to some degree on the type of change, but some common elements of a good or "right" communication should include building trust and openness. A study by the Great Place to Work Institute found that employees prefer an environment where they trust their leaders and have pride in their work, which are characteristics of open communication (Mishra et al., 2014). But it does not have to be a merger or cultural change to be considered difficult. Communication for any change, big or small, can significantly increase the chances of success by increasing the value and method of information provided (Appelbaum et al., 2000). This concept is not surprising as most researchers intuitively believe that organizational effectiveness is a result of a good communication environment (Lotz & Donald, 2006).

If there is a lack of organizational communication, then reduced productivity, absenteeism and turnover can be expected (Appelbaum et al., 2000). So even if right communication is the leaders intent, it is not always easy to do well, especially in times of uncertainty (Lotz & Donald, 2006). If leadership does not provide good communication, then it can lead to people developing their own "socially derived interpretations of events and meanings" (Lotz & Donald, 2006). This scenario is not an

ideal outcome, and according to SIP, individuals may develop attitudes based on the availability of negative information from colleagues, which can lead to a distrust of leadership (Qian, 2013). However, closed communication can be the unintended result of leaders themselves fearing that the information they share may be incorrect, and consequently, they end up sharing less information, which falls short of the needs of the group (Lotz & Donald, 2006). Again, and especially when the impact of change is uncertain, this is not an easy channel to navigate. However, studies have shown that when asked to describe their ideal relationship with leadership, most people want honesty and openness (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987). This notion does invite the possibility for communication to remain open – even when all facts are unknown – by merely stating as much and at a minimum, explaining what the next steps are and what to expect as part of the process. For example, studies in social justice have shown that even when people are unhappy about the outcome of a particular process, they experience less dissatisfaction if they understand the process through open communication (Schweiger & Denisi, 1991).

But what is the right approach to communication? Management theory has done an excellent job of encouraging open communication systems for organizational change, but there is not as much discussion on the potential of different types of change and how different approaches to communication may be necessary (Barnett & Carroll, 1995). Many researchers have "uncritically" accepted the value of open communication, but alternatively, some literature has described organizational members as having multiple goals with their communication and sometimes choose methods that are not always "open" but are still effective (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987). The concept of closed communication as an effective approach is sensitive because it competes with historically

held beliefs regarding human relationships (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987). However, there

may be good reasons for "closed" communication. For example, some reasons may be

internal and range from individual differences in motivation to a lack of close

relationships, or stem from external organizational interests such as trade secrets or

environmental conditions involving regulatory compliance (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987).

These factors are naturally occurring no matter how well we subscribe to "deeply held

beliefs" about human relationships. So, it stands to reason that the degree of openness

with communication may depend on the nature of the information shared and its potential

to create disagreement (with people or protocol) (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987).

Further discussion of the right approach for communication (open or closed) is

illuminated by the three types of social accounts, causal, ideological and referential

(Cobb & Wooten, 1998). Each of these accounts is ways in which communication can be

framed (open or closed). Casual accounts identify the internal and external forces that are

motivating change and allow for open and transparent decision making (Tucker et al.,

2012). Ideological accounts address the values of change, why the leader wants to

change, and the expected result (Tucker et al., 2012). Last, referential accounts of

communication seek to adjust the frame of reference, often by comparing the initiative to

a similar company or subject (Tucker et al., 2012). It has been shown that both casual

and ideological accounts are predictors of the perceived success of social accounts for

change, and are critical for good communication (Tucker et al., 2012). Furthermore,

ideological accounts can increase trust in leadership during change by explaining the

change relative to the goals and objectives of the organization (Tucker et al., 2012).

Additional options include the finding that communication strategies such as storytelling,

informal communication, and coaching, can lead to increased trust and engagement from employees (Mishra et al., 2014). Both of which are substantial benefits, or intended outcomes, of open communication. Mostly, the key to effective communication is to ensure that information is conveyed in a way that individuals can converge on shared meanings and it may require the use of multiple formats (Dennis & Valacich, 1999), to enable "open communication."

If the change is a stressful, meaning many employees are affected and uncertain about future outcomes, then it is possible that a level of distrust and consequently, disengagement, results. Employees mostly resist change when they are unsure of the consequences of the change, which can be a result of a lack of, or closed, communication (Christensen, 2014). One way for leaders to maintain credibility is to be open with information and listen to concerns, thus allowing for a transparent dialogue to take place which is an attribute of a "trusted company" company (Mishra et al., 2014). With trust in place and an understanding of the expected outcomes, open communication may help to increase engagement by allowing employees to feel that they are (and can) contribute to the company's goals (Mishra et al., 2014). Certainly, prior research has shown the benefit of internal communication on employee commitment and building trust (Mishra et al., 2014). The challenge for leaders is to ensure they are consistently using the right level of communication under the circumstances for a particular type of change.

Organizational change requires information, interpretation, and action. Communication provides the vehicle for these fundamentals and depending on the type of change, different levels of open or closed communication may be preferred. One of the goals of this study is to understand **(RQ₃)** what, if any, relationship exists between

communication and different types of organizational change. Furthermore, there is a general agreement between scholarly literature and practitioner-oriented sources that information communicated, should be open and honest (Lewis et al., 2006). Regardless of change type, it is expected that **(H7)** all four change types will show a positive correlation between "open" communication. The implication is that employees, regardless of the kind of change, prefer to know with equal clarity, the motivation, intent, and end-goal of the organization's change initiative.

Summary

Organizational change is universal, necessary and can be very stressful for an organization and its employees. Change is not always a static and can be an ongoing process within an organization (Christensen, 2014). Depending on the magnitude of the change, different challenges are presented. For example, large, planned, material changes, such as a merger or restructure can be highly emotional and destabilizing for an organization (Lotz & Donald, 2006). Even smaller changes such as an internal communication plan to alter the names of various departments can cause people to question the meaning and potentially resist the vision for new articulation, possibly because the change conflicts with the identity of the organization. In either case, people who were once familiar and comfortable with certain beliefs or practices can find it tough to adopt new ways of doing things especially if they feel the right culture is not in place, that leadership is averse to feedback, or communication is insufficient. Organizations are complex and full of often conflicting interpretations which can lead to variation in how people make sense of the environment or how they are influenced (Lotz & Donald,

2006). For these reasons, it is essential to understand how different types of organizational culture, leadership styles, and communication styles may impact the pursuit of organizational change as a fundamental landscape. The value in understanding these dynamics is to provide insight as to how different attributes of organizational climate may be able to help with implementing change.

This study intends to evaluate how these three factors relate to the perception of organizational change. For example, if a company wants to implement a new program for employee morale, but historically, leadership has been immune to feedback, then it is possible that employees will not be very optimistic about the new plan. A scenario such as this should give pause to a change agent and may lead them to make adjustments to their communication style. People, depending on the organization's culture type, leadership style, and communication style - relative to the type of change - may perceive the pursuit of change differently. This perception is crucial as it may influence the level of commitment, or degree of effort, from employees. In other words, having an optimistic, informed and enabled employee, is usually a good starting point for implementing change.

Changes themselves can be planned or unplanned. They can be large in scope such as a new IT infrastructure or small in scope, such as changing a minor workflow. Changes can be discursive, which tend to be non-physical changes such as new terminology, or they can be material, which typically has a more physical impact such as a process change, new tool or technique. Each of these types of changes might benefit from different attributes of an organization's approach to cultivating change. The Competing Values Framework defines four different culture types that each has

competing strengths and weakness, such as people versus performance or being internally or externally focused. The leadership style that an organization employs may be more open to member feedback and willing to make adjustments, as in the case of a democratic leadership style, or the style may be more direct with planning and offer little opportunity for input, which is consistent with an autocratic leadership style. Depending on the needs of the organization and the type of change, either approach may be beneficial. Lastly, communication styles can be open and transparent, or opaque, therefore providing less clarity in content and meaning. Again, each of these different types of communication styles may be better in fit depending on the needs of the change. In any case, an employee's perception of all these factors, contrasted with a change scenario, will define the landscape for cultivating change and elicit specific beliefs about how well the organization can implement change.

The literature review evaluated three independent variables; culture, leadership, and communication, individually and relative to change, however, the assumption is that these variables may be interdependent and collectively they comprise a set of "cultivation variables" to promote organizational change. It is expected that relationships between these variables, depending on the type of change, may exist. This expectation leads us to a final research question **(RQ4)** which is what, if any, relationships exist among the three cultivation variables?

Research Objectives

This study intends to determine if there are any significant relationships regarding the type of culture, leadership or communication styles based on the type of change.

These three attributes form the basis for the "cultivation variables" for organizational change in reference to one of four different types of change (see figure 2).
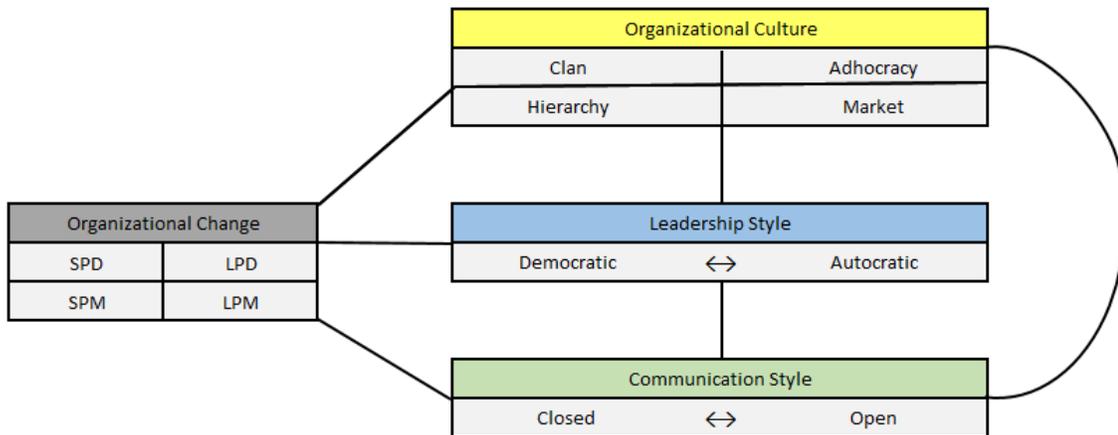
Figure 2: Organizational Change - Cultivation Test Model

Definitions:

SPD = "Small, Planned, Discursive" Change
SPM = "Small, Planned, Material" Change
LPD = "Large, Planned, Discursive" Change
LPM = "Large, Planned, Material" Change

In summary, the following research questions and hypothesis are posed as part of the study:

RQ₁: What, if any, relationship exists between cultural type and change type?

RQ₂: What, if any, relationship exists between leadership style and change type?

RQ₃: What, if any, relationship exists between communication style and change type?

RQ₄: What, if any, relationship exists between the three "cultivation" variables (culture, leadership, and communication)?

Hypothesis

H₁: A market cultural type will be positively correlated with large changes

The assumption is that large scope changes have more significant implications for achieving high-level performance metrics, thus suggesting that a market-based culture may be preferred for these types of changes.

H₂: A clan cultural type is positively correlated for small, planned, discursive changes (SPD)

The assumption is that small, discursive changes, are less complicated and more susceptible to "perceptions" to attain their intended effect. Because of this, it is assumed that closer-knit cultural types will be preferred for implementing small changes.

H₃: An adhocracy cultural type is positively correlated for small, planned, material change (SPM)

The assumption is that small, planned, material changes tend to be more iterative, with lower expectations for impact, and have less risk, thus enabling the preference for a more innovative and risk-seeking culture.

H₄: A hierarchy cultural type is negatively correlated with all four change types

It is expected that by comparison, most people would prefer not to work in a hierarchal culture that deemphasizes their opportunity to contribute beyond their typical role

H₅: An autocratic leadership style will have a positive correlation with large scope material changes

The assumption is that large scope material changes are complex and more likely to be driven by measurable performance-based goals. Because of this, an autocratic leadership style, which still clearly defines goals and incentives, will be preferred.

H₆: A democratic leadership style will be positively correlated with both large and small discursive changes

The assumption is that discursive changes are more susceptible to "perception" and influenced by values and beliefs, which may allow for a more transformational and democratic leadership style.

H7: All four change types will show a positive correlation between "Open" communication

The underlying assumption is that employees prefer open communication regardless of the type of change. Although Eisenberg and Witten (1987) noted that closed communication could be useful, the belief is that open discussion is preferred, as open communication, more specifically with the use of causal and ideological accounts, tends to increase trust and transparency with decision making (Tucker et al., 2012).

Methods

The research design was a cross-sectional study involving four separate control groups based on one group for each of the four different change scenarios (reference Appendix A) and as depicted in detail in figure 2. The study intended to measure the frequency of statistically significant relationships between each of the three dependent test variables, which are designed to articulate the organization's landscape for cultivating change, as well with each of the four independent control groups. The four independent control groups each represent a type of planned change (small planned discursive, small planned material, large planned discursive, and large planned material). Each of these groups, or change types, were evaluated in relation to all four cultural types (hierarchy, adhocracy, market, clan) based on the average score for each, along with a seven-point Likert scale for both leadership style (democratic or autocratic) and communication style (closed or open). The relationships were both evaluated under the current state and desired future state, for each control group.

Participants

There were a total of 411 participants, recruited through Qualtrics, all of which were selected based on the following four items for demographic criteria. First, each participant is currently employed as a direct, full-time employee. Current employment is intended to ensure they had an implicit agreement for long-term employment and that they have a contemporary point of organizational reference. The assumption being that a part-time or contract employee may not be as familiar with the organization, or if

unemployed, the time spent separated from their last organization may impact their responses. Second, all participants work for a non-government organization. The rationale is that, in general, government organizations tend to be less dependent on the competition when compared to most public or private business and second, they may be less able to implement organizational change due to regulations, budgets, oversight, etc. This distinction may not be valid for all government organizations however for this study; the intent was to focus on public or private organizations. Third, each participant works for a "for profit" organization. The reasoning is that "for profit" institutions, on average, may be more susceptible to competitive pressures such as technology changes, developing new products or services, entering new markets, competition for customers, etc., which may increase the likelihood (and available resources), to invest in change. Lastly, each participant is with an organization that has at least ten employees. Having a minimum of ten employees ensures that there is a reasonable degree of interdependent workflows and diffusion of authority and decision making, as opposed to single person entity.

The sample (N=411) had a 100% response rate, and was nearly evenly divided between men (n=208, 50.6%) and women (n=203, 49.4%). The majority of participants were between the ages of 30 and 49 with a range between 18 to 64 (there were no respondents 65+), and broken down by three groupings, 18-29 (n=115, 28%), 30-49 (n=251, 61.1%), and 50-64 (n=45, 10.9%). Over 50% of respondents had at least a four-year college degree, however the overall dispersion of education was "Some High School" (n=7, 1.7%), "High School/GED (n=68, 16.5%), 2 Year Degree/Some College" (n=106, 25.8%), "4 Year Degree" (n=137, 33.3%), "Some Post Graduate" (n=24, 5.8%),

and "Post Graduate or Professional Degree" (n=69, 16.8%). The majority of respondents were "Caucasian/Non-Hispanic" (n=286, 69.6%) followed by "Hispanic or Latino" (n=56, 13.6%), "Black or African American" (n=31, 7.5%), "Asian / Pacific Islander" (n=23, 5.6%) and "Native American or American Indian (n=6, 1.5%). A total of nine participants identified their ethnicity as "other" (n=9, 2.2%). Participant income ranged from less than $30,000 (n=47, 11.4%) to greater than $150,000 (n=24, 5.8%). The median income was between $50,000 and $74,999 (n=116, 28.2%). In terms of experience level, the majority of respondents identified as being either "Mid-Level/Management" (n=161, 39.2%) or "Experienced" (n=147, 35.8%), followed by "Executive" (n=63, 15.3%), "Owner/C-Level" (n=21, 5.1%) and "Entry-Level" (n=5, 1.2%). Of these respondents, the vast majority were employed with their current organization for more than one year with most respondents having between "6 and 10 years" (n=122, 29.7%), followed closely by those with "10-19 years" (n=117, 28.5%), then "1-5 years" (n=85, 20.7%), "greater than 20 years" (n=82, 20%) and least of all, those with less than one year (n=5, 1.2%).

Research Procedures

Research data was gathered from an online survey using Qualtrics Survey Software. The questionnaire consisted of four main sections, organizational culture, leadership style, communication style, and demographics. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four control groups, representing the independent variable of "organizational change type." Each respondent read their assigned change scenario and

then answered a series of questions under each section. Respondents were asked to evaluate each section twice, first under the "current state" of the organization in reference to the change scenario and second, regarding what the "preferred state" would be under the same change scenario. For example, if a respondent read a change scenario regarding a large material change, the respondent was asked to assess the current state (i.e., the organizational leadership style of the company could best be described as "Very Democratic" to "Very Autocratic") using a seven-point Likert scale. Once all of the current state questions were complete, the respondents were then asked their preferred state, (i.e., the organizational leadership style that would best support this change effort, could be described as "Very Democratic" to "Very Autocratic") using the same seven-point Likert scale. The questions for the preferred state are the same or nearly the same as the current state (there may be some grammatical adjustment to maintain context). Lastly, all participants were volunteers, over the age of 18, and were not compensated for completing the survey. Data analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS V24) to measure which, if any, statistically significant relationships exist.

Variables

There are four primary variables to be evaluated, each of which draws from past literature on their respective areas. The variables are as follows.

Change Topology. The change scenario represents the independent variable, and within this variable, there are four different control groups based on the type of change. The framework for each change scenario, as depicted in Table 2, is adapted from Lewis

(2011) which initially combined three elements to categorize change (size, type, planned or unplanned) (Lewis, 2011). The framework as discussed earlier focuses on two of the three elements, the size of the change (large or small) and type (material or discursive). Using Lewis's definitions, a "large" change, as opposed to a "small" change, will likely be both multifaceted, i.e., more than one change is occurring within the scenario, and multi-dimensional, i.e., one or more of the changes have subsequent parts (Lewis, 2011). In defining the difference between the type of change, a discursive change will typically involve practices of the relabeling of key terms or adopt uses of new language to give the impression of (or to motivate) change without actually doing things differently (Lewis, 2011). In comparison, a material change will typically alter an operation, procedure, relationship, etc. (Lewis, 2011). With this classification, four different change scenarios (shown in Table 2) represent each of the planned change scenarios. The participants (N=411) were randomly and fairly evenly distributed across all four control groups, small planned material (n=100, 24.3%), small planned discursive (n=101, 24.6%), large planned material (n=101, 24.6%) and large planned discursive (n=109, 26.5%). Reference Appendix A for the detailed change narrative descriptions, which were used to administer the survey.

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). Organizational culture type is one of the three dependent variables and is measured using the "Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). The OCAI is based on the Competing Values Framework (see Figure 1) and is used as a diagnostic tool to assess culture based on core values, shared assumptions and standard approaches to work (Heritage et al., 2014). The output of the OCAI shows both the current state and desired state of organizational

culture based on four different cultural types. As described earlier, the four cultural types are:

1. Hierarchy Culture – Emphasis is on organization and administration (Cameron & Freeman, 1991).

2. Adhocracy Culture – Emphasis is on innovation, risk, entrepreneurship (Cameron & Freeman, 1991).

3. Market Culture – Emphasis is on productivity and achievement (Cameron & Freeman, 1991).

4. Clan Culture – Emphasis is on participation, close relationships (Cameron & Freeman, 1991).

The OCAI is typically administered with an ipsative scale, meaning participants are asked to distribute 100 points between four questions, one question for each cultural type. The ipsative scale forces respondents to identify trade-offs and typically provides more disparity in responses (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). However, ipsative data is not conducive to normative interpretation (Hicks, 1970). Because of this, a seven-point Likert scale was used. There is precedence for using Likert scales, which were validated using a five-point scale in past research (Heritage et al., 2014). Since the intent is to measure relationships to other variables, the Likert scale allows for each cultural type to be measured as a stand-alone variable, thus allowing for comparative analysis using normative statistical methods. Additionally, Likert scales provide ordinal categories, which still enable respondents to maintain a level of intensity in their responses (Smith & Roodt, 2003). Similar to the original OCAI, respondents will be asked to rate both the current state as well as the desired state relative to each change scenario. Comparative

measurements between current and desired state were achieved by averaging the responses across the six dimensions. For example, the original OCAI includes 24 questions, with each of the four cultural types (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) measured across the six dimensions of culture, as defined by the OCAI. The average of these six responses, by cultural type, then represents the overall measure of the culture per the respondent. The response scale ranged from 1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree and resulted in eight items, four each for the current and preferred state. Table 4 provides the overall descriptive statistics, by culture type and current or preferred state, for all four change scenarios combined. The mean score for all items tended to show "somewhat agree" (5=Somewhat Agree) with modest increase when considering the preferred state. For example, the largest increase in comparing means was when considering an adhocracy culture where, on average, respondents "somewhat agreed" that the level of adhocracy in their current state culture was conducive to change (N=411, M=4.88, SD=1.25). When considering the preferred state of adhocracy in their culture, respondents tended to prefer a slightly higher degree when considering an organizational change (N=411, M=5.1, SD=1.21). (Reference Appendix B for the Likert OCAI scale).

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Current State_CLAN	411	6.00	1.00	7.00	5.1399	1.25073	1.564
Current State_ADHOC	411	6.00	1.00	7.00	4.8804	1.24888	1.560
Current State_MARKET	411	6.00	1.00	7.00	5.1594	1.06976	1.144
Current State_HIERARCHY	411	6.00	1.00	7.00	5.1959	1.05214	1.107
Preferred State_CLAN	411	6.00	1.00	7.00	5.3366	1.23032	1.514
Preferred State_ADHOC	411	6.00	1.00	7.00	5.1002	1.21972	1.488
Preferred State_MARKET	411	6.00	1.00	7.00	5.1610	1.15480	1.334
Preferred State_HIERARCHY	411	6.00	1.00	7.00	5.2855	1.11025	1.233

Table 4: Organizational Culture Type

Leadership Style. The second dependent variable is the Organization's leadership style which focuses on the degree of autocratic or democratic leadership. Autocratic leadership is a style of leadership that places a high emphasis on performance but a low emphasis on people, while democratic leadership has an emphasis on performance and people (Warrick, 1981). The leadership style questionnaire used a seven-point Likert scale ranging from, 1=Very Democratic to 7=Very Autocratic. Taking into consideration all four change scenarios, participants tended to prefer democratic leadership styles (N=411, M=3.52, SD=1.49) to their current state of leadership (N=411, M=3.98), SD=1.54). (Reference Appendix C for Leadership Style Questionnaire)

Communication Style. The third and final dependent variable is the organization's communication style. Communication style focuses on the degree of "open" or "closed" communication. Open communication is the perceived clarity and willingness of information provided (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987). Closed communication is the perception of ambiguous, inconsistent or incomplete information (Mishra et al., 2014). A seven-point Likert scale ranging from, 1=Very Closed to 7=Very Open, will be used to measure the perceived intensity of each communication style. Taking into consideration all four change scenarios, participants tended to prefer more open communication style (N=411, M=5.30, SD=1.32) to their current state of communication (N=411, M=4.97, SD=1.37). (Reference Appendix D for Communication Style)

Results

Identifying an overall relationship between the four different types of culture and change, was the focus of RQ_1. A one-way ANOVA was conducted, however the results showed no statistically significant relationship between any of the four types of culture in relation to the four types of change.

The preference for culture type under each of the change scenarios was the focus of H_1 through H_4. H_1 stated that a market cultural type would be positively correlated with large changes (both discursive and material). H_2 stated that a clan cultural type would be positively correlated with small, planned, discursive changes. H_3 stated that an adhocracy cultural type would be positively correlated for small, planned, material changes. Last, H_4 hypothesized that a hierarchy culture would be negatively correlated with all four change types. In all four hypotheses, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted. However, none of the results showed statistical significance, and in all cases, the hypotheses are rejected.

Determining whether a relationship exists between the preferred style of leadership and the four different types of change was the intent of RQ_2, which examines what, if any, relationship exists between leadership style and change type. Pearson correlation and ANOVA tests were conducted; however, no statistically significant results were found to support the notion that a relationship exists between leadership style and different types of change.

Further evaluation of leadership style with large scope changes was the focus of H_5 which hypothesized that an autocratic leadership style would be positively correlated with large material changes. Pearson correlations and ANOVA tests were conducted, and

in only one case, with preferred state market culture, was an autocratic leadership style positively correlated with large materials changes [r=.220, n=107, p=.027]. None of the other three culture types showed a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and large material changes. Thus H_5 is rejected.

Perceptions of democratic leadership styles regarding large and small discursive changes were the focus of H_6 which stated that a democratic leadership style would be positively correlated with both large and small discursive changes. Similar to past tests, Pearson correlation and ANOVA tests were performed. The results did show statistically significant correlations for democratic leadership under small discursive changes [SDC=3.36] with all four culture types; preferred state clan culture [r=.341, n=101, p=< .01], preferred state adhocracy [r=.286, n=101, p=.004], preferred state market culture [r=.308, n=101, p=.002], and preferred state hierarchy [r=.308, n=101, p=.002]. In regards to large discursive changes, only two of the four culture types showed a statistically significant relationship and positive correlation for democratic leadership styles; preferred state clan [r=.296, n=100, p=.002], and preferred state hierarchy [r=.250, n=100, p=.009]. In total, H_6 hypothesized that a democratic leadership style would be positively correlated for all small and large discursive changes. Since there was not a statistically significant relationship between market and adhocracy cultures in the large discursive change scenario, then H_6 is rejected.

Determining if any relationships exist between communication style and the four change scenarios was the focus of RQ_3. Again, Pearson correlation and ANOVA tests were conducted. For small material changes, there were two statistically significant relationships. Communication style was positively correlated with a preferred clan

culture state [r=.320, n=100, p = .001] and preferred adhocracy culture [r=.273, n=100, p=.006]. However, there was not a statistically significant relationship regarding market and hierarchy cultures. For small discursive changes, all four culture types showed statistically significant relationships. Communication style was positively correlated with a preference for clan culture [r=.341, n=101, p = <.001], adhocracy culture [r=.286, n=101, p=.004], market culture [r=.310, n=101, p=.002] and hierarchy culture [r=.308, n=101, p=.002]. For large material changes, and similar to small discursive changes, all four culture types showed statistically significant relationships. Communication style was positively correlated with a preference for clan culture [r=.478, n=101, p = <.001], adhocracy culture [r=.340, n=101, p=.001], market culture [r=.245, n=101, p=.014] and hierarchy culture [r=.285, n=101, p=.004]. Lastly, for large discursive changes, only two of the four culture types showed a statistically significant relationship. A preference for clan culture, with large discursive changes, was positively correlated with communication style [r=.296, n=109, p=.002] as well as hierarchy culture [r=.250, n=109, p=.009].

H_7 predicted that all four change scenarios would show a positive correlation between open communication. Again, Pearson correlation and ANOVA tests were used. The tests showed there was no statistically significant relationship between a preference for open communication and the type of change scenario. Thus H_7 is rejected.

Last, and independent of the type of change scenario, RQ_4 asks what, if any, relationship exists between the three "cultivation" variables (culture, leadership, and communication)? A Pearson correlation test was used, and the results showed a mixture of results. A preference for clan culture showed a positive correlation with communication style [r=.356, N=411, p=<.001] but did not show a statistically

significant relationship concerning leadership style. A preference for an adhocracy culture, similar to clan culture, showed a positive correlation with communication style [r=.267, N=411, p=<.001] but did not show a statistically significant relationship with leadership. A preference for market culture showed positive correlation for communication [r=.206, N=411, p=<.001] and leadership [r=.100, N=411, p=.042]. A preference for hierarchy culture, like clan and adhocracy, showed a positive correlation for communication [r=.255, N=411, p=<.001] but did not show a statistically significant relationship with leadership style. There was no statistically significant relationship between preferred leadership style and communication style.

Discussion

The primary objective of this study was to understand how variables such as culture, leadership, and communication may cultivate an organizational landscape for change. The primary emphasis was on evaluating the relationships between each of these variables, under different scenarios of change, and whether there was any correlation. By furthering the understanding of the relationship between these variables and organizational change, this study intended to provide insight that will lead to future studies and applications such as an organizational model that would allow practitioners to enable different types of change with preferred attributes of culture, leadership or communication. In total, this study posed four research questions and seven hypotheses. In most cases, the study failed to show statistically significant results. Furthermore, there was minimal variation between current and preferred states of organizational culture, which likely contributed to the lack of statistical significance when comparing preferences among the four different change scenarios. Among the three cultivation variables; culture, leadership, and communication, only communication style, with preferences for openness, showed statistically significant relationships in most cases. This study intended to show not only more significant relationships but a difference in preferences for each of the three variables when considered under different kinds of change. Several reasons for this outcome are discussed under the limitations of the study however first each finding will be evaluated on their theoretical basis.

The first research question posed RQ_1 was to understand whether any significant relationships exist between each of the four cultural types and change scenarios. Cameron and Freeman (1991) classified four types of organizational culture with each

having unique attributes based on competing factors of internal versus external needs, and in contrast to the need for flexibility and control. The Competing Values Framework (CVF) provided a model for understanding the underlying effectiveness of an organization, how the organization balances competing frameworks, and has also shown that culture is related to how well the organization can implement change (Hartnell et al., 2011). The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), with CVF as the theoretical backbone, provides a proven instrument to measure the beliefs and perceptions of organizational culture (Heritage et al., 2014). Using the OCAI, participants were asked to evaluate current and desired states of organizational culture in relation to different types of change. Change was classified by adapting Lewis's (2011) model of categorizing change as either big or small, discursive or material, which resulted in four separate change scenarios (control groups). Based on the theoretical implications of the CVF, as applied to four distinct change scenarios, this study anticipated finding significant relationships between culture and change. However, the results did not show any significant relationships between an organization's current or preferred cultural type with any of the four different change scenarios. This result is unexpected given the CVF framework to assess cultural attributes. However, this result should not be interpreted as a disagreement with the CVF. Instead, it is more likely that the participants do not view differences among the four types of change in relation to organizational culture. One reason for this may be Christenson's (2014) view that change is not a static process but is, in fact, a continuous process where it may be difficult to single out an independent initiative. A second consideration is that the change topology applied does not properly take into account the organizations identity and unique needs.

Change, regardless of type, may conflict with the identity of the organization (Jacobs et al., 2013), which could be an overriding factor that prevents participants from viewing change as a differential construct. Meaning that in any case of change, employees do not conceptualize change regarding size or type, but in terms of how the change relates to their perception of the organization's identity. Such a scenario may explain why there was no significant variation between the different types of change. Furthermore, H_1 through H_4 set out to specifically compare the preferences for organizational culture type with specific degrees of change. H_1 predicted that a market culture is preferred for large changes (material and discursive). Market cultures are defined by their emphasis on productivity, planning, and performance (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Large changes, as opposed to small changes, tend to be multi-faceted and have greater implications within the organization (Lewis, 2011). The assumption was that a market culture, with an emphasis on achievement, would be better suited to support a large-scale change. The results did not show any significant relationship between market culture and large changes, which again, may be the result of how the participants view change. H_2 predicted that a clan culture is positively correlated with small discursive changes. Clan cultures emphasize participation and parental closeness within the group (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Small discursive changes are focused on messaging or label changes as well as being less dimensional when compared to large changes (Lewis, 2011). It was expected that an emphasis on participation, especially when considering smaller-scale changes, would show that clan culture would be the preferred culture type. However, there was no significant relationship. H_3 considered the fact that adhocracy cultures tend to be more agile, entrepreneurial, and prone to iterative change (Cameron & Freeman,

1991). As a result, H_3 predicted that an adhocracy culture is preferred for small material changes, which in practice, are conducive to iterative change initiatives (Lewis, 2011). However, and similar to the previous hypotheses, the results did not show a statistically significant relationship. Last, H_4 predicted that all four change types are negatively correlated with hierarchal cultures. The reasoning was that hierarchal cultures are driven by structure and control (Cameron & Freeman, 1991), which may limit the opportunity, or degree of influence, an individual would have when participating in change. The prediction that hierarchal cultures would be negatively correlated with all four change scenarios is also supported by the inherent conflict that organizational change creates when compared to the fact that hierarchy cultures value predictability and control (Hartnell et al., 2011). Again, the results did not show a significant relationship in any of the four cases. In all of the previous hypotheses, preferences for a particular type of culture were expected to show correlation with different types of change. However, there was no statistical support. The CVF is a proven model of assessing culture, but it is most likely that the adapted topology from Lewis (2011), when compared to preferences for organizational culture, does not allow participants to distinguish between different types of change adequately. It is possible that change is viewed as a single construct, either because change is continuous within their organization or change tends to viewed regarding its impact on organizational identity and irrespective of the type of change.

Leadership style, which is the second primary variable presented in cultivating change, is part of a social process to encourage specific behaviors or actions (Bhatti et al., 2012). RQ_2 asked what relationship, if any, exists between leadership style and change. Specifically, autocratic and democratic leadership styles were evaluated as part of the

study. Autocratic leadership styles tend to focus more on performance, sometimes at the

expense of human interest, whereas democratic leadership styles will strive to find a

balance between the two (Warrick, 1981). Furthermore, Holten and Brenner (2015)

found that managers who involve their followers, and are active in the process of change,

can generate more positive appraisals of the change. However, the results of the study did

not show a significant relationship between leadership style and the type of

organizational change. This finding was surprising as it was anticipated that participants

would, at least with some change scenarios, have a preference for one leadership style

over the other given the four types of change. This finding may be consistent with

Gastil's (1994) assertion that neither autocratic nor democratic leadership is more

productive than the other. Both autocratic and democratic leadership styles place a high

value on performance; however, the primary difference is how leadership engages

employees (Gastil, 1994). Alternatively, although conceptually independent of

democratic leadership, transformational leadership was found to be closely related to

democratic leadership (Molero et al., 2007). Holten and Brenner (2015) found that

transformational leadership, where managers engaged employees as visionary role

models, was most effective in the initial stages of change. The lack of a significant

relationship between leadership style and change type may support the notion that neither

is more productive than other. However, the change scenarios may not have allowed

participants to view change as a process and therefore differentiate between the qualities

of democratic and autocratic leadership styles at different stages. H_5 assumed that an

autocratic leadership style would be preferred for large material changes on account of

these changes typically having increased complexity and a higher focus on results

(Lewis, 2011). Although this study rejects H_5, given that three of the four culture types did not show any significance, it is noted that under a market culture type, large material changes showed a preference for autocratic leadership. This finding is consistent with a market culture's emphasis on achievement (Cameron & Freeman, 1991) and is similar to H_1, which predicted that a market cultures are preferred for both large material and large discursive changes. Conversely, H_6 predicted that democratic leadership styles are positively correlated with both small and large discursive changes. The basis for this hypothesis is that discursive changes tend to be less tangible and more focused perception than results. Democratic leadership is defined by placing a higher value on people (Warrick, 1981) with the implication being that discursive changes are more inclined to target attitudes and beliefs (as opposed achieving performance targets) which would suggest a preference for democratic leadership. Similarly, H_6 was rejected as a preference for democratic leadership style under discursive changes as the preference was not uniform across all four culture types. Regarding small discursive changes, all four culture types showed a statistically significant preference for democratic leadership styles. However only clan and hierarchy cultures showed a statistically significant preference for democratic leadership styles with large discursive changes. The results show a general tendency for democratic leadership with discursive changes. However, it is not apparent why market and adhocracy cultures did not show a statistically similar preference.

Communication style was the last primary variable for cultivating change, and RQ_3 asked, what, if any, relationship exists between communication style and change type. Communication was discussed as being open or closed whereas open

communication institutes a willingness to be consistent and transparent with information to allow for a convergence on shared meaning (Eisenberg & Witten, 1987). The Social Information Processing theory helps explain how communication is an influencing factor of work-related attitudes due to the fact that individuals develop attitudes based on the information available to them, and a lack of information can lead to negative attitudes regarding change (Qian, 2013). Furthermore, Eisenberg and Witten (1987) noted most employees prefer honesty and openness with leadership. Based on past research indicating a preference for open communication, it was not surprising that small discursive and large material changes, showed a statistically significant preference for open communication. However, with small material changes, neither market nor hierarchy cultures showed a significant relationship. Similarly, with large discursive changes, neither market nor adhocracy cultures showed a significant relationship. Based on the results, it is possible that the change scenarios did not capture, or align well, with cultural values, and second, the change scenarios may not have resonated to the level that the participants would feel a sense of stress or uncertainty with the change. A key attribute of open communication is that open communication can help build trust and relationships (Mishra et al., 2014) and it is possible for managers to identify appropriate social accounts (causal, ideological, referential) to help reinforce trust during the change process (Tucker et al., 2012). If the change scenarios are not evoking a need to build trust, then the preference for open communication may not strongly exist. H_7, regardless of cultural type, predicted that open communication would be positively correlated with all change scenarios. Surprisingly, there were no statistically significant results. Intuitively, and consistent with the literature review, it was expected that people would

prefer open communication versus closed communication. This result may be the strongest example yet that indicates participants did not (or do not) view organizational change as a differential construct within this study and may instead view change as a continuous state as posited by Christenson (2014). This notion is supported by RQ4, which omitted change scenarios, and asked what, if any, relationships exist between the three cultivation variables. The results did show that preferences from all four cultural types have a statistically significant relationship for open communication. This result is consistent with the finding from Eisenberg and Witten (1987) that showed a preference for open communication. However, when considering leadership style (similarly independent of change), only market culture indicated a preference for a democratic leadership. Which again is surprising, especially considering that clan and adhocracy cultures place higher value on dialogue and personal interests (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Last, there was no statistically significant relationship between communication style and leadership style. It would have been expected to see a correlation between open communication and democratic leadership on account that both styles tend to be more engaged and transparent when implementing change.

Limitations

One of the primary limitations of the study was whether the change topology allowed for participants to view change as a differential construct. In general, there was minimal variation between the change scenarios and preferences for culture, leadership, or communication. This limitation is in part related to the fact a manipulation check was not conducted on the change scenarios and their relevance to the topology applied. When

considering change, some of the past research (e.g., SIP) noted the social implications of information sharing on attitudes regarding change. In this study, participants were asked to read a change scenario. However, the mere act of reading the change scenario may not have been sufficient to evoke the actual stressors of change regarding uncertainty, information flow and other factors of social context. A second reason that participants may have viewed change as a single construct, regardless of the scenarios, is, and as noted by Christenson (2014), that it is not always clear as to when change starts, stops and whether it is, in fact, a continuous versus static process. Last, change is becoming more and more frequent in organizations and is becoming an inevitable aspect of organizational life (Burnes, 2005). Each of these reasons, lack of social context, the ambiguity of when change exists as well as the increasing prevalence of change within organizations, may, in part, lead to the notion that respondents do not view change as large or small, material or discursive, in relation to culture, leadership or communication.

A second limitation is that this study took a macro-level approach by soliciting respondents from a multitude of different organizations. Every organization has unique needs and identities (Jacobs et al., 2013) and it is possible that by viewing a larger sample size of organizations, that this study was not able to account for the variation of reference points from the participants. The assumption is that one respondent's interpretation of change, relative to their organization's identity, may differ significantly than another respondent from a different organization. This study may not have been able to account for this variation in interpretation stemming from the magnitude of organizations involved. Organizational change is challenging because in many cases, change is viewed as a violation of the organization's identity (Jacobs et al., 2013). Because this study

evaluated a multitude of organizations, it was not possible to identify how culture, leadership, or communication are related to unique needs and identities of different organizations.

Future Research

One of the primary recommendations for future research includes validating the adapted model of classifying change. Validation can be accomplished in two ways. First, a pilot study can be conducted to determine if the respondents view the change scenarios as being sufficiently distinct from one another and secondly, whether the situations appropriately reflect their classification. A second approach would be to conduct another pilot study that assesses attitudes toward change. For example, if organizations are continually changing as suggested by Burnes (2005), Lewis (2011), and others, then a pilot study may help to establish a model of classifying change that better reflects the beliefs and attitudes of employees when faced with a change initiative. It is possible that with a better understanding of the beliefs and attitudes of organizational change, then participants may be better able to describe preferences for culture, leadership, and communication.

The second suggestion for future research would be to focus on a smaller sample size of similar organizations. Even if organizations appear similar, they often have different audiences, which can lead to differences in identity and thus, have significant implications on preferences for approaching change (Jacobs et al., 2013). Still, a smaller sample size of presumably "like" organizations may help to limit the underlying variation

in how change, culture, communication, and leadership is interpreted by limiting the number of organizational reference points. Additionally, Holten and Brenner (2015) evaluated appraisals of change from a leadership perspective at different stages. They found that differences in leadership style at the early stages of change can have a long-term impact on attitudes toward change. By taking a smaller sample size of organizations, it may also be possible to select organizations that are in the active stages of initiating change, which can then allow for a longitudinal study that may allow researchers to understand how preferences for cultural attributes, leadership or communication styles may change over time.

Last, and although this was not a primary focus of this study, similarities between concepts of transactional and transformational leadership when compared to autocratic or democratic leadership may pave the way for future research to understand better how these behaviors are related and can be applied to improve the overall quality of leadership. Similarly, with communication, there appears to be an opportunity to expand on the definition of "open" communication and how different accounts as described by Tucker et al. (2012) may be able to compliment the distinction between open and closed communication depending on the context of a specific type of change.

Conclusion

Change can be critical for organizations that require a need to adapt or transform how they do business as a response to any number of internal or externally driven causes. Past research has provided some insight on the challenges organizations face when pursuing change. The objective of this study was to understand how other vital areas of prominent research within organizations such as culture, leadership, and communication, are related to organizational change. These areas of research formed the bases for three *Cultivation* variables which were then tested against a topology for different types of change based on the size and intended effect of the change. Seven hypotheses and four research questions were posed. While none of the hypotheses were accepted, one of the research questions did statistically support a positive correlation, and preference, for open communication in each of the four culture types. The goal of the study was to determine if any relationships exist and thereby set a course of research that may help to align different kinds of culture, leadership, and communication with specific categories of change. Although this study did not identify a statistically significant framework in which to continue the original research, this study was able to draw attention to specific areas such as how change may be viewed conceptually and how attitudes regarding change may affect preferences of culture, leadership, and communication.

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Appendix A: Change Narratives

Change #1 – Small Planned Discursive

Your company wants to improve the morale of their employees. There is a limited budget, so any major investments are off the table, but the plan is to create a committee who will have part-time responsibilities for increasing employee morale through internal communication. The thought process is that by implementing an internal communication team, employee morale can be improved by providing a channel for information regarding important topics in the organization. Volunteers will be sought for the committee and the time commitment is not expected to be burdensome. It is assumed that the topics for communication, the messaging and the actions taken, will be at the discretion of the committee. How well this teams works together and is supported by the organization (both management and peers) will be a factor on whether they can achieve the mission of increasing morale through internal communication.

With this context in mind, please answer the following questions related to organizational culture, leadership style and communication style. Each topic will require two responses. The first series of questioning will ask you to examine the "current state" of the organization - as it exists - if pursuing the change scenario above. The second series within each topic will ask you to identify what the "preferred state" should be, to enable the same change scenario from above.

Change #2 – Small Planned Material

There is an opportunity to improve the customer quoting and order process. It is assumed that the process can be improved to save time, reduce mistakes and increase customer responsiveness. It is also expected the new process may require training, new documentation and potentially new workflows to meet the goals. A cross-functional team will need to be established either voluntarily or by assignment. The team's mission is to develop and implement the new process in order to meet improved performance targets. They will have an allotted timeframe and resource pool.

With this context in mind, please answer the following questions related to organizational culture, leadership style and communication style. Each topic will require two responses. The first series of questioning will ask you to examine the "current state" of the organization - as it exists - if pursuing the change scenario above. The second series within each topic will ask you to identify what the "preferred state" should be, to enable the same change scenario from above.

Change #3 – Large Planned Discursive

Recent feedback from a customer survey is that the company's "brand" does not resonate with their customers nor does it convey the desired meaning and purpose. This is concerning because the company does a high volume of business in a market that benefits from loyal relationships. Because of this, a large-scale initiative is being kicked-off to re-brand the company. The team responsible for leading the change will be

internal, but potentially, external consulting may be considered if deemed beneficial. It is expected that the end result will include a new logo, new communication plan, and new company literature and artifacts among other things. The right team will need to be assembled, and efforts will need to be taken both internally and externally to establish the new brand.

With this context in mind, please answer the following questions related to organizational culture, leadership style and communication style. Each topic will require two responses. The first series of questioning will ask you to examine the "current state" of the organization - as it exists - if pursuing the change scenario above. The second series within each topic will ask you to identify what the "preferred state" should be, to enable the same change scenario from above.

Change #4 – Large Planned Material

Your company has recently been acquired by a much larger organization. Although there are some continuities regarding the market and industry, there are also differences in the overall strategy and approach to doing business. While the culture, leadership and communication style of the acquiring company is unknown, it is expected that your company will be involved in the transition process and responsible for internally implementing major changes regarding workflows and reporting structures as well as the need to adapt to new financial controls, information systems, and human resource policies. The reason for the merger was to increase the value of the acquiring organization, however beyond that, not much is known about the full implications of the acquisition.

With this context in mind, please answer the following questions related to organizational culture, leadership style and communication style. Each topic will require two responses. The first series of questioning will ask you to examine the "current state" of the organization - as it exists - if pursuing the change scenario above. The second series within each topic will ask you to identify what the "preferred state" should be, to enable the same change scenario from above.

Appendix B: Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

The OCAI was originally developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006).

Note: The following questionnaire was used for both "current" and "desired" states.

1. Dominant Characteristics		1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat Disagree	4 Neither	5 Somewhat Agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree
A	The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.							
B	The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.							
C	The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.							
D	The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.							
	Total							
2. Organizational Leadership		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.							
B	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.							
C	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.							
D	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.							
	Total							
3. Management of Employees		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.							
B	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.							
C	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.							
D	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.							
	Total							
4. Organization Glue		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.							
B	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.							
C	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.							
D	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.							
	Total							
5. Strategic Emphases		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.							
B	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.							
C	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.							
D	The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.							
	Total							
6. Criteria of Success		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.							
B	The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.							
C	The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.							
D	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.							
	Total							

A Worksheet for Scoring the OCAI

Current State or Desired State

	1A		1B
	2A		2B
	3A		3B
	4A		4B
	5A		5B
	6A		6B
	Sum (total of A responses)		Sum (total of B responses)
	Average (sum divided by 6)		*Average (sum divided by 6)*
	1C		1D
	2C		2D
	3C		3D
	4C		4D
	5C		5D
	6C		6D
	Sum (total of C responses)		Sum (total of D responses)
	Average (sum divided by 6)		*Average (sum divided by 6)*

Current or Desired State	
A (Clan)	
B (Adhocracy)	
C (Market)	
D (Hierarchy)	
Total	

Appendix C: Leadership Style Questionnaire

Current State: Leadership Style

#	Question	Value
0	1=Very Democratic; 2=Democratic; 3=Somewhat Democratic; 4=Neither; 5=Somewhat Autocratic; 6=Autocratic; 7=Very Autocratic	
1	The organizational leadership style of the company could best be described as:	___
2	My coworkers would describe the organizational leadership of this company as:	___
3	I would describe the way leadership treats others in this organization as:	___
4	The type of organizational leadership style evident through communication with leadership could be best described as:	___

Desired State: Leadership Style

#	Question	Value
0	1=Very Democratic; 2=Democratic; 3=Somewhat Democratic; 4=Neither; 5=Somewhat Autocratic; 6=Autocratic; 7=Very Autocratic	___
1	The organizational leadership style that would best support this change effort, could be described as:	___
2	My coworkers would describe the best leadership style to support this change effort as:	___
3	I would describe the best way for leadership to treat others in the organization for this change effort as:	___
4	The type of organizational leadership style that would best support communication with leadership for this change effort could be described as:	___

Appendix D: Communication Style Questionnaire

Current & Desired State: Communication Style

#	Question	Value
0	1=Very Closed; 2=Closed; 3=Somewhat Closed; 4=Neither; 5=Somewhat Open; 6=Open; 7=Very Open	___
1	The level of openness in my communication with coworkers	___
2	The level of openness in superior-subordinate communication	___
3	The level of openness in my communication with other organizational members	___
4	The level of openness in my communication with upper management	___